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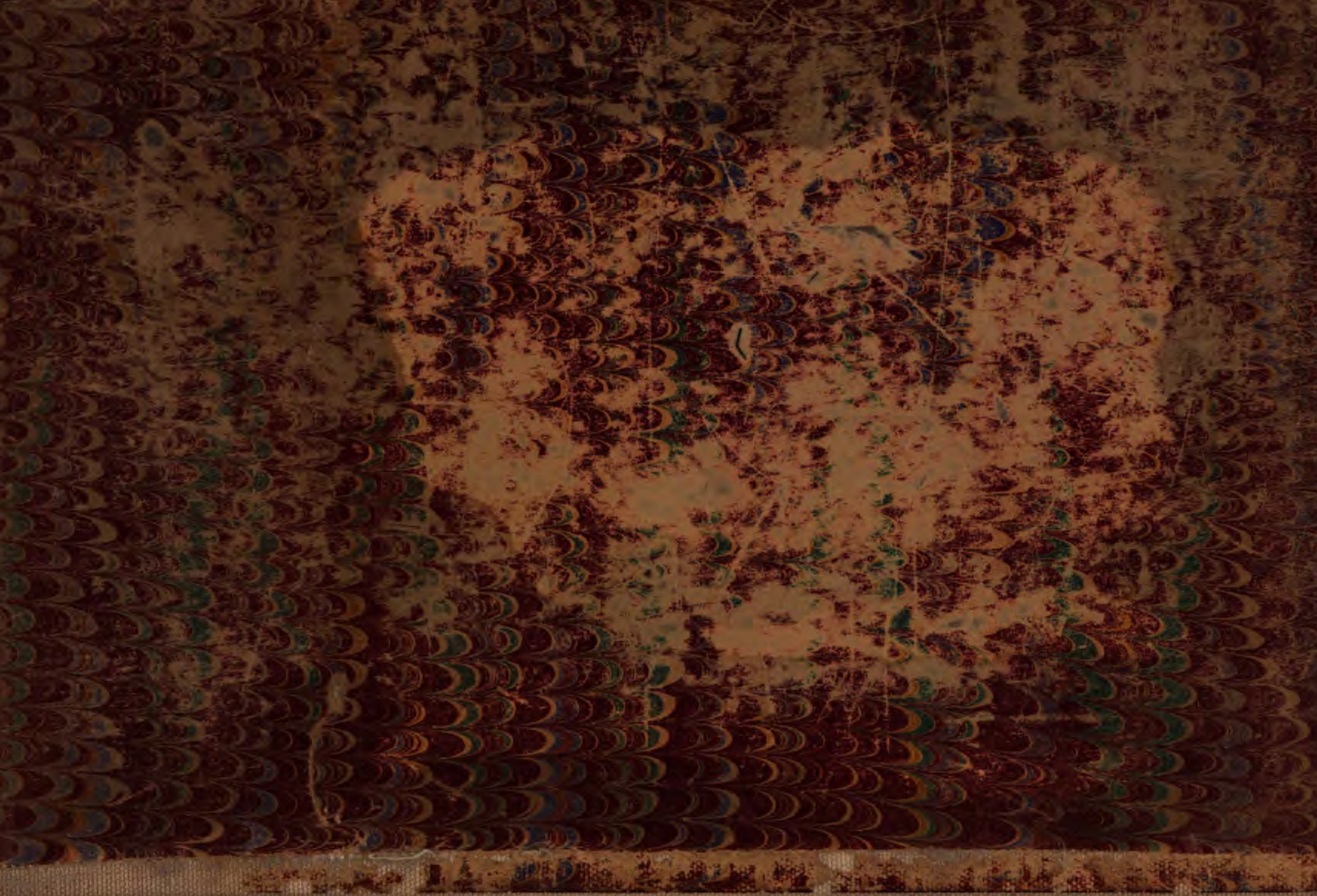

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The Nation

A WEEKLY JOURNAL

DEVOTED TO

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VOLUME LXIII

FROM JULY 1, 1896, TO DECEMBER 31, 1896

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 2, 1896.

The Week.

THE Democratic convention in Wisconsin on June 23, like that in Minnesota a fortnight earlier, declared in favor of the gold standard and against the free coinage of silver. As the Republicans in these States had previously taken the same position, both parties in Wisconsin and Minnesota are now committed to the doctrine of sound money that is really sound. The same thing is true of the Republicans, who are the dominant party, in North Dakota; the Democrats there have not yet held their convention. These three States constitute that section of the Union where the foreign element is the largest anywhere to be found, the proportion of the population whose parents, one or both, were foreigners, being 73.69 per cent. in Wisconsin, 75.42 per cent. in Minnesota, and 78.98 per cent. in North Dakota. Those persons who think that foreign ignorance is what threatens the stability of American institutions, will do well to contrast the financial history and present position of these three States with the record and attitude of three such States as Kansas, where the foreign element is only 26.78 per cent., Missouri with 24.98 per cent., and Kentucky with but 9.87 per cent.

The Democrats of Illinois went wild last week for free silver and free riots. "The arbitrary interference on the part of the federal Government in local affairs," they say, "by ignoring the lawful authorities, is not only a violation of the Constitution of the United States, but a crime against free government, and is destructive of the very foundation of democratic and republican institutions." This refers to Debs and the great strike and boycott of the American Railway Union. It affirms virtually that if a riot breaks out in any place which stops the running of cars, the movement of interstate commerce, and of the United States mails, and if the Governor of the State is in sympathy with the rioters and neglects to suppress their unlawful acts, then the President of the United States must do nothing but allow the rioters to have their way. This is Altgeld's theory of free institutions—freedom to throw trains off the track, to burn loaded cars in the midst of great cities, to kill conductors and engineers if they attempt to perform their duty, and to strangle the trade and commerce of the whole country. Naturally the passage of this resolution by the convention is followed by another cordially endorsing the administration of Gov. Altgeld. Illinois would be in a pitiable condition if such a man could be re-elected as her chief magistrate after all that he has done to produce chaos in her principal city. It was right for the convention to renominate Altgeld. It is time to find out what sort of people inhabit the State, and whether life and property are really safe there—a question which can be determined in no other way so speedily and surely as by putting his name before the voters for their suffrages once more. Four years ago they did not know the man. Now they know him very well.

Mr. Whitney's absurd New York Democratic platform has been received by the silver Democrats in just the way that might have been expected. It heartens them greatly. If that is the best the Democracy of New York can do, the silverites may gayly run down their steep place into the sea. For argument, all they need to do is to point to Mr. Whitney's concessions. He gives the whole case away. All he lacks is the courage of his convictions. *That* they will supply in unlimited quantities, with the courage of their ignorance thrown in. He is all very well as a philosopher to point out the way where he dare not go, but they are the men of action who will translate his reasoning into deeds. What the silver Democrats dreaded was an outspoken and uncompromising gold platform from the New York Democracy, with a bolt distinctly threatened. If such a platform had been put out last April, it would have had a powerful effect in other States. But to wait till the end of June, and then give forth a lot of mushy bimetallism, was the surest way to make New York Democrats contemptible in the eyes of the party and the nation.

The Democratic nomination for the Presidency will not be made for a week, and the canvass never really opens until some weeks after the last of the conventions. But the fight for control of the next House of Representatives is already on, and, as we have previously said, that body will hold the key to the situation. The Senate, from 1897 to 1899, will surely be controlled by the silverites. With either the nominee of the Chicago convention or McKinley in the White House, we can no longer depend upon the President for protection from the silver madness, as has been the case under Cleveland. The only assurance of salvation will be in the election of a House of Representatives a majority of which will prevent any concession whatever to silver. The pressure for some concession will be tremendous. If McKinley shall be elected, he will come in pledged to give the country a high tariff. The Senate will "hold up" any tariff bill until the ransom price is paid in the shape of an agreement to coin more silver dollars, or buy more silver bullion, or coin the seigniorage. What is absolutely essential is a majority in the House which cannot be inveigled or bulldozed by the protected interests into a surrender to the silverites.

In order to secure such a majority, the sound-money men must go to work without a moment's delay. Two members of the next House have already been elected—Republicans from Oregon who favor "doing something for silver." Two Republicans have already been nominated in Kansas districts upon silver platforms. Silver Republican newspapers in the West, like the Detroit *Tribune*, are urging the immediate organization of the silver forces to capture the caucuses and secure the nomination of Representatives who will pledge themselves to favor silver legislation. Congressman Aitken of the Sixth Michigan District, a Republican who seeks reëlection, declares that he is "bitterly opposed to a single gold standard, and will not tolerate it." Republican Representatives in other Western States are explaining that the St. Louis platform really commits the party only to opposition to free coinage, and declaring that they will favor other silver legislation if they shall be returned to the next House. Such developments as these show the imperative necessity for equally vigorous action on the part of the sound-money men at once. Nominations in a large proportion of the districts will be made before the Presidential canvass really opens in September. If the believers in a gold standard postpone work until then, they may find that it is too late to avert the danger of an untrustworthy House of Representatives.

All the outgivings from Canton indicate that McKinley and his managers will try to make the tariff the issue of the campaign. "The tariff is the only issue, of course," says the great Hanna, after a conference with the candidate. "There is but one issue, and that is the tariff," says Thomas McDougall, a Cincinnati politician, after a similar conference. "The drift of all McKinley's speeches and conversation thus far," writes William E. Curtis, who knows him well, to the Chicago *Record*, "is towards a revival of interest in the tariff, which the national committee will force to the front as an issue in the campaign." It is easy enough to say that the tariff shall be the issue, but how are McKinley, Hanna, and the rest going to make it such? A new tariff can be secured only through a trade with the silver men, like the one in 1890, when Teller & Co. insisted upon the silver-purchase act before they would let

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the McKinley bill become a law. So long as this is the case, the financial question must be the chief issue. To say that all the country wants is revenue, and that the Republicans will pass a tariff bill that will give this revenue, will deceive nobody when every one knows that the Senate will never let such a bill through unless another blow shall be dealt at the stability of our currency system. It is right to say, however, that McKinley on Friday made a speech at Canton, in which for the first time he defined his dollar satisfactorily. He said it must be a dollar "good for a dollar, not only at home, *but in every mart and marketplace of the world.*"

It is a curious survival of the Blaine campaign that clergymen should have taken to writing letters to the newspapers calling attention to McKinley's exemplary church-going habits. The objections to Blaine were, indeed, of a sort which a good record for church attendance would tend to rebut; though it would also be consistent with the theory that he was not only a dishonest man, but a hypocrite as well. But McKinley's personal character is not called in question, and testimony as to that can hardly be taken as a conclusive reply to the doubts about him which are really troubling people. What they want to know is, if he is the man, by knowledge and conviction and force of character, to take charge of the nation's finances at a crisis of unexampled gravity. They crave assurances that a man who endorsed notes up to ten times the amount of his property will not consider that method a safe one in conducting the business of the Government. They are anxiously trying to find out whether he will resolutely veto a bill for the further purchase of silver and inflation of the currency, and whether he will exhaust every power lodged in the Executive to maintain gold payments before he will see them fail. Really, we must point out to the reverend logicians, it is no answer to say that McKinley is regularly in his pew on Sunday mornings, or that he does not beat his old mother.

The working of the McKinley magic is already visible in business, as all earnest thinkers knew it would be, though it is a little hard to follow the process. A surprising falling off in our worsted and cotton imports from England is reported for the past four months. This is as it should be. McKinley simply will not have imports. The trembling Britishers know this, and would not, of course, risk their goods in a land where the eye of a McKinley is upon every recreant American who dares to wear a foreign coat or shirt. To be sure, the falling off appears to have occurred under the wicked Wilson tariff, of which the main design was to strengthen England's "hold" upon us, but what we would ask is, did it occur until McKinley was "sure to be nominated"? We rather think not, and we believe a careful comparison of dates would show that the diminution of exports from Bradford was coincident with the visit of the *Tribune's* London correspondent to that unhappy city. The manufacturers learned from him that it was all up with them, and that no more of their exports would be received in this country. Then there is the closing of our own cotton mills, threatened on an extensive scale on account of overproduction. At first sight, one would say that McKinley should have stopped this. Can the manufacturers have forgotten to appeal to him, instead of simply consulting the market, before ordering the shutdown? He might have told them that their trouble was all due to the cursed Wilson tariff. He might have believed it; but they would not, because they have testified, through their spokesman, Senator Aldrich, that the cotton schedules of the Wilson bill were the most scientific and thoroughly protective ever framed. Like talking with Mrs. Tulliver, this is all "puzzling work," and we fear that the puzzle of it will grow denser from week to week.

The London *Economist* explains why the adoption of the gold plank at St. Louis did not send up the price of American securities abroad "with a sharp bound." In the first place, it says, there is not in the resolution a "a breath of strong conviction," and the long dodging and bad record of McKinley had filled foreign investors with fears which the platform alone could not allay. But further than this, not a hint, not a suspicion of a suggestion, is given in the platform as to the way in which the existing gold standard is to be preserved. President Cleveland, with his heart in the work, has been struggling to do that all through his administration, and by the only method now available. For doing so he has been denounced like a pickpocket by Republicans. They now say they are going to maintain the gold standard, but of measures to do it they breathe not a word. Foreign investors, says the *Economist*, want to see a definite programme of currency reform before they will be prepared to pin their faith and their money to a platform generality. On top of all these doubts come the militant and extravagant policy of the planks relating to foreign affairs, and the general threat to trade involved in the promise of a return to Chinese-wall protection. Thus the gold plank at St. Louis, while it undoubtedly prevented something like a panic which would have resulted from a free-silver or straddling platform, did not positively and efficaciously reassure foreign markets. For the reasons mentioned by the *Economist*, "they have failed to respond as was expected," and, it adds, "it cannot be said that their caution *is* unjustifiable."

Gov. Morton's selection of ex-Mayor Gilroy as member of the Greater New York Charter Commission, in place of Mr. Fitch, who declined to serve, is a most indefensible act. It would have been difficult to find in this city a more thoroughly unfit man. Certainly none more so could have been found outside the membership of Tammany Hall. Mr. Gilroy is nothing except a Tammany man, and the Governor has no reason for putting him upon the Commission except as a representative of that organization. He is certainly not a representative of the city and its interests, as he has had no training which fits him to be of assistance in evolving a system of government for the proposed great city. The only science of government that he has ever studied is that which Tammany carries out when it is in possession of public office. Everybody knows how Gilroy executed that as Mayor. He put Scannell the murderer into the Fire Department, put Sheehan the Buffalo defaulter into the Police Department, and obliged Tom Platt by giving Sheehan as associates two Republican Boys, Mike Kerwin and Charlie Murray; made Barney Martin and Joe Koch Police Justices, and Mike Daly Commissioner of Public Works. He has no idea of public office except to turn it to the personal profit of himself and his political associates, who are mainly persons of disreputable character, dissolute and irregular lives, and general ignorance. It is an insult to every reputable man on the Commission to ask him to sit with Gilroy as an associate.

The city of Milwaukee has been the scene of the most extensive application of the boycott ever seen in this country. On the 4th of May the men employed by the company which operates the street-car lines struck for higher pay, which the company refused. The usual concomitants of such a strike followed for a few days—difficulty in operating the cars until a full force of new men could be secured, with more or less disorder and assaults upon the "scabs." This state of things did not last long, however. The company had soon manned the cars, and its full service was resumed. Then came the novel feature of the strike. The former employees declared a boycott of the cars. Such orders have been issued under similar circumstances in other cities, notably in the great Third Avenue strike in New York a few years ago, but never before were they regarded by more than a small portion of the laboring element in the community. In Milwaukee, on the other hand, the strikers were at first able to make practically the whole population abandon the street-cars, and either patronize the 'busses and

other conveyances which they put on the principal streets, or walk. It is actually true that for days cars would go along routes where they were ordinarily well filled at all times and crowded sometimes, and not average more than one passenger a trip, even in the "rush" hours. Business men, professional men, all classes, were threatened with loss of patronage, law-suits, damages of every sort, if they should ride in the cars. For some time the public was so much dazed that hardly anybody dared to defy the boycott. Gradually, however, most of the people recovered their senses and their courage, resumed patronage of the cars, the 'busses lost their passengers, and at last the managers of the strike declared the boycott "off," having secured nothing for themselves out of the strike, and only diminished the power of the company for a long time to pay the higher wages that they sought.

Judge Wright of the Illinois Circuit Court has declared unconstitutional and void the State law requiring the national flag to be displayed over every schoolhouse. The case came before him in the form of a motion to quash indictments found against certain school trustees and other officials for failing to execute the law. The Legislature had made such violation of the law a misdemeanor, and therein, so Judge Wright holds, had exceeded its powers. The decision hinged on this point. There was no question of the right of the State to order the flag flown on any of its buildings, at such times and in such a manner as it saw fit. The effect of this decision will be to make patriotism, in so far as it consists in flinging the flag to the breeze, optional. This may seem a horrid conclusion to some perfervid brethren, but, after all, it simply puts patriotism in the same category with the other leading virtues. It is perhaps unfortunate that we cannot by law compel all citizens to be sober, saving, honest, kind to wife and child, but we cannot; nor can we, if Judge Wright's exposition of the law is sound, compel them to be patriotic. Illinois school-children may incur great civic dangers by not being allowed to see the flag above their heads. Certainly they will be as much at sea as the rest of us about the great McKinley definition of "sound money"—that it is something "as untarnished as the flag." Still, they may learn in their school histories that the flag was very badly tarnished in the Mexican war, Gen. Grant being witness, and so not lose so much after all. Anyhow they will have to be patriotic, as they will have to be virtuous, from an inward spring if at all, and not by act of Legislature.

At the meeting of the Tory members of the House of Commons on June 15, when the melancholy announcement was made by Mr. Balfour that not one of his pet and promised bills could be passed, a remark was made by the veteran Sir John Mowbray which elicited the only real applause of the afternoon. It was to the effect that he hoped one result of the grand fiasco, as of the experience of the late Liberal Government, would be to teach parties the folly of overloading their legislative programme. In other words, this thing of promising the millennium out of hand, and then going on to leave Satan just as visibly unchained as before, is getting to be wearisome. For nothing did Mr. Balfour and Lord Salisbury and Chamberlain rail more caustically at the Liberals than for having undertaken so much more than they could possibly perform. Yet they at once promised three times as much—very naturally, having three times the majority. But here is their first session gone to wreck, and all their promises gone to protest. Whether parties will learn wisdom from the unexampled breakdown, may be doubted, despite Sir John Mowbray's pious hopes. Parties are bound to bid against each other for popular support, and the highest bidder seems to carry off the prize. If one side promises the millennium, the other must pledge itself to bring in two, with the Golden Age and the *Saturnia regna* thrown in. Of course the bigger the promises, the bigger the smash when they are unfulfilled; but the temptation to win votes by the easy process of making promises seems to be too much for mortal politicians. The Republican platform, for example, contains a tremendous array of solemn undertakings to do things that the framers knew would not and could not be done. All they had their eye on was the election, which they hoped to win by promising everything, and then afterwards get up some diversion, like a foreign war, to appease the disgusted and enraged voters.

Mr. Balfour's failure as leader of the House of Commons is partly the fault of his party and more the inevitable result of his temperament. An impossible task was laid on him—the task which Mr. Bright described as that of driving six coaches-and-four abreast through a street where but one at a time could go. Too many and too complex bills were given him, with orders to pass them this session. The thing could not be done. But the great incapacity is that of Mr. Balfour's own mental make-up. He is infinitely bored by the dreary speech-making of the House of Commons. Nine hours of it is more than his refined and subtle intellect can endure. He will not sit it out. But the prime requisite in a successful leader of the House is constant and watchful attendance. Even the cynical Disraeli recognized this fact and was unflaggingly at his post. Mr. Gladstone, up to the very end, especially when the home-rule bill was pending, was always on the Treasury bench, except when he was springing to his feet to controvert some dullard over whom Mr. Balfour would only have groaned inwardly and then gone out. So notoriously slack is his attendance on the House that the fact is frequently thrown in his face. He attempted to reply to Sir William Harcourt, the other day, when the Liberal chief turned on him roughly with the question how he could venture to answer a speech he had not heard. Such things are fatal to the discipline of party and the prestige of the leader. As Mr. Lucy says: "The House of Commons is a team that may be successfully driven only by an undeputed coachman always on the box-seat." Mr. Balfour's ability is unquestioned, but the ablest man that ever lived could not succeed in his place unless he made up his mind to chain himself to his seat in the House, to suffer fools gladly, and to have the run of business and debating always accurately in mind. All this is no doubt distasteful to a speculative intellect like Mr. Balfour's, but then, as the man said about writing a sonnet, it is so easy *not* to be leader of the House, and the speculative intellect essaying it must take on the air and the methods of the hard-hitting, practical, galley-slave intellect.

The Pope's latest encyclical on Christian unity is a very elaborate argument for Roman supremacy, but how it touches existing conditions and problems it is hard to see. His long and careful demonstration that the Church of Rome is the most likely centralized and authoritative exponent of Christian doctrine and practice, will be shed as so much water from the backs of those who, like the Protestants, deny the desirability of having any such authority at all, or, like the Greek Christians, affirm that Rome has widely departed from the primitive faith. Thus the whole encyclical necessarily has an unpractical air, like a bit of laboratory experimentation, with little regard to the hard and ugly facts. The Pope has before made friendly and charitable advances to both the Greek and Anglican Churches. Nothing resulted in either case except a polite but firm refusal to take a step towards that union of Christendom which consists in submission to Rome. After these rebuffs in the practical sphere, it looks as if Leo XIII. had determined at any rate to put on record the reasons he has for believing that he is right. His encyclical will make an excellent thesis for use in Catholic seminaries. Those who are already convinced will find it irrefragable. It is very learned, very logical (granting the premises quietly assumed), and is argued through with the air of a disinterested and detached philosopher. But the philosopher is, unfortunately, so detached from the facts confronting him that his reasoning cannot be expected to have any practical results.

THE ISSUE OF THE CAMPAIGN.

MR. MCKINLEY, in his speech at Canton on Saturday, made an allusion to the money question as one of the issues of the campaign. It came out rather slowly, but it came nevertheless, and what he said encourages us to believe that he will say more by and by. He said that it was one of the missions of the Republican party to give the country a dollar which would pass for a dollar in every marketplace in the world. Now, the only dollar that passes for 100 cents in all the markets of the world is the gold dollar. It certainly is the mission of the Republican party to preserve this dollar, and it is equally the mission of the gold dollar to preserve the party, for everybody can see that this is to be the overtopping issue of the campaign. The men who are prating about the tariff, and pretending that protection is in danger under schedules of duties averaging 42 per cent. ad valorem—a tariff higher than Mr. Morrill ever drew in his palmiest days—will not be heard of two months hence, or at all events will not be listened to. Their voices will be completely lost in the 16-to-1 whirlwind. Mr. McKinley's speech shows a dawning recognition of the kind of campaign that is now beginning.

The Sunday papers contained an interview with Mr. Whitney in which he acknowledges that he does not expect to change the purpose of the silver majority at Chicago. They are too many and too stubborn, he says. They are going to adopt a platform which will disrupt the party because honorable men cannot stand on it. Very true. We have foreseen that catastrophe to the party for some weeks. We say now that it is best for the country that the silver majority should go on and do what they were appointed to do, for if they should turn around at the instance of Mr. Whitney and go against their instructions, the country would put no confidence in their change of heart. People would say that they had been false to their constituents. Moreover, a change on their part would not change their constituents. All the poison of 16 to 1 would be rankling among them as before, and would be more virulent than ever by reason of such treachery. It would have to be doctored just the same. The delegates to Chicago, in the improbable event of their being lured away by sirens, would simply disappear beneath the waves. Their successors, whether calling themselves Democrats, or Populists, or Teller men, would be in full panoply, if not this year, then next year and thereafter until beaten in fair fight, perhaps more than once.

There is still another reason why it is best that the silver majority at Chicago should do what they were appointed to do. If they should turn around and adopt a straddling platform, the sound-money Democrats, or most of them, would then vote their own ticket. The Democratic party would be no safer than it is now, but the sound-money vote would be divided. It is not impossible in that event that the Democrats might elect enough Congressmen to make a majority, with the aid of the Populists and the Teller Republicans. It is needless to point out the dangers of such a combination. The thing most to be desired is that the sound-money vote of the country should be united on the Presidential ticket, and united on Congressmen wherever the silverites are anywhere near one-half of the total vote.

Still another reason for wishing the Democrats at Chicago to do what they have been bidden to do is that the business of the country will never be on a sound footing as long as the present uncertainty about the money standard continues. Even our esteemed contemporaries of the McKinley League ought to see this now. They have been telling us that their candidate was the advance agent of prosperity, that he was sure to be nominated and sure to be elected, and that his very name was going to make good times. Yet business does not improve. Last year was bad for trade, but this year is worse. There has been no lack of McKinley to account for the dulness. He is nominated. He will probably be elected, but there is just enough doubt about it to leave a shadow on the standard of value, by which credit is impaired. The banks are putting themselves in condition to meet the worst. Men who have money refuse to lend it because they do not know what they will get back. There is much less talk about the advance agent of prosperity now than there was two months ago.

The question what shall be the issue of the campaign, is one which cannot be settled by McKinley, or Hanna, or the Republican national committee. It is settled by the people. The issue of any campaign is that question in which the people are most deeply interested. That question this year is the currency. The free coinage of silver is advocated earnestly as the only cure of the hard times. It is a dogma which finds a host of men ready to accept it as the true faith. It will be preached upon every stump in every doubtful State. It will carry such States unless it is met. If the Democratic campaign in such States as Nebraska, Kansas, Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, and even Ohio, were to be made for free coinage, and the Republicans, instead of meeting these arguments, were to do nothing but talk high tariff, they would deserve to lose them, and probably would get their deserts.

The time has come for every man who has saved anything, even though it be only ten dollars in a savings bank, to fight for the ownership of it. The demand for free-silver coinage is a demand for a division of property. It is even worse than that, for a division might conceivably be made without losing any part of the whole, but a division by changing the value of the dollar would involve enormous losses by which nobody would be the gainer. Such losses are taking place now through the interruption of industry, the lack of enterprise, the curtailment of credit which everybody feels and for which there is no visible or ascertainable cause except the threatened change in the measure of values. It is proposed to divide the dollar in two parts, to give one-half to the owner, and have a scramble for the other half with the chance of losing it altogether. This is the vital issue, and the Republican party will win if it has the sense to make its campaign on it. If we could imagine the party to be so stupid as to allow the Democrats to fill the land with free-silver literature and stump speeches, and attempt to meet them with tariff arguments (especially McKinley tariff arguments), we would not give much for their chances at the end of the campaign.

THE NEW YORK DEMOCRATIC PLATFORM.

WE had hoped that the efforts of the Eastern delegates to the Chicago convention might be effectual in preventing that body from taking a plunge to the silver standard, and that the New York delegates especially would go thither with a weighty declaration of principles—one that should present a very stiff barrier to the mad rush of the South and West. We have been disappointed, notwithstanding some excellent features that have been incorporated in the platform adopted at Saratoga.

The first thing in this platform is an appeal to the party faith as revealed unto Thomas Jefferson that "the monetary unit must stand on both metals." If Jefferson were alive, he would be astonished to learn that this was an article of party faith and that he was the author of it. The saying came about in this way. Hamilton, the leader of the Federalists, was preparing his report on the establishment of a mint. He took facts as he found them—among others the fact that both silver and gold were in use as money throughout the world at ratios differing somewhat in different countries. So he decided that both metals ought to be received and coined at our mint, at a ratio coinciding as closely as possible with their value in the market. He put this idea in his report, and sent it to Jefferson for his advice and criticism before sending it to Congress. Jefferson read the paper, made certain remarks upon it in writing, and returned it to the author. Among his notes were the words: "I agree with you that the monetary unit must stand upon both metals." In citing the passage the platform-makers at Saratoga omit the words "I agree with you." Those words show that it was not the original conception of Jefferson, and that it was not "a declaration of party faith," but merely an expression of Jefferson's concurrence

with his chief political opponent on a matter of business.

This misconception or misquotation is not, however, the chief point of objection to the platform. The chief objection is that it confirms the silverites in their present beliefs. When you tell them that party faith requires that "the monetary unit must stand upon both metals," they say, "That is just what we are fighting for." When you tell them that this article of party faith cannot be realized until something else is done by some other country or countries, they reply that articles of party faith cannot wait for ever for realization; that they have waited twenty years for Europe to come upon Jefferson's platform; that as often as Europe has been invited to do so, she has declined, and that it is useless to wait longer. If the declaration of party faith is to be kept alive, if it is ever to become a vital principle, it must be put in force by ourselves; and why not now as well as at any other time?

The next paragraph of the platform is as malapropos as the previous one. It "arraigns" the Republican party for demonetizing silver in 1873. "The action of a Republican Congress and a Republican President," it says, "deprived silver of its equality with gold for the money and currency of the nation." "Exactly so," replies Bland; "Exactly so," echoes Tillman; and the words go reverberating through the ranks of the silverites from the Potomac to the Rio Grande and the Columbia. This was "the crime of 1873"; we are going to punish it now. "From this act," continues the Saratoga platform, "(for which the Democratic party was in no wise responsible), and from the action of other nations following in the same course, it has resulted that silver has greatly declined in commercial value, and there now exists a wide departure of the two metals from the coinage standard of value—bringing disturbance to the financial systems of European countries as well as to our own, and awakening there, as here, the earnest apprehension of statesmen and financiers." All of which, besides being a gratuitous assumption, serves to confirm the silver men in their opinion that they are redressing a great wrong, and that if they succeed, they will bring back prosperity instead of plunging the country into a deeper abyss than it has ever known before.

The truth is, that no disturbance was produced by the adoption of the single gold standard either in this country or in Europe. On the contrary, the most frequent and serious cause of disturbance previously existing was removed, namely, the oscillations due to the changes of market value of the two metals. Great prosperity followed, especially in this country. From 1879 to 1890, with a few brief intervals, due to over-speculation, the United States enjoyed a most prosperous career. It was in the last-mentioned year that the Sherman silver act was passed. It was in that year that confidence in the standard of value was first seriously shaken, and from that year to this it has been subjected to frequent shocks, and will continue to be as long as there is a party formidable in numbers threatening to reduce the dollar on which business now rests, to the value of fifty-two or fifty-three cents. The only financial disturbance caused by the demonetization of silver exists in the imaginations of the bimetallist philosophers.

The resolution of the Saratoga platform which calls for the retirement and cancellation of the greenbacks, while commendable in itself, will not cure the mischief which has been done by telling the silverites that they are all right except as to the particular method they have adopted for carrying out their views.

THE MENACE TO RAILROADS.

THERE is probably not a railroad manager in the United States who is not lying awake o' nights thinking of the results of the free coinage of silver to him and his property and his employees. If he has any gold bonds outstanding (and nearly every one has them), the first question is how he is to get gold to pay his interest if the standard money of the country is silver. No railroad can live and maintain solvency if its receipts are in the form of silver and its payments are made in gold. The silver dollar is worth somewhere between 50 and 60 cents, varying like a shuttlecock, but not likely to rise above 60 cents for any considerable time. A railroad which has a million dollars of gold interest to pay must expend nearly 2,000,000 of silver dollars in order to meet this single liability. It is very easy to say, "Raise your rates; charge the public $2 freight where you now charge $1; make them pay 4 cents per mile for riding on the cars instead of 2." The thing cannot be done, or, if done at all, only at the end of a protracted turmoil and struggle during which bankruptcy will overtake every road so situated.

This is not all. The gold-interest problem is only a part, and not the largest part, of the green cloud in the railroad horizon premonitory of a cyclone. The cost of labor and materials will rise in proportion to the fall in the value of the money. It must be so because that is the law of money. Men cannot do the same amount of work for a silver dollar that they can for a gold dollar, because it is not worth so much. It will not buy so much. It will not bring in the same amount of flour, meat, clothing, and other commodities. Consequently the railroad employees and material men must have more dollars than they get now for a given amount of labor and supplies. Iron, lumber, coal, oil, and everything else will cost more. But where is the money to come from? The people who are served by the railroads must pay it. But they will resist any advance as long as they can, and, while they are resisting, the roads will be unable to pay the increased wages and prices demanded. The President of the Atchison Road pictures the situation in its true colors, thus;

> "There is not a Western railway, with a few exceptions, that does not pay out 70 per cent. of its gross receipts for labor and supplies. The exceptions pay out 60 per cent. The margin of profit for capital is very small. If, as the free-silver advocates themselves claim, free silver will raise the price of products and labor, the railways will have to raise their charges accordingly. Furthermore, if we are to receive 50 cents in place of $1, the railways will be driven into confusion and bankruptcy. The proposal is to revolutionize the money basis in the face of the world. If it carries, it will be followed instantly by a widespread panic and havoc, blacker and more disastrous than any business calamity that ever swept America. The situation which now confronts railway managers and the managers of great investments and capital is that of awaiting the settlement of this tremendous question and the wiping out of the menace against their property and money."

What is true of the railroads is true of nearly all large business undertakings. Most of them have some debt. Most of them have been brought into existence by borrowing. They have obtained capital cheaply by promising to pay interest and principal in gold. They have borrowed gold under contracts to return gold. All such undertakings are exposed to the same hazard as the railroads. There is no difference between them except that the railroads are a little more in evidence by reason of the daily quotation of their securities in the newspapers. Coal mines, gas works, iron works, electrical companies, cotton and woollen mills, cities and States that have bonds outstanding, are in the same plight. As we write these lines an official circular comes to us from Utah asking proposals for $200,000 of "State of Utah *Gold* 4 per cent. twenty-year funding bonds, principal and interest payable in *United States gold coin*." Here's richness! The delegates of Utah to the St. Louis convention seceded from that body and left the Republican party because a gold-standard platform was adopted, and yet these very men must have taken part in passing the law authorizing this gold loan; or if they did not personally take part in it, must have approved it. The same may be said of their newspapers that are indulging in blackguardism against the gold-bugs and against Wall Street seven days in every week. They are all shocked at the issue of gold bonds by the United States. They insist that when the federal Government borrows money it shall pay the principal and interest in silver, or at least reserve the option to do so. Yet when their own State wants to borrow, they print the word gold in capital letters on the circulars which they send to the Wall Street sharks, and they never recognize the humor of the situation.

The main fact, however, is that every State and municipality that has go

bonds outstanding will have to increase its taxes if silver becomes the standard, unless it repudiates its debt. Repudiation would not be difficult under the circumstances, for a community or people that could authorize all debtors to cheat their creditors out of one-half of their private obligations would not hesitate long to apply the same principle to public obligations. There would be Tillmans and Altgelds in plenty to point the way. The only class of creditors of the States and cities who would be helpless would be the office-holders. Their expenses would rise like those of the railroad employees, but they could not strike for higher wages. They could no nothing but petition the Legislature for an increase of salary, and it would be a long time before they would get it. The employees of the federal Government would be in the same plight, for Uncle Sam must pay out the same kind of money that he takes in.

THE CANADIAN ELECTIONS.

For the second time only since confederation, the Canadian Liberals have carried a general election. Steadily beaten since 1878, they have now won not only a victory, which they were expected to do by a narrow margin, but a sweeping victory which leaves the Conservatives dazed. Even in the province of Quebec, where the Government candidates counted upon gaining six seats, the Liberals were almost everywhere successful. Mr. Wilfred Laurier will be the first French Canadian Premier the country has had, and is assured of a good majority in the House over all opposing factions.

The two great issues in the campaign which ended on June 23 were the school question, or the religious-school question, and the tariff. Of these the first was doubtless the more important, and cut most sharply through party lines. The controversy is an old one and has raged mainly about the schools in the province of Manitoba. That province entered the Dominion in 1870, and in 1871 established a system of schools such as exists in other Canadian provinces—that is to say, separate schools for Protestants and Catholics, under the supervision of a school board composed of two sections, one Catholic and one Protestant, each managing its own schools. So things went on till 1890, when the Protestants, having become largely in the majority through the influx of settlers, abolished the two-headed school board and practically withdrew all public money from the Catholic schools. An appeal was at once taken to the Governor-General in Council, as provided in the British North America act of 1867, and judgment was finally given in favor of the Roman Catholics in 1895. A remedial order was drawn up restoring to the Manitoba Catholics the right to a share in the legislative school grant. The Manitoba Legislature refused to act upon this order. Thereupon a bill was brought into Parliament to compel the Manitoba Protestant majority to give the Catholics their school money. This bill passed its second reading on the 20th of last March, by a vote of 112 to 94, but was killed by the famous obstruction in committee, after two successive sittings of 129 and 80 hours continuously.

In the appeal to the country the Conservatives made the Manitoba school bill their leading campaign cry. Sir Charles Tupper even carried the war into Manitoba itself, where he fairly told the electors that the bill would be forced down their throats if he won the day. But it was, of course, in the strong Catholic provinces that he expected to score his gains, and he had the influence of the higher clergy most outspokenly on his side, despite the fact that Mr. Wilfred Laurier is himself a Catholic. In the churches of Quebec and elsewhere Catholics were told from the altar that it was their religious duty to support the Conservatives, and one bishop denounced Laurier as no better than "a rationalistic Liberal" for having maintained that "a Catholic is not required to be a Catholic in public life." But it appears, from the issue, that thousands of even the priest-ridden French Canadians resented this interference and voted for the Liberals, while, of course, ultra-Protestants must have been detached in great numbers from the Conservative party so openly bidding for priestly support. From the event it is clear that this religious question, upon which the Conservatives counted so much, hurt them severely, both going and coming.

The other leading issue was tariff reform. Mr. Wilfred Laurier is a free-trader and a strong advocate of reciprocity with the United States, though he has frankly said in his speeches that the necessity of raising revenue by customs duties will prevent any radical reductions in the tariff for some time to come. All that he promises is a moderate readjustment of the tariff. But Sir Richard Cartwright, who will probably be finance minister in the new Liberal cabinet, is strongly in favor of unrestricted free trade, and he has been held up as a bogey-man by the Conservatives. The voters, however, do not appear to have been frightened. The truth is, the country has not been prosperous under protection, trade depression having persisted for some years. By the very logic of protection, therefore, which risks the whole case on prosperity, the electors were justified in turning towards free trade. It is somewhat puzzling to see a nation on one side of an imaginary line attributing all its ills to protection, and one on the other side to the lack of protection. But it is a comfort to reflect that there is One who knows all about it—McKinley, of course.

On the whole, accordingly, the result of the Canadian elections must be taken as an encouragement to the *believers* in popular government—*which is*, of course, the Q. E. D. of all elections. An overbearing priestcraft has been rebuked, fiscal follies and fallacies shown to have lost a part of their power, and one more pin thrust into Chamberlain's Imperial Zollverein. The Conservatives made much of this particular inflation of the Colonial Secretary's, giving the people to understand that Chamberlain was greatly interested in Sir Charles Tupper's success. So much the worse for Sir Charles then, said the people, and down went the Zollverein in Canada. As far as the result affects the United States, we should say it meant a more cordial policy in general on the part of the new Government, and in particular an excellent disposition to return to a generous treaty of reciprocity, such as the arrangement of 1854, which was repealed to mutual disadvantage and under a good deal of false pretence in 1866.

JAMESON COMMITTED.

London, June 16, 1896.

There are a number of men going about the streets here bearing large yellow placards to the effect that a picture entitled "Jameson's Last Stand," by R. Caton Woodville, R.A., is now on exhibition. This was probably painted at the height of the Jameson furore last January, for it is doubtful if laureates and academicians would find "Dr. Jim" a figure so entirely heroic since his commitment for trial yesterday at the close of the police magistrate's examination at Bow Street; but it would be a mistake to say that interest in the raiders has altogether abated, or that they are much less popular.

On June 11 the adjourned session of the examination of the men charged with a violation of the Foreign Enlistment Act by making a raid into a friendly state was brought on at the Bow Street Police Court, before as brilliant and interested an audience as can be imagined. The "great crowds" at previous sessions must have stood outside the gates, for at this session no more could have been accommodated within. To the American mind, Bow Street suggests something vaguely disagreeable and disreputable, like the Old Bailey or the Tombs, yet it is by no means such a bad street; and as the Covent Garden Opera-house stands just across the way from the police court, there was a curious air of propriety about the elaborate toilets that filled the commonplace little room where real dramas were acted in the light of day.

The ostensible purpose of the examinations was to ascertain whether or not the defendants had committed an offence for which they should stand trial. Whatever the Government's original intention with regard to the matter may have been, the necessities of the situation have compelled it to a strenuous and successful effort to bring the conspirators to trial; so the many adjournments of the case (which the Opposition called dilatory tactics) now seem quite justified. As this proceeding must inevitably affect the South African question, a slight sketch of it and of the principal figures in it is perhaps worthy of record.

The court-room at Bow Street is small, somewhat dingy, but clean. Across one side of it runs the bench, which is raised above the

level of the floor, railed off from it, with the Judge's desk in the centre. So many chairs and benches were filled with ladies and gentlemen, to his right and left, that both Judge and bar lost something of their usual imposing appearance, especially as both were without wigs and gowns on this occasion. The fifteen defendants filled the whole of the first of the floor benches usually allotted to spectators, but everywhere else the interested and the curious were packed in—ladies and gentlemen in about equal numbers, seated and standing—as many as the bench, the floor, and the aisles could comfortably accommodate; and the little room had more the appearance of some academic feast-day than of a court of justice. The visitors were no better dressed than most of the defendants, to whom they nodded and smiled as lightly as if the whole affair were a splendid joke. With one exception the defendants also seemed to share the same delusion. That exception was Jameson himself, who came, first of the fifteen, into the room, with a grave face, which showed a full appreciation of the seriousness of the case, and which never lightened for a moment. The others—most of them typical English gentlémen of the fashionable set—took the matter very jauntily; and, sitting there in their long frock-coats, smooth-cheeked and well-groomed, seemed very unlikely persons to have gone rough-riding through a strange country in such a Quixotic adventure as they ended at Doornkop last January.

Jameson has an interesting and by no means a bad face, though not as strong as one would expect. His eyes are fine—wide apart and rather pathetic—and he has a good big forehead, perhaps a little exaggerated by baldness, but his mouth and chin do not look unusually positive. He wears a brown moustache, trimmed close, and in age appears to be about forty. His eye is clear and his color good, but fatigue and care were evident from his whole appearance and demeanor. In physique he is thickset and short—quite the least imposing by far of the party; but he has the only intellectual face among them. Henry Frederick White, one of the leaders, is the handsomest of them, a tall, military man, with an air of good breeding and distinction. The Hon. Robert White, the "Bobby" of the dispatches, is quite vacant-looking, as is also Capt. Coventry. Col. Grey is also handsome, in a way, but heavy; Sir John Willoughby looks intelligent enough, in all conscience, but his face is cynical and repellent.

The Crown was represented by the Attorney-General, Sir Richard Webster, large of stature, deep of voice, and impressive. A legion of barristers appeared for the defence, notably Sir Edward Clarke, Sir Frank Lockwood, and Mr. Gill. The proceedings were very slow, for the depositions of the witnesses were taken by the clerk in narrative form in longhand, to be sworn to and signed then and there; and the delay between question and answer or question and question would have made the most exciting story tame. Nevertheless, some of the first day's stories were exciting in spite of this, particularly the tale of a boyish Dutch lieutenant, who had been under arrest by Jameson's column and had afterwards taken part in the first skirmish near Krügersdorp, all of which he described simply and with much dignity. They met him on patrol duty, took his horse away, and disarmed him, and he asked them why they did, "when no war had been declared or anything"; he refused to tell them how many men he had, saying "he did not see how they could expect him to answer such a question." They finally gave his horse back, and left him behind them on a two hours' parole to stay where he was, at the close of which he joined the Boer forces and reached his battery at Krügersdorp ahead of them, where, he said, "some of them were killed and we beat them off."

After him came two or three Dutch officials, who produced the two large tin boxes, one black, one yellow, and the now famous leather portfolio, stamped "L. S. J."—the Pandora's box which Oom Paul opened as a gift of plagues for all his enemies. These were found on the field at Doornkop, the fustian conspirators having left them for the heroes of the piece to discover, as naïvely as if they had been the villains of an ordinary British melodrama. The proof as to the identity of boxes and contents was slow but interesting; and as paper after paper was put in evidence—letters to "dear Bobby" and others, dated in early November and December, full of arrangements for an early start; of solicitude for sound horses, mules, and plenty of ammunition; of fears about Foley's "blabbing" and the premature disclosure of the plan; of the necessity for "drilling all the men inside out"—the little conspirators looked exceedingly foolish, and their leader put his hands over his crimson face and hid it for a long time. The spectators, however, heard the testimony as complacently as if it were all of a highly honorable nature, and seemed quite to miss the point of it. The magistrate had nothing to do, at the close of testimony so convincing and carefully submitted, but to hold the six leaders for trial, under £2,000 bail each, and to discharge their dupes. Jameson, with a generosity that is said to be characteristic of him, and accounts in part for the devotion he is capable of arousing, offered by counsel to be held alone responsible; but the evidence was so damaging against the Whites, Willoughby, Coventry, and Grey, that the offer could not avail them.

The defence outlined by Sir Edward Clarke is distinctly a thin one—that the expedition started from Pitsani, outside British jurisdiction; and that, though it was led by an officer in the British service, and recruited and armed on British soil, its place of final departure converts it into a sort of piratical raid from no-man's land, which should have been punished, if at all, by the Boers; and that it is not an offence of which the British courts are cognizant. No defence on the merits is longer possible; and even the excuse of chivalry and Hotspur thoughtlessness has been perforce abandoned.

The Government appear to be acting in good faith, and so far to have proceeded with ability. The future alone can tell what they will do in the ensuing criminal trials, and what effect Jameson's acquittal or conviction will have on the South African situation. Meanwhile, the newspapers here grumble at Krüger, and even at the necessity of going further with Jameson, for whom they are now clamoring for a "fair trial." The defects in the Boer Government are for ever harped on, and the iniquity of the conspiracy against that Government quite glossed over. One finds daily defences of Cecil Rhodes, open or covert, in the papers; and the street posters show how venial the people consider "Dr. Jim's" offence. The truth is, that South Africa holds the imagination of England, just now, as a sort of El Dorado, which must not be given up to Dutchmen or negroes. The progress of the Matabele war is proclaimed with trumpets; whole pages of the papers are given up to advertisements of mining ventures and Cape investment companies; a popular burlesque takes a head waiter turned millionaire at the Rand for its hero; and Mr. Barney Barnato—who, they say, was once a circus-clown—is now giving a touch of realism to all these fables about the wealth of the Cape by erecting a very ostentatious house facing the Park. What all this will end in, no one knows; but the Jameson affair, a misdemeanor under the act, is at any rate no ordinary misdemeanor. It is already an historical one, and its end is not yet.

L. McK. G.

THE TRIUMPHS OF LEO XIII.

ITALY, June 10, 1896.

WHEN the present Pope (who, as chamberlain after Antonelli's death, exercised supreme authority during the conclave) was the virtual head of the anti-Jesuit party, which, without formally renouncing the temporal power of the papacy, yet saw the wisdom of finding some *modus vivendi* with the civil authorities of the new kingdom of Italy, recognized as such by all European powers, it was confidently believed that, if elected Pope, he would carry out the intentions of his party. That he intended to do so is certain, but the Jesuits, the *Intransigenti*, prevailed against him and the moderate party, reinforcing the *non-possumus* of Pio Nono: and the Vatican, as far as Italy was concerned, was regarded as an enemy to be watched incessantly—not to be specially feared; one whose hostility was decidedly preferable to its friendship. There is no country in the world where religious indifference amounts to the total oblivion of any religious question as in Italy. During more than forty years' residence and intimacy with men of thought and intellect, I have never heard one purely religious discussion, and should not know to whom to address the question, "What are the central doctrines of the Trinity and the Incarnation?"—which, according to Mr. Gladstone, ninety-nine professing Christians out of a hundred believe in. What thoughtful, patriotic Italians dreaded was the dominion which, in exchange for a cessation of hostilities towards the royal authorities, would be given to the Church over education. Eighteen years have passed since Cardinal Pecci assumed the tiara, and ostensibly he has made no progress in this direction. Although the proclamation of universal, gratuitous, compulsory lay education has become a dead-letter in Italy, we have not yet heard that instruction in the catechism and attendance at mass are compulsory in State schools. Nevertheless, the Pope's inordinate ambition, tenacity of purpose, persevering energy, vast learning, knowledge of human nature, and tact in dealing with it, have not been spent in vain: he is at the present moment the person most talked of, most looked up to in Europe. This fact, without awakening any really religious emotion or reviving controversial discussions, is one which appeals to that side of the Italian character which is neither its noblest nor its highest—to national vanity.

For some time past, all religious ceremonials have been revived throughout the kingdom. Though not expressly abolished by the law of 1847, religious processions had fallen into total disuse. Prefects were allowed to forbid them if disturbance of the public peace was likely to follow, and they did forbid them; for in the days when the people believed that Italian unity would give them a roof over their

heads, clothes to their backs, and at least one good meal a day, priests, monks, sacristans, all the confraternity in short, were jeered at and even hissed. I remember, just fourteen years ago, on the very green opposite, a stand-up fight between the populace and the processionists who, for the first time after sixteen years, ventured on a renewal of the ceremony of transporting the Madonna from her own church to the place where she first appeared. In this fray the cross of a valuable antique image of Christ was injured and broken. Now, on this last 4th of June, in the smallest village hamlet as in the largest city of the peninsula, the Corpus Domini procession paraded the streets in all its former grandeur. Even Bologna, the last stronghold of the opposition, celebrated it with extraordinary splendor, and in Rome, for the first time since Italy took possession of her capital, the Corpus Domini was accompanied in its triumphal procession by the entire populace. Italy, exclaims the *Tribuna*, in a bitterly sarcastic article, is transformed into a cathedral: prostrate yourselves, Freemasons, free-thinkers, misguided patriots, kings, soldiers, ministers of Italy; the Church is triumphant.

Say the optimists: This means nothing but that our people have an unappeasable appetite for feasts and festivals and spectacles of every kind. This is true, but once they believed that liberty would add some enjoyments to their life. Now, finding that the theatres, on which millions of the public money has been expended, and which are maintained at public cost, hold no gratuitous places for them—nay, that often, as in the Politeamo of Palermo, the lowest price for sitting-room is five francs—they take their diversions where they cost them nothing. Leo XIII, therefore, was wise in his generation when he ordered all the minor and major Church ceremonies to be celebrated throughout the land as in the days of yore, reëstablishing rigorous religious ceremonial at the Vatican court. Wiser still was his practical following up of his encyclical on the social question by enjoining on all the confraternities, the Catholic associations and clubs (*circoli*), the formation of mutual-aid societies, whose members, on contributing a very small monthly sum, are assisted in sickness and convalescence, of rural banks where the interest is not usurious, where loans are not granted to favorites, whose cashiers do not decamp with the funds. By these spectacular and mundane methods the Church is attracting the people back to its ample bosom. On the other hand, the terror inspired in all the property possessing classes by the spread of theoretical socialism and the practical organization of the "masses" by the leaders, has engendered in the authorities and in the "classes" a strong conviction of the necessity of finding a rallying-point whereon to take their stand and organize their forces for defence against the encroaching multitudes. You will remember Crispi's speech at Naples, in which, altering Mazzini's famous formula of "God and the People," he proclaimed the necessity of uniting with God and the King for the salvation of the country.

Not only the Jesuits, but the entire Catholic Church, and, during his reign, Leo XIII., have waged emphatic warfare against the Masonic order. The Pope's encyclical of 1892 was one of the fiercest on record—and for good reason. For many years previous to 1860 the Freemasons, owing here to persecution and there to indifference, had become inert or acted in entirely private groups, of which the most important existed in Sicily and Naples. There were lodges in Calabria, in the Abruzzi, in Emilia, in Leghorn, in Liguria, in Piedmont, Turin and Venetian Lombardy; and in Rome existed, in strictest secrecy, the Fabio Massimo Lodge. Their object was chiefly political, the overthrow of existing governments; but they were distinct one from the other, and had no common action. After the liberation of Naples and Sicily, the Dante Alighieri Lodge of Turin, to which most of the members of the old parliamentary Left belonged, set on foot a unitarian movement, founding the first Italian Great Eastern (Grand Oriente), which was accepted and recognized by most of the Italian lodges at Florence in 1864. The supreme council of the thirty-three, in Palermo, refused to acknowledge Masonic unity until Rome should be proclaimed the capital of united Italy, and the Supreme Council of the Thirty-three of Turin also retained its separate authority and was the lodge chiefly recognized by the Masons of other countries. After 1870, owing chiefly to the exertions of the old triumvir of Tuscany (then Senator Mazzoni), and of Frederic Campanella, who, with Aurelio Saffi, was Mazzini's chief continuator, a constituent Masonic assembly was held in Rome in 1862. Most of the lodges adhered, Turin and Palermo still holding aloof, the Thirty-three of Turin insisting on its supremacy as the sole recognized authority of the Masons who held the Scottish rite; but the Great Eastern, established in Rome, rallied to it the most numerous adherents. On the death of Petroni, who succeeded Mazzoni, they elected, as Grand Master of the Order, Adriano Lemmi, who, by the great ascendancy he had acquired through his life of patriotic exertion and his immense expenditure of his honestly earned wealth in patriotic and benevolent purposes, succeeded in procuring the fusion of all the lodges, even of the Supreme Council of Turin.

The Assembly presided over by Aurelio Saffi established a sole supreme council of the thirty-three, with its seat in Rome. Lemmi, who remained Grand Master of the Great Eastern in Italy and chief of the Scottish rite, having established the central lodge in the magnificent apartments in the Borghese Palace in Rome, made a tour of all the Italian lodges, delivering really magnificent speeches, in all of which Mazzini's doctrines were enunciated and enforced (Garibaldi and Mazzini were both Freemasons), the moral preached being that all the efforts of martyrs and heroes would be in vain unless the whole Italian people, redeemed from misery, ignorance, superstition, and crime, should be made partakers of the benefits of unity and liberty. The Vatican was pointed to as the one enemy of Italian autonomy, of scientific, intellectual, and moral progress everywhere; hence the renewed thunders of the Vatican, and, as all the prominent Liberals of Italy were or became Freemasons, the Conservatives (who are mostly professing Catholics) rallied to the Opposition for a long time, covertly and silently. As this great Masonic organization was and is mainly political, though its vast funds are applied to secular education, to benevolent schemes, and to the direct assistance of needy and unfortunate brethren at home and abroad, not only did the Conservatives dread it, but parties, cliques, and ambitious individuals viewed it with increasing jealousy. A violent attack, founded on an old, disproved calumny, was made on the Grand Master by the press, and even brought into the House of Commons. Adriano Lemmi, after laying before the Grand Council of the order every fact and document relating to his life and action, resigned. The members of this order, including Carducci, Rizzoli, Ceneri (the first jurisconsult in Italy), and other notabilities, after minute examination and mature discussion, declared that there was not a flaw to be found, and entreated him to withdraw his resignation. He, however, in a letter made public last year, declared that it had never been his intention, once the discipline, finance, and organization of the Masonic forces were established on a broad basis, to retain in his own hands the double office of Grand Master of the Great Eastern and that of Grand Moderator of the Scottish rite; that to the latter he intended henceforward to dedicate his chief energy, and they must decide upon his successor.

Glad tidings of great joy were these to the opponents of Freemasonry, who shrewdly guessed that it would be difficult to find any other man who would devote such exceptional energy and such wealth to the support of the association. As soon, therefore, as Lemmi's successor, Ernest Nathan, a staunch Mazzinian, was elected, the question of demolishing the Masonic society on the plea that it was a secret one, was brought before the House of Commons and the Senate. To the anti-Masons in the House Rudini replied that it was his intention to take careful but decisive steps against all secret and subversive associations ("Especially against us," said the Socialists). In the Upper House Senator Rossi took up the cudgels, observing that societies exist whose aims and members are unknown to the public, which give their united support to ministers who are members of their association, and make equal opposition to those who are not. These were clever tactics, as the Masons were (up to the banking scandals certainly) Crispinos, to a man, nor has their support of Rudini been much to count on—not because he is not a member of the confraternity, but because he is a Conservative. Parenso, a Liberal Senator and one of the first and staunchest opponents of the African folly, agreed with Rossi as to the uselessness and possible harm of secret societies, but said that if they were to be extirpated, a just and logical Government must commence with the most widespread and deleterious, that of the Jesuits. Rudini repeated the declarations made in the House; he thought that the Freemasons ought to become a public association, that no secret societies ought to exist, that the moment had not come when special provisions should be made, but that if necessity and an opportune moment should occur, the Government would not shrink from taking the necessary steps.

The publication of Mr. Gladstone's letter concerning Anglican orders, announced in most of the papers, is regarded as another great triumph of the reigning pontiff, although considerable confusion prevails as to what is meant by the validity of Anglican orders. One paper gravely informs us that, in the expectation of a speedy return of the Anglican churches to the bosom of Holy Mother Church, the Pope is anxious to facilitate the return of the prodigals by not insisting on their reordination. The story of the negotiations may be briefly summed up. About a year since a book maintaining the validity of Anglican orders was laid before the Pope. It showed great erudition and vigor. The Pope ordered the question to be studied with a view to decreeing the validity of the ordinations. The English Catholic bishops at once protested, and brought to the Pope's notice the fact that the book, written by the Jesuit Berryer,

had been condemned by the highest authorities and consigned to the Index. Cardinal Vaughan went deep into the matter, and sent the theologians Dr. Moyes, Dr. Gayquet, and Father David to Rome to inform the Pope that the decision of the English Catholic clergy was final—nay, that many of the English Romanists would be inclined to abjure allegiance should he recognize the Anglican orders. The Pope, who was decidedly compromised by his expressed approval of Berroyer's book, submitted the question to the Holy Office, and the cardinals of this congregation also decided against the validity, as did Cardinal Galimberti, who had so much influence with the Pope until his recent death. Not choosing to publish with his sanction the decree of the Holy Office, the Pope took the whole question into his own hands, rather to avoid than to reach a decision, and it is the general opinion at Rome that the matter will be allowed gradually to drop. When we remember how firmly Archdeacon Manning believed in the validity, held that he was already a priest, and yet was compelled to admit that in the eyes of the real Church he had only been a simple layman, we can understand the sweeping condemnation of Cardinal Vaughan, and, while comprehending the extreme anxiety of the high Anglicans for a recognition by Rome of the validity of Anglican orders, we doubt their satisfaction being shared by the large body of Anglican or Dissenting Protestants. These, while anxious to strengthen the forces of faith and the Church against "secularists and Unitarians," as Hugh Cecil put it in his bitterly sectarian speech on the Education bill, are not yet clearly prepared to approve steps which are certainly an advance towards a reunion with Rome. The triumph scored for the Pope lies in the cordial sentiments of "reverence, gratitude, and high appreciation" expressed in Mr. Gladstone's letter, which has been transmitted to Cardinal Rampolla, the Pope's *intransigente* secretary of state.

A far more important triumph will be obtained if his Holiness succeeds in inducing Menelik to liberate and restore the Italian prisoners detained in Shoa. The *Osservatore Romano* of the second inst. announced the despatch of a letter from the Pope to the Negus, urging the release of the prisoner. To-day's papers affirm that Menelik has already consigned them to Makonnen, who will send them to Zeila, where they will be embarked on English vessels sent to Massowah and thence to Italy. Should the prisoners be restored to their country and their homes, through the intervention of Leo XIII., a sense of the power and might of the Church superior to that of the civil arm will mingle in a very large degree with the joy and gratitude with which the unfortunate victims of the insane African policy will be welcomed by their families and their countrymen. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

MINNESOTA AND SOUND MONEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with the strong sentiment in Minnesota in favor of sound money there are some facts which are encouraging. Minnesota has had a campaign of education on the subject of sound finance, and the results show.

In 1858 the State, by direct vote of the people, issued railroad bonds to the amount of $2,275,000. The bonds were to be paid to the company at $10,000 per mile, one-half for grading and one-half for completed track. The company, instead of straightforward work, picked out easy places and left all the difficult ones, so that nothing of real value was done, and no consecutive miles of road were finished when they failed, leaving the State nothing to show for its more than two million dollars indebtedness. Times were very hard, the population was small, and for some years nothing could be done. Then the war came on, and Minnesota did her full share for the country besides quelling an Indian outbreak within the State.

By the time prosperity had returned, a new population had come in—people who knew nothing about these old bonds except that they represented a railroad swindle. The interest which, by agreement, the railroad company was to take care of, accumulated until in 1881 the whole amount, principal and interest, was $8,400,000. Demagogues were fond of denouncing the idea that the State was responsible for these bonds, and hardly one man in one hundred could be found who would consent to their redemption, much less advocate it. But a champion came who was honest and fearless and persistent, and the sound financial sentiment of Minnesota to-day is his reward.

When Gov. John S. Pillsbury, in his first message in 1876, advocated the payment of the bonds, to use his own words, "everybody looked black." This first term was the time of the grasshopper plague. Gov. Pillsbury, by his personal kindness and his efficient aid, travelling throughout the State to get information and give assistance, advocating plans for relief and carrying out schemes for prevention, won the hearts of the people. But while he was administering to their necessities, he never lost an opportunity to urge them not to disgrace the State by dishonesty. His business ability, which rescued the University and saved the State large sums in other ways, won him esteem, and he was reëlected in spite of his persistent advocacy of the payment of the bonds. But, even in his second term, a measure looking towards payment was overwhelmingly defeated. The stanchest friends of the measure, ex-Govs. Sibley and Marshall and Mr. Horace Thompson—men who felt that they would move out of the State if its credit was dishonored—were now almost ready to give up. Senator Windom and Senator McMillan were openly taunted with representing a repudiating State. But Gov. Pillsbury resolved to fight it out, and strong friends rallied round him. His personal popularity was thrown into the scale, and had great weight, but still a large majority of the people regarded the bonds as "a steal," and could not see that the honor of the State was at stake, no matter how unjust had been the dealings of the railroad company.

At last the Legislature was induced to authorize a commission part of whose duty it was to pronounce on the legality of the bonds. Perhaps the most discouraging thing in the whole struggle was the fact that one after another of the district judges, fearing the unpopularity of a decision they knew they must render, declined to serve on this commission. But at last five honest judges were found. Before they could render a decision, the opponents of payment brought action to prevent the reference to the commission. This threw the whole question into the Supreme Court, and a straight-out decision was rendered in favor of the validity of the bonds. In the meantime the holders of the bonds, who knew very well that the State had reason to complain of the value it had received, offered to accept one-half the amount in new bonds.

Now came the final tug of war. Mr. Joseph Wheelock, editor of the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, then, as now, honest to the core, was, throughout the whole struggle, a tower of strength, and he was ably supported by the Minneapolis *Tribune* and by nearly all the papers of the two cities. They brought forward every argument that could affect character or interest, and at last, by herculean effort on the part of all the friends of redemption, the Legislature voted to issue the new bonds. This was in the fall of 1881, just before the maturing of the old paper. Gov. Pillsbury, who had now served his third term and declined another, had to work early and late to get the bonds signed before the expiration of his term, for he was succeeded by a man who was not in sympathy with the payment. So, by the skin of the teeth, the measure was carried through. But the glory of it, the prosperity and high financial standing which it gave the State, could be appreciated by all; and that is why Minnesota is sound on the money question to-day. A. L.

Minneapolis, June 24, 1896.

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following passage, which I have just come across in Chateaubriand's 'Génie du Christianisme' (vol. ii., p. 271), would seem to indicate that the idea of an international court of arbitration is not new:

"S'il existait, au milieu de l'Europe, un tribunal qui jugeât, au nom de Dieu, les nations et les monarques, et qui prévînt les guerres et les révolutions, ce tribunal serait le chef-d'œuvre de la politique et le dernier degré de la perfection sociale."

Yours truly, L. Oscar Kuhns.

Wesleyan University,
Middletown, Conn., June 26, 1896.

JOHN SPARKS, OF PIKE'S EXPEDITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In January, 1807, when Capt. Z. M. Pike was struggling to cross the Sangre de Cristo Mountains of present Colorado, several of his party were frost-bitten. Two of them, John Sparks and Thomas Dougherty, were abandoned with frozen feet January 22, as it was impossible for them to proceed further. Pike afterward received, from one or both of these men, some of the small bones of the feet which had come away with the sphacelus that had set in. These men were rescued eventually, but never rejoined him in his tour through Mexico, and at the close of his book remain unaccounted for, together with five or six others left behind in Mexico. It has always been supposed, no doubt correctly, that nearly or quite all of them regained the United States; but I have hitherto seen nothing definite upon the subject, excepting that the *Nation's* reviewer of my edition of Pike's 'Travels' mentions the finding of the name of one of them on rolls of the War Department subsequent to 1807. But now John Sparks turns up, thoroughly identified by name, by his stumpy feet, and by local tradition of his connection with Pike's expedition. This information is given me in several letters from

Mr. A. H. Wilcox, of C. P. Wilcox & Co., lumber merchants, Frazee, Minn.

In 1854 Mr. Wilcox went to Licking County, Ohio, and soon became county surveyor. The name of "old John Sparks" was then a household word there. Mrs. Wilcox, now a woman of sixty-five years of age, knew him well. She first saw him when she was a child about eight years old, and had been sent to watch a gap in a fence through which hay was being hauled out, to keep the cattle from straying in. She was frightened at his peculiar dress and appearance as he came hobbling along, but was reassured by being told that that was "only old John Sparks," who would hurt nobody. She remembers him as a man of medium height, slender and wiry, with remarkably piercing eyes, who managed to get along as well as anybody, though both his feet were partly gone; and perfectly recalls the stories that were rife of his adventures with Pike, as well as the general complaint in the neighborhood that he killed more than his share of turkeys and pigeons, in spite of his crippled condition. He was a Virginian by birth, and at the time of which I am speaking was a pensioner; he used to go regularly to Newark, the county seat, to draw his pension, and in passing would stop over night at her house (her people being also Virginians), but could never be persuaded to go to bed, as he preferred to roll up in a blanket on the porch. When the Mexican war broke out, he was on hand to enlist, but was rejected on account of age and the partial loss of his feet. He was quite uneducated, and, like many others of his class, was fond of indulging in flights of rhetoric. On the completion of the Sandusky and Newark Railroad, before it was open to the public, he was given a free ride on the locomotive, and never afterward tired of describing this trip on an "enginuity," which had caused in him a settled conviction that the works of "nacher" were wonderful, but the works of art "wonderfuller." Mrs. Wilcox remembers his military funeral, as he was buried with the honors of war, and the passing by of the squad of soldiers in uniform, with drum and fife, impressed her mind. This was *circa* 1850, when he was about seventy years of age.

ELLIOTT COUES.

1726 N STREET, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Notes.

LITTLE, BROWN & CO. have just issued, in advance of completion of Prof. J. B. Thayer's 'Preliminary Treatise on Evidence at Common Law,' Part i., which deals with the "Development of Trial by Jury."

Edward Arnold's announcements for speedy publication include 'The Cruise of the Antarctica: A Voyage to the South Polar Regions in 1895,' by H. J. Bull, and 'Persia Revisited (1895),' by Gen. Sir Thomas Edward Gordon, K.C.I.E., etc.—both works provided with illustrations and maps.

A book on Japan, by W. E. Curtis; 'The Thlinkets of Southeastern Alaska,' by Francis Knapp and Reta Louise Child; and (in the fall) 'A College Year-book,' are forthcoming publications of Stone & Kimball.

D. Appleton & Co. will bring out 'Familiar Trees and their Leaves,' by F. Schuyler Matthews,' with illustrations, and an American historical romance, 'Sir Mark: A Tale of the First Capital,' by Miss Anne Robeson Brown.

Ginn & Co. have in press 'Glaciers of North America,' by Prof. Israel C. Russell of the University of Michigan.

Last year we had a reprint in four handy volumes of Thomas Shelton's translation of 'Don Quixote,' prompted by Mr. Justin Huntly McCarthy, and now Mr. James Fitzmaurice-Kelly has taken it in hand for Mr. David Nutt's superb series of Tudor Translations, and half the work is before us, namely, volumes i. and ii. Apart from typography, the two editions differ in the spelling, which is modernized in Mr. McCarthy's; but Mr. Fitzmaurice-Kelly implies that the sources are different also, and avers that he now reprints "for the first time from the excessively rare edition of 1612," the *editio princeps*. Such random comparison as we have made would point to identity, but we will not dispute the present editor, who in a liberal Introduction sketches the life of Cervantes, tells what is known of Shelton and of the circumstances of his version, confirms the claim of the Brussels edition of 1607 to be the one used by Shelton, and points out some of his errors of haste or ignorance along with instances of his felicity in truly rendering the original. Everybody will prize Shelton in his new dress. On the first page of volume ii. a significant *no* has been dropped before *lesse* in the eleventh line of the first paragraph.

With the eighth volume Mr. Henry B. Wheatley finishes the editing of 'The Diary of Samuel Pepys' proper (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan), with its pathetic ending in view of the condition of the diarist's eyes, of which he could never "command the pleasure." No other portion of the work more perfectly reveals the man in his private capacity, or presents more curious material for reflection to the moralist. Mr. Wheatley has now in hand a ninth volume, embracing an Introduction; a paper on the London of Pepys's time; corrections of some of the notes; a corrected pedigree; appendixes; and an elaborate index. He also intimates that he may annotate hereafter Pepys's numerous letters. The present volume contains portraits of Monk and of Charles II.

The bound volume of the *Century* from November to April last is not easy to characterize in a few words; but as the sheets of our topographic atlases are designated by some larger town in the field, this volume might be fixed *in time* by Prof. Bryce's article on the "Armenian Question," or by Prof. Allan Marquand's illustrated paper on "The Old Olympic Games" in connection with an editorial article on the New. To be remarked also are J. G. Vibert's poetic little autobiography and expanded picture-labels for the baker's-dozen of his paintings here engraved; a story by Kipling; "A Midsummer Night," by Benjamin Kidd, who essays the rôle of Thoreau and his imitators. The poetry of the volume is signed by many well-known names, and reaches its high-water mark, we think, in Mr. Woodberry's lines to his brother-professor Jackson. But, altogether, in the case of this magazine as of its rivals nowadays, one echoes Miss Thomas's desire for "the era of rich verse again."

Mr. Hamilton, in 'Across an Ulster Bog' (Edward Arnold), gives us one of the stories of Irish life, truest to nature of the many we have read of late years. A character such as that of Mr. Duffin is, we trust, an anomaly in even the fiction relating to the Irish Church, and the culmination of the tragedy is too horrible. But the delineations of character, the conversations, the tender touches, the descriptions of scenery are admirable. The reader will not soon forget Ellen and her father, Miss McFadden, Mary Anne and her dogs. The narrative never drags; we are carried on irresistibly from opening to finish. This little book is especially interesting in that it depicts life among the poor of the Protestant population of Ulster. But why should these Irish sketches so uniformly be sombre or sad? Surely the sun shines in Ireland as elsewhere, and life there is not without its brightness, its joys, its successes.

An abridgment of Mr. H. S. Salt's 'Life of Thoreau' appears in the "Great Writers" edited by Eric Robertson and Frank T. Marzials (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners). It is chiefly noticeable—apart from its readableness—on account of a Thoreau bibliography compiled by John P. Anderson of the British Museum. This extends to nine pages and more than two hundred titles—a sufficient proof of the interest of the subject. Mr. Salt's Life, which appeared, in England only, in a fuller form, six years ago, does not, so far as we perceive, throw any new light on Thoreau. Of course, as an admirer, he strongly objects to Lowell's view of his hero, and assures the reader that it is all a mistake to suppose that he imitated Emerson or was an egotist. If not an egotist, Mr. Salt should add a new word to the dictionary framed to describe the quality which leads a man to declare that, after living some thirty years on this planet, he has "yet to hear a word of valuable advice from his elders."

It is not only students of ecclesiastical history who will be benefited by Messrs. Gee and Hardy's 'Documents Illustrative of English Church History' (Macmillan Co.), but all who desire to follow the development of political life in England; for in the Middle Ages it is impossible to dissociate the sacred and the profane. The Statutes of Mortmain, of Provisors, and of *Præmunire* were acts of statesmanship exercising a wide influence on the community in general, and there were few measures of more importance in the stormy seventeenth century than the Solemn League and Covenant, the Five-Mile Act, the Test Act, the Bill of Rights, and the Toleration Act. The one hundred and twenty-four documents here printed are gathered from a wide range of publications, accessible as a whole to few scholars, and it is a real service to sound learning to collect and present them in a handy shape. Many students would have preferred them in the original language, but it is perhaps a prudent concession to the multitude to give them in translations.

Both the subject and treatment of Brightman's 'Liturgies, Eastern and Western,' of which volume i., containing the Eastern Liturgies, has just been issued (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), are too technical for detailed notice here, but acknowledgment is due to the author for the learning and thoroughness with which he has handled his complex theme. Even those not specialists can, however, find interest in the glossaries, where they will learn how many forms the Christian ritual can assume.

The exceptional number of periodic comets renders very acceptable the new and fourth edition of Mr. W. T. Lynn's 'Remarkable Comets' (London: Edward Stanford), it being the only popular monograph on these extraordinary bodies. Not only are periodic comets treated, but also those which may be considered remarkable either on account of their brilliant physical appearance, or because of any other circumstance respecting them. The scope of the work is almost purely histori-

cal. The comets connected with the great meteoric displays are not omitted, nor those interesting comets seen on a single occasion only, during total eclipses of the sun—in 1882 in Egypt and in 1893 in Chili. It is somewhat singular, too, although the coincidence has not been remarked, that during two previous eclipses, also at eleven years' interval (1871 and 1860), comets are thought to have been depicted in the streamers of the corona. Mr. Lynn touches lightly on the subject of the composition of comets, and concludes his valuable treatise with a list of the dates in the order of the next returns of those periodic comets now expected to reappear. Only one or two of these are likely to exhibit extraordinary brilliancy, such as any comet from the interstellar spaces casually encountering the solar system may do. Small as the monograph is, its author has not neglected to provide a brief index.

A new 'Paris Directory' for 1896 comes to us from the compiler and publisher, Donald Downie, 61 Rue du Faubourg St.-Honoré. It is convenient for the pocket, and consists of a guide for sightseers, with directories of the diplomatic corps and of the residential section (Anglo-American chiefly), and much miscellaneous information concerning railroads, hotels, cafés, etc. The theatres are so exhibited (in perspective, not in plan) that one can readily choose his numbered seat

A recent issue of the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen contains an account of a new enterprise of the leading Icelandic publisher, Sigurdur Kristjansson, who is now bringing out a cheap edition of all the Icelandic sagas. The latest issue from the Reykjavik press is a series of biographies of twenty leading Icelanders, in as many volumes, of which two have already appeared. The subjects of these first two volumes are the historian Jon Espolin and the poet Magnus Jonsson. The first work consists in part of an autobiography, originally written in Danish, translated and completed by Espolin's favorite pupil, Giali Konradsson. An interesting feature is the introduction by Dr. Jon Thorkelsson, describing the life of the Icelandic students at the University of Copenhagen during the middle of the last century. From the biography it appears that Espolin was born in 1769. After spending three years in Denmark, where he made an unsuccessful attempt to obtain a permanent official position, he returned to Iceland and became Syssellmand or judge in various districts of the island. His most important literary work is 'Arbækur Islands,' in thirteen volumes, which treats of the history of Iceland from 1262 to 1832. Besides being the foremost Icelandic historian of modern times, Espolin may be regarded as the father of modern Icelandic prose. Of Magnus Jonsson's life and works less is known, as he lived in the sixteenth century. Unlike the majority of his fellow-poets, Jonsson was very wealthy, and, both on account of his politeness and his sumptuous retinue, he received the surname of the Magnificent. The book contains many contemporary documents which throw light on obscure points. In selecting the subjects for the later volumes, an attempt will be made to include prominent Icelanders whose lives are comparatively unknown to ordinary readers.

A year ago the Bunker Hill Monument Association held a memorial service in celebration of the hundredth anniversary of the death of Col. William Prescott, who commanded in the battle. The orator of the occasion was Dr. William Everett, and his address has just been printed by the Association. It was when delivered an admirable peace tract, but its worth and timeliness have been vastly augmented by the Jingo mania under which we have labored for the past six months. Dr. Everett aptly defends the fitness of his invocation of international peace in a commemoration of Bunker Hill by instancing the call of Webster to be orator in 1843, at the dedication of the monument, just after he had concluded the unpopular extradition and boundary treaties with England. Dr. Everett's address was mainly historic, but the weight of it is in his fervid denunciation of war, which may fairly be called prophetic.

The seventh Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State proceeds with the miscellaneous index to the papers of these depositories, in which each item is a *précis* of the document recorded. We miss here a repetition of the personal name (or other rubric) at the head of a page when a number of items are "let in" with a dash. The bulk of the Bulletin, however, consists of "The Amendments to the Constitution and Ratifications by the Several States," forming Part iv. of the 'Documentary History of the Constitution, 1786-1870,' and concluding volume ii.

Capital topographic draftsmanship and a cultivated graphic style distinguish Mr. Bolton Coit Brown's paper, "A Trip about the Headwaters of the Middle and South Forks of King's River," in the eighth Sierra Club Bulletin (Academy of Science Building, San Francisco). There is a brief description, with photographic views, of an ascent of Mt. Le Conte, and the other articles convey practical information for the Sierra mountaineer.

In the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June Mr. G. S. Fort gives an encouraging account of Rhodesia as a grazing and farming country. The want of machinery has prevented the development of the extensive gold areas which have been discovered, but he looks forward with confidence to the not distant time when its output of gold "will equal, if not exceed, that from the Rand." The success of this industry, however, depends wholly upon obtaining reliable native labor. In the Transvaal this is becoming increasingly difficult on account of the treatment of the natives by the Boers. "Marriage rights are not recognized. A native Christian woman properly married in the Cape Colony loses all conjugal rights, even the position of wife, as soon as she goes to reside in the Transvaal." "If more than five families settle on any piece of ground, they are broken up, practically, and handed over as slaves to the surrounding farmers." They are denied the ordinary rights of justice, and "are able to buy drink." Mr. A. Silva White, in a paper on aërial navigation, says that his ten years' experiences in ballooning show that "a flying-machine, heavier than the air and capable of withstanding the impact of the wind, is the only promising airship of the future." The great difficulty with Mr. Maxim's aëroplane, he thinks, lies in the fact that there is no "automatic mechanism which will enable it, *without altering its direction*," to pass from one air-current into another blowing in an opposite direction. Herr Andrée's project of reaching the North Pole by balloon is characterized "as foolhardy in the extreme, even suicidal."

The latest statistics of suicide in Germany from 1881 to 1894, published by Georg G. Mayr in the 'Allgemeiner Statistischer Archiv' (Tübingen: Laupp), show a startling increase in the number of self-murders during these thirteen years—from 8,987 to 11,112, an increase far greater than that of the population during the same period. It is also a curious fact that about four times as many men commit suicide as women. This disparity is due, in part at least, to the prevalence of suicide in the rank and file of the army as the result, in most cases, of maltreatment, but cannot be thus wholly accounted for. In England the proportion is somewhat less, being about three men to one woman. Evidently the female sex is either more patient in bearing those ills we have, or less resolute in flying to others that we know not of. The German is reputed to be phlegmatic, and is certainly less vivacious than the Frenchman, but is irascible, and easily loses his self-control on slight provocation. This is especially true of the lower classes. We may add that these statistics do not include unsuccessful attempts at suicide, but only actual deaths.

The Prussian Minister of Instruction has recently issued a circular stating the conditions on which women can be permitted to attend the lectures in the University of Berlin. In the first place they must obtain permission from the Minister of Instruction, and in their request for this official document must state what studies they intend to pursue and what lectures they wish to attend; they must also give an account of the nature and extent of their preparatory instruction and of their "personal relations," whatever that may mean. After these testimonials have been examined and the certificate of permission secured, they are to make application to the professors or tutors directly concerned. The rector's certificate must be renewed every semester, and should always be carried in the pocket, as it may be called for at any time. Only candidates for a degree are provided with the *Anmeldungsbuch*. These concessions to women indicate no little progress, although necessarily accompanied, in bureaucratic Prussia, with the unwinding of considerable red tape. On May 16 six women took the degree of M.D. at the University of Brussels, of whom five were English and one a German from Berlin, who passed her examination "with great distinction."

The coat of mail presented to Joan of Arc by Charles III. has been discovered in the Vatican. Before the death of the Maid of Orleans this coat of mail came into the possession of the Marquis de Courvel. Later it was brought to Rome, where it remained apparently unnoticed among other articles from the Middle Ages, until a descendant of the old marquis, after having obtained the necessary permission, conducted a search with the result noted above.

The Norwegian Storthing has passed a bill introduced by Emil Stang, the former Conservative prime minister, providing for the exercise of the right of suffrage by Norwegian sailors while on voyages. The measure, which was passed without regard to party feeling, has received the unqualified endorsement of the class it is intended to benefit.

—Historical students have awaited with interest the appearance of the complete compilation of the messages, proclamations, and inaugural addresses of the Presidents from 1789 to 1897, authorized by concurrent resolutions of Congress. The importance of this undertaking was recognized by the editor, Mr. James D. Richardson, Representative from Tennessee, who says: "The utmost effort has been made to make the compilation accurate

and exhaustive." The first volume, 1789-1817, covers the first fourteen Congresses, whose papers are almost inaccessible. It shows that Mr. Richardson has been unfortunate in his assistants, and that the work is badly planned, inaccurate, and incomplete. The arrangement is roughly by sessions of Congress, and the papers are arranged chronologically for each session under four sub-headings, viz., Annual, Special, and Veto Messages, and Proclamations. To find a given document is very difficult, as the volume of six hundred pages is not indexed. Mr. Richardson announces that from this "complete compilation" he has omitted messages nominating persons to office, transmitting treaties, and transmitting reports of heads of departments, though in fact he has not rigidly followed this rule. Routine nominations and regular, formal reports might properly be neglected, but the omission of messages relating to treaties, and to special reports of the highest importance, renders the collection incomplete and unsatisfactory. Moreover, apart from these, some fifty important messages have been incomprehensibly omitted, for it is only necessary to follow page by page the journals of Congress to make a complete list of the messages. The following schedule illustrates the character and importance of the missing messages: September 26, 1789, Rhode Island desires to maintain friendly relations with the United States; June 14, 1790, Ratification of constitutional amendments by New Hampshire; June 14, 1790, Similar action by Maryland; December 30, 1793, Affairs with Spain; January 15 and 16, 1794, Relations with France, being the important messages on the Genet incident; January 23, 1794, Relations with Great Britain; March 12, 1794, Relations with Spain; March 25, 1794, American commerce; May 23 and June 4, 1794, Relations with Great Britain; January 12, 1795, On Indian troubles; February 29, 1796, Negotiations for a treaty with Spain; June 24, 1797, Relations with Algiers; January 29, 1798, Explanatory article of treaty with Great Britain; June 5 and June 18, 1798, Two important messages on relations with France; December 13, 1799, Relations with Tunis; February 17, 1800, Negotiations with Prussia; December 23, 1800, Confidential instructions to Envoy to France; December 6, 1804, On public buildings at Washington. To add to this list is needless.

—It is to be regretted that, as Mr. Richardson prints a letter of Louis XVI.'s on Jefferson's quitting the French court, and other extraneous matter relating to Jefferson's service in France, he did not print with the message of January 26, 1791, the letter from the French Assembly regarding its three days' mourning for Benjamin Franklin, as the title of the message conveys no idea of its subject-matter. The letter of Thomas Jefferson, President-elect, fixing the time and place for taking the oath of office, is published, but a similar letter of John Adams, laid before the Senate February 9, 1797, is omitted. It is to be hoped that Mr. Richardson will supply the missing messages by errata pages in volume ii. The unsystematic method of compilation is indicated by the failure to find Washington's proclamations of March 1, 1791, and March 1, 1795, until the volume was practically completed, so that they were printed on an errata sheet. Adams's proclamation of July 16, 1798, convening the Senate in extra session, is omitted, and the proclamation of July 16, 1803, is drawn from a newspaper, as are others, instead of being taken from official publications. Madison's proclamation of December 22, 1815, in connection with the very important commercial convention with Great Britain (see message of December 23), is also wanting. The excision of the treaty of Ghent from the proclamation of February 18, 1815, emasculates the document. The following messages of President Washington, which are printed as being addressed to the Senate alone, were addressed and sent to both houses of Congress, namely, August 7, August 10, September 16, and two of September 29, 1789. Mr. Richardson has incorporated the Declaration of Independence, Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution. The illustrations are typographically unsuited to the volume, and the biographies of the Presidents are unsatisfactory. Washington's grandfather, Lawrence, is said to have come to Virginia in 1657, whereas it was his great-grandfather, John Washington.

—In 1889 the Historical Society of Pennsylvania authorized the publication of the writings and correspondence of John Dickinson, "the penman of the Revolution." The first fruit of this undertaking was Stillé's 'Life and Times of Dickinson,' published in 1891, and reviewed at length in these columns at that time; we now have the first of three volumes of the 'Writings,' edited for the Society by Paul Leicester Ford. While the present collection does not claim absolute completeness, owing in part to the inability of the editor to obtain access to some of the Dickinson papers, and in part to his wise decision to exclude broadsides and newspaper pieces whose authorship could not be determined by other evidence than that of style, Mr. Ford assures us that such omissions as there may be are probably of "small moment," and "that the present edition includes all that is essential and important of Dickinson's works." As the only other collection of Dickinson's writings, that compiled by himself and published in 1801, contains less than a third of his works, and is no longer very accessible, the present edition is certain to make a valuable addition to available material for the study of the period which it covers. About a third of this first volume is taken up with the speeches and published writings of Dickinson, in connection with the agitation in Pennsylvania, in 1764, for a change in the government of the colony —a movement to which he was vehemently opposed, and against which he fought vigorously, but without success. Besides the great speech of May 24, we have Dickinson's protest against the petition drafted by Franklin and adopted by the Assembly, his scathing arraignment of Galloway in an elaborate reply to the latter's "pretended speech," his satirical "Receipt to make a Speech," and his protest against the appointment of Franklin as additional agent of the colony in England. To this last protest Franklin, though on the eve of his departure, felt bound to reply. Dickinson's rejoinder, closing his side of the controversy, is here printed for the first time.

—In the discussion aroused by the Stamp Act, the revenue acts, and other coercive measures Dickinson was a leading participant. He prepared the original draft of the resolutions adopted September 21, 1765, by the Pennsylvania Assembly, on the Stamp Act, and the "Declaration of Rights" and "Petition to the King" put forth by the Stamp Act Congress, besides publishing, later in the same year, a short "Address to Friends and Countrymen," and a pamphlet on the "Late Regulations respecting the British Colonies." A garbled version of the letter of the Barbados Committee of Correspondence in 1766, in which, by a misprint, or worse, the American colonies were charged with "rebellious" instead of "present" opposition, gave Dickinson an occasion for stating more in detail the position of the colonies, and of repelling accusations of disloyalty; while in 1768 appeared the most popular and influential of all his writings up to that time, the "Letters of a Farmer." In the heat of controversy and invective over the conduct of Great Britain, there had come to be, as Mr. Ford points out in his introductory note, much confusion of arguments, and not a little difficulty in attempting to reconcile perfect independence in taxation and perfect loyalty to the crown; and the "Letters of a Farmer," with their distinction between "external" and "internal" taxation, seemed to point to a common ground upon which all the patriot party could stand. The distinction was a shadowy one at best, but it undoubtedly served a temporary purpose and helped on the cause of union, upon whose necessity Dickinson repeatedly insisted. As the conflict approached, however, the essential limitations of Dickinson's mind, and in particular the curious hesitancy at critical moments which was later to turn public opinion against him, began to appear, and one is almost forced to believe that he failed to see the natural and inevitable outcome of the steps he was doing much to hasten. While urging uncompromising resistance to the aggressions of Great Britain, he insisted upon the adoption of peaceable measures only, declared again and again that the only hope of prosperity for the colonies lay in union with the mother country, and refused to consider the possibility of independence. So he threw himself into the movement for non-importation, and drew up, in 1771, a petition from the Pennsylvania Assembly to the King, while attacking the tea tax in two letters published in 1773, and in 1774 once more reviewing the controversy in four "Letters to the Inhabitants of the British Colonies."

—Mr. J. P. Gordy, professor of pedagogy at Athens, Ohio, has compiled 'A History of Political Parties in the United States,' in three volumes, of which volume one, covering the period from 1787 to 1809, has been issued at Athens by the Ohio Publishing Co., and, according to the preface, the book is written primarily for the teacher "who has not had the advantage of a higher education." The author says: "Until normal-school training is required of American teachers, a considerable part of their training must be obtained through private study." The book is therefore intended for the "thoughtful reader without much previous knowledge of the subject." Mr. Gordy wishes to concentrate the attention of the unqualified teacher, desirous of learning how to teach history, on "those phases of history which it is important for American citizens to know in order that they may perform their duties as American citizens intelligently." He also hopes that the book may commend itself to some of "that large class"—business as well as professional men—who are "beginning to realize that the present has its roots in the past." To judge by the present volume, the book may be read not only by beginners, but by almost anybody, with profit. It is written in a clear and simple style, is entirely non-partisan, and makes the causes of the early party struggles much

clearer than many a more elaborate account. We have space but for two criticisms. The exact nature of the relations between the judiciary and the legislature might be made plainer. Again, the author seems to think (following Prof. Burgess's treatise on 'Political Science and Constitutional Law') that it is only the force of public opinion which, after a law has been, in a given case, held unconstitutional, operates to prevent the executive or the legislature from enforcing it in other cases. This is a mistaken view. When a court of last resort holds a statute unconstitutional, the effect is to wipe the law off the statute-book, and the moment the judgment is pronounced, any official who attempts further enforcement lays himself open, if he interferes with private rights, to a civil action in which he may be subjected to heavy damages. It is common sense and the fear of the consequences that make people refrain from trying to carry into effect laws once held to be void. The judiciary is, with us, above the legislature as to these matters — not coördinate with it.

MACAN'S HERODOTUS.

Herodotus: The Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Books, with Introduction, Notes, Appendices, and Maps. By Reginald Walter Macan, M.A. Macmillan & Co.

SINCE the learned and comprehensive work of Rawlinson, this is undoubtedly the most important English contribution towards a scientific study and sympathetic appreciation of the labors of the Father of History. Some good excuse should be offered for the appearance of a new edition which expends eight hundred pages on one-third of the history, and we really believe that Mr. Macan has justified himself. Whether he might have spared his readers a hundred or more pages by rigid self-denial and condensation is another question. But there is a luxury in taking plenty of sea-room; and Mr. Macan, if sometimes diffuse, is never tiresome. He uses occasionally hard and strange words which one must search for in the very largest dictionary, or perhaps in an American newspaper; it makes one's eyes open to see such oddities of expression as "gold galore," "to sleep six months on end," "not but what," "they gat them away," "contagmination," and "to penalize," used by a scholar who dwells not far from the fountain of pure English, which used to flow in Balliol. But at any rate Mr. Macan's style is strong in itself and strong in the weight of matter and research which it presents.

The special value of his attitude is that, while recognizing most fully the transcendent merits of Herodotus's narrative and achievement, he also points out with great penetration his numerous defects when judged by modern historical standards, and the sources of these defects. Finally, he sets himself to work to discover, by a searching analysis, the precise historical facts which underlie the various portions of narrative which he has undertaken to edit. His attitude differs fundamentally from that of Mr. Sayce, who found but little save abuse for the Egyptian and Persian episodes of the history—who suggests to us a bizarre picture of Herodotus listening open-mouthed to his dragoman and taking notes which he afterwards disarranges, highly gullible yet withal ready to gull his fellow-creatures, a "malignant" plunderer of the ideas and observations of his rivals who tries to conceal his theft; in short, an arrant liar and rogue, who poses under the mask of honest candor and simplicity. Mr. Macan does not join the side of the out-and-out sceptics like Sayce and Delbrück. He gives us a picture at once completer, fairer, and more flattering—more like that masterly and most satisfactory delineation which M. Hauvette offers with so much learning, measure, and sobriety; a delineation which reconciles so completely our spontaneous impression of the character of the man with the peculiarities of the historian.

Although not indebted to M. Hauvette, Mr. Macan agrees in general with his point of view. He gives us, in fact, the keenest, the most discriminating, the most exhaustive presentation of the methods and the merits of Herodotus which we have yet seen in English. Even as to that conglomerate of "traditions, legends, memories, and imaginations" of which the first three books are composed, where it would be, as he says, a "veritable labor of Psyche to sort and separate the fictitious from the true"—even in these, the least historical of the Histories of Herodotus, when tried by careful and discriminating methods, "there remains a great deal of almost infinite value for the historian proper, apart from its secondary value as illustrative literature, which the harshest critic cannot deny." Of the remaining six books, "large portions of particular statements may pass unchallenged into the historical order." "Yet, if the time is gone by when the work could be dismissed 'as a pack of lies,' the time is also gone by when the mere citation of a chapter of Herodotus can be taken as definitive. The historical value of the work varies from volume to volume, from book to book, almost from sentence to sentence."

To discover and to weigh these varying values by a detailed application of the critical method must be the business of the critical historian; it is the object of Mr. Macan's edition to apply this sifting process in detail to Books iv., v., and vi. The results are contained in the elaborate foot-notes of vol. i. and the fourteen dissertations which make up vol. ii. It is not possible here to catalogue the results, but there is no doubt at all that Mr. Macan, by a combination of good sense, keen penetration, and ample learning, has shed a useful and novel light on many important questions. To take a single instance, there is the battle of Marathon. This ancient problem, which has been so often attacked and with such varying solutions, is all the more fascinating because it involves many unknown quantities and so few data that are fixed. Indeed, the data given by Herodotus are so vague and inconsequent that it is possible the great traveller never took the trouble to visit the battle-ground, or to consult the evidence of documents and monuments for information. Dr. Evelyn Abbott professes himself somewhat tired of this question and hopeless of any further solution. Instead of discussing it once more, he gives his readers the sources, and leaves them to draw conclusions for themselves. Mr. Macan is more courageous. He has attacked the question once more, in an excursus which is the largest and most elaborate of his fourteen appendices. It is a choice specimen of his thoroughness and acuteness—perhaps we may add of his prolixity; for he writes as if he had all day and night before him. He permits himself to conjecture the probable value of a possible narrative by Aristotle, nor does he deny himself an allusion to the midges which, as Aristotle affirms, arise from the marshes of Marathon after a warm and pleasant day. But these are the foibles of an enthusiast who is eager to neglect nothing that may pertain to his topic. As a matter of fact, Mr. Macan does extract from his exhaustive discussion a reconstruction of the motives and strategy of the battle which is quite plausible, reasonable, and consistent. The outlines of his theory are not novel, but the combination is on the whole novel and satisfactory.

The hinge of his theory is this: The Athenians finally made the attack because the Persians had just begun a forward movement toward Athens by land and sea with the intention of assaulting the city. This movement was furthered and timed, to a certain extent (though not started), by the signal of a shield displayed to the Persians by Athenian sympathizers on the Pentelicus or Agrieliki. The Persian cavalry were therefore partly aboard the fleet, partly *hors de combat*, while the army was marching southward toward the main road to Athens. The Persian line fronted the mountain pass of Avlona whence the Athenians issued; their right rested on the "Charadra," or water-course, to the north; their left on the smaller marsh, Brexisa, to the south. This plan, varying in detail from that of Crusius, Delbrück, and Busolt, solves equally two main puzzles, or *cruces:* it accounts for the facility with which the Persians, after the defeat, got away with most of their fleet; it accounts also for the absence of the cavalry—that harrowing difficulty of all strategic critics. It does not find room or special occasion for the mile-long running charge of the Athenians which Herodotus mentions with such emphasis, and which has been generally disbelieved. In view of certain French military experiments for longer distances, M. Hauvette accepts this charge as a possibility for well-trained athletes, and utilizes the movement in his scheme of the battle (which seems to us *pro tanto* preferable to Mr. Macan's) as part of a rapid change of front, executed to face and surprise the Persians. It will be remembered that Herodotus first states that Hippias chose the plain of Marathon because "it was suitable for the manœuvring of cavalry," and yet, in his account of the battle, absolutely ignores the cavalry, as if they had slipped clean away, or clean out of his mind. It is, in fact, quite likely, as Mr. Macan suggests, that they had slipped out of his mind when he was writing his somewhat misty sketch of the battle.

Such forgetfulness seems to us highly unscientific; but Herodotus was neither a soldier nor a scientist. He did not care much—his hearers cared even less—for accurate tactics and topography. He could not have obtained such information from the veterans of Marathon, if he had tried. What they and his hearers liked best, undoubtedly, was his stories of individual prowess, his epic history of a grand national achievement, his tales of the marvellous, and, above all, his moralities. In these tastes Herodotus was like his audience: he holds the mirror up to his own time; he reflects the popular spirit, the superstition, the beliefs of his age, much more exactly than the scientific Thucydides. Thucydides is a modern, a mind of the nineteenth century. He had some intellectual comrades (of his own way of thinking) even in his own age. Yet it is likely that Herodotus has given us a work of greater value than if he had attempted prematurely to apply the method of Thucydides—the modern method—to the complex mass of material with which he dealt. The result would have been more sophisticated and less trustworthy. Herodotus has, of course, his standards; he is far from believing everything he hears. He

is by no means destitute of the critical faculty, but he applies it unequally and capriciously. "A modern critic," says Mr. Macan, "might charge him with a failure of political insight"; and, notwithstanding examples of marked shrewdness and penetration, his rationale of the movements of events "falls far short of the policy and statecraft of the age which he describes and represents." This statement is probably truer of the politics of the Greek than of the Eastern world of his day. The Orientalism of his motives, the personal whim and caprice which we see in his story of Polycrates, of Crœsus and Cyrus, must certainly have ruled to some extent the fortunes of that Eastern world as they ruled at the court of Haroun al-Rashid, or in the adventures of Hajji Baba of Ispahan. But there is no denying that Herodotus loved to point to the turns of the wheel of fortune; he is fond of the *deus ex machina*. He looks at the world and mankind through colored glasses; to him human "life is a sphere for the realization of divine judgments, and human history a book of fables with a moral." Hence he is like a novelist with a purpose—he writes history with a motive; his dearest delight is to point a moral and adorn a tale. Indeed, that is a main object in rehearsing the failure of the Persian invasion, and a subsidiary object in a multitude of minor episodes—in the story of Crœsus and of Miltiades.

A most striking and unsuspected instance of these tendencies and of the pitfalls which they offer to the historian has been unearthed by Mr. Macan, aided by a suggestion of Mr. Arnold C. Taylor. Curtius, in sketching the career of Cleisthenes of Sicyon, accepts in detail with a certain amount of confidence the celebrated tale of the wedding of Agariste. It is related by Herodotus with a kind of epic pomp and circumstance, and the gathering of the suitors is an echo, we may think, of some Homeric account of the assembling of the suitors of Helen. The affair, indeed, reminds one of the Hindu custom of "swayamvara" such as that in which Nala won Damayanti. The story ends, it will be remembered, with the reckless behavior of the Athenian Hippocleides, the cleverest and wittiest of the suitors, who lost his head at the final banquet, disgusted his prospective father-in-law by his pranks and indecent performances, and "danced away" his marriage. Now the startling fact which Mr. Macan's appendix brings to light is that the parallel of this very legend is contained in one of the Buddhist birth-stories translated by Mr. T. H. Rhys-Davids. In this tale, the king of the birds, the Golden Goose, holds a *swayamvara* for his daughter to which he assembles all the birds of the Himalaya region, and bids his daughter choose a husband. Her choice rests upon the peacock, with his brilliant plumage, whereupon the peacock, proud of the distinction and anxious to display his charms still further, spread his wings and began to dance, exposing himself "in breach of all modesty." The royal Golden Goose is shocked by this indecent exposure and bestows his daughter on his nephew, an exemplary gosling. There is hardly the ghost of a chance that this tale travelled to India from Greece, and that the Golden Goose is a metempsychosis of Cleisthenes. All scientific probability points the other way. The Greek story is an historic tradition entangled and overgrown with the decorative ivy of a popular fable. Less than two centuries were required for this growth and transformation; and Herodotus simply handed down what he heard, dressed up in his own admirable manner. The historic facts are not obliterated, but they are considerably disguised.

We have here a clear proof of the caution with which the details of Herodotean narrative must be sifted, more particularly when it involves folk-lore. The folk-lore is quite patent in the story of Atys, foredoomed to be slain by steel, in the clever thief of the treasury of Rhampsinitus, in the ring of Polycrates, in the beautiful tale of Helen of Therapne bestowing the gift of beauty on the future wife of Ariston. All these are still echoed in the 'Arabian Nights' or elsewhere, and are themselves melodious echoes of folk-lore older than Herodotus, but crystallized and adorned by his consummate literary art.

THE MERRYMOUNT MISSAL.

The Altar Book: Containing the Order for the Celebration of the Holy Eucharist according to the Use of the American Church MDCCCXCII. By Authority. [Boston: The Merrymount Press (D. B. Updike).]

Mr. Updike deserves well of his church for the labor of love which has produced this magnificent volume. The Anglican liturgy, like all its sister Rites, lends itself easily to decorative art. What was accomplished by the missal painter of the Middle Age by creamy parchment and a wealth of color and exquisite miniature work, Mr. Updike gives us in the measure of our days by the most careful bookmaking and by decoration in black and white.

The origin and development of the English Prayer-Book make neither a long nor an unfamiliar story. Up to the time of Edward VI. there was, in the Church of England, no one precise order of celebrating the Eucharist binding upon all churches. In the centuries between the mission of St. Augustine and the beginning of the sixteenth century the original liturgy, if indeed there were only one, had developed into many and various local "Uses." These variations, however, were relatively slight; they did not touch the structure of the liturgy at all. A liturgy, or Mass—to use a more convenient technical word which ought to be colorless—has a structure of its own as distinct and as much a matter of rule as the structure of a symphony is. It is, in fact, a mystical drama, in which is shown symbolically the Life and Passion of Christ. Every liturgy from the very earliest shows this with more or less plainness, though it is perhaps set forth with greater clearness in the later Roman Rite than in some of the earlier ones. These Uses, then, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, divided the Church of England among them. The great Sarum Rite, "Insignis Ecclesiæ Sarisburiensis," seems to have prevailed in the south of England, and was carried so far as to certain churches in Ireland and in Scotland. In the north of England, the Use of York was followed; west of the Severn, that of Hereford seems to have been adopted, and, in North Wales, the Use of Bangor. But all these churches appear to have retained peculiarities of their own. Maskell shows, for instance, that there was an ancient Use of the Cathedral of St. Paul in London, held in high esteem till the year 1414, when the Use of Sarum was substituted. But though this last regulated the order of saying and singing, St. Paul's is expressly said to have retained its ancient ceremonies and observances as they were from the beginning.

These diversities, most interesting as they are from a liturgiological point of view, and giving as they did great scope to beautiful ritual development, met with little favor in the eyes of the Reformers, just as the Roman authorities within the present century disliked and have destroyed the Paris rite and many another, and would doubtless be glad to root out thoroughly even the Ambrosian. So the English Reformers were determined that "now from henceforth all the whole realm shall have but one Use." This was said at the time of the setting forth of the first Prayer-Book of Edward VI. in 1549. The revision of the old offices had been going on since 1542. Edward's First Book may be described, somewhat generously, as a severe recension and revision (if not a reconstruction) of the Sarum Use. It lost much in point of liturgical beauty, and was made awkward by the introduction of much didactic and hortatory matter. For the first time in ecclesiastical history what are practically sermons were introduced into a missal. But the English form was of high excellence, and the Mass itself not substantially changed. The Second Book, which appeared in 1552, showed more important changes, some of which must be called nothing less than wanton, like the removal of the *Gloria in Excelsis* from the beginning to the end of the Mass. This simply destroyed the sequence of the liturgic drama. Some "Ritualists" find, we believe, a certain doctrinal satisfaction in the change, but with doctrinal considerations we have nothing to do. From the point of view of the liturgiologist it was a great mistake and is a blemish. The other changes in the Second Book were all in the direction of restriction and narrowness. The book had, however, but a brief existence, for it was superseded within a few months by the revival of the Latin Mass at Mary's accession, and is interesting chiefly as forming the basis of the restored Prayer-book under Elizabeth in 1559, and, through that, of the later revisions.

All these revisions, one after another, down to the last one in America in 1892, have been, on the whole, liturgical improvements. The Anglican liturgy, while not perhaps "incomparable," save in the stately and beautiful flow of its English speech, is still, no doubt, the best known and best loved by the people who use it of all Christian religious formularies. It is not entirely unlike many a church which may be seen in England, with Saxon or Norman arches in its crypt and Gothic architecture of two or three periods appearing in its nave and chancel, with a Renaissance porch, and perhaps a Georgian three-decker blocking up the east end. Time and use have blunted the sense which perceives many of these incongruities. Age has made them venerable in some sort, and has inspired affection for them. Their distant origin even seems to make them blend, as distance blends inharmonious voices. It may possibly be that what are, when viewed with a severely critical eye, the defects of the Anglican liturgy, have themselves only added to the devotion with which the Prayer-Book is cherished, and which has enshrined it next to the Bible in the English religious mind.

Mr. Updike, then, has had a worthy field in which to display all his ability, his judgment, and his knowledge of his art. He has drawn upon these unsparingly, and, besides, has lavished time and pains and money upon the perfection of his book. Many difficult questions he must have had to consider and settle. Some people, doubtless, would have been glad to see full and minute ritual directions introduced

into the volume, and additional prayers for the priest's own use, and perhaps Collects, Epistles and Gospels for votive masses, and would fain have made the present volume something like Mr. Orby Shipley's 'Ritual of the Altar,' which was published by Longmans in 1878. Mr. Updike has wisely avoided this snare. His book is exactly and precisely what the Church prescribes, and nothing else. The text follows exactly the Revised Standard Book of Common Prayer of 1892. The most scrupulous pains have been taken that the text should be as correct as possible, and the book has the great advantage of being issued "by authority." So far as we know, no other similar missal possesses this. Among those who have collaborated with Mr. Updike, the highest praise is perhaps due to Mr. Bertram Grosvenor Goodhue, who has not only furnished the elaborate and intricate borders in black and white, but has also designed the initial letters throughout the volume, and the type by which it is printed. The type is most satisfying—clear and round and handsome, suggesting the best sixteenth-century fonts. Mr. Goodhue's symbolism in his borders and initials has been worked out with much care and is not too recondite to be easily understood. Most of all, the arrangement and application of the symbols deserve notice and praise. The illustrations include pictures suitable to the great festivals of the Christian year and a Crucifixion facing the Prayer of Consecration. They are the work of Mr. Anning Bell of Liverpool. These have at least one great merit, which is enough to make them shine in their own *genre:* they are, with one possible exception, neither sentimental nor weak. The drawings for Easter and for Trinity Sunday are especially to be commended. Only so far as in any, however distant, way they suggest the work of Dürer do they give occasion for regret. The musical notation of the book has been in the hands of Sir John Stainer, who in it has followed Merbecke with praiseworthy closeness. Of his own work there is but little, except a few notes to the *Kyrie*, and the Summary of the Law; the latter based on the cadences of the Comfortable Words. He adds, also, some notes on a separate sheet with tones for the Collects, Epistles, and Gospels, which will be found useful. The music is printed with the old square notes on a red staff.

The book would have been more conveniently arranged, no doubt, if the Communion Office had been put in the middle of the volume after the Gospel for Easter Even, as is common in missals; but this convenience would have been dearly bought, for it would have prevented the publication of the book "by authority." The order of the offices in the Standard Book is rigidly fixed. So, too, it would have been a convenience if the Canon, or Prayer of Consecration, had been printed on two pages facing each other, so that no leaf need be turned during its recital. But this would have left no place for the picture of the Crucifixion. The binding of the volume is of pigskin, strong and handsome. The covers might, perhaps, have been with advantage a trifle thicker and the metal clasps stouter. The type of the book has been set under the publisher's personal supervision at his Merrymount Press, in Boston, and the printing, in red and black, executed at the De Vinne Press.

Mr. Updike has endeavored, as he says, "to make a volume on ideal principles with satisfactory practical results." His aim has been nothing short of perfection, and we have tried to judge his book by his own standard. We believe that we have found all the fault with it that can fairly be found—save one, that the edition consists of only three hundred and fifty copies, and that the book will therefore soon be out of print.

The Red Badge of Courage: An Episode of the American Civil War.—*Maggie:* A Girl of the Streets. By Stephen Crane. D. Appleton & Co.—*George's Mother:* By Stephen Crane. London and New York: Edward Arnold. 1896.

Mr. Stephen Crane is said never to have seen a battle; but his first book, 'The Red Badge of Courage,' is made up of the account of one. The success of the story, however, is due, not merely to what Mr. Crane knows of battle-fields, but to what he knows of the human heart. He describes the adventures of a private—a raw recruit—in one of those long engagements, so common in our civil war, and indeed in all modern wars, in which the field of battle is too extensive for those in one part of it to know what is going on elsewhere, and where often a regiment remains in ignorance for some time whether it is victorious or defeated, where the nature of the country prevents hand-to-hand fighting, and a *coup d'œil* of the whole scene is out of the question. In such an action Mr. Crane's hero plays an active part. It is what goes on in his mind that we hear of, and his experience is in part so exactly what old soldiers tell young soldiers to expect that Mr. Crane might easily have got it at second-hand. The hero is at first mortally afraid that he is going to be afraid, he then does his duty well enough, but later is seized with a panic and runs away, only to come out a hero again in the end. His panic and flight are managed well; the accidental wound which he luckily gets in running, helps him to a reputation for bravery before he has earned it. When he fights in the end, he fights like a devil, he saves the regimental flag, he is insane with the passion of battle; he is baptized into the brotherhood of those who have been to hell and returned alive. The book is undeniably clever; its vice is over-emphasis. Mr. Crane has not learnt the secret that carnage is itself eloquent, and does not need epithets to make it so. What is a "crimson roar"? Do soldiers hear crimson roars, or do they hear simply roars? If this way of getting expression out of language is allowable, why not extend it to the other senses, and have not only crimson sounds, but purple smells, prehensile views, adhesive music? Color in language is just now a fashionable affectation; Mr. Crane's originality does not lie in falling into it. 'George's Mother' is the story of a degenerate drunkard who breaks his mother's heart; 'Maggie' is a story of the Bowery, in the "dialect" of "Chimmie Fadden."

Taking all three stories together, we should classify Mr. Crane as a rather promising writer of the animalistic school. His types are mainly human beings of the order which makes us regret the power of literature to portray them. Not merely are they low, but there is little that is interesting in them. We resent the sense that we must at certain points resemble them. Even the old mother is not made pathetic in a human way; her son disgusts us so that we have small power of sympathy with her left. Maggie it is impossible to weep over. We can feel only that it is a pity that the gutter is so dirty, and turn in another direction. In short, Mr. Crane's art is to us very depressing. Of course, there is always the crushing reply that one who does not love art for the sake of art is a poor devil, not worth writing for. But we do not; we do not even love literature for its own sake.

It is only fair to say that what we have called animalism others pronounce wonderful realism. We use the word animalism for the sake of clearness, to denote a species of realism which deals with man considered as an animal, capable of hunger, thirst, lust, cruelty, vanity, fear, sloth, predacity, greed, and other passions and appetites that make him kin to the brutes, but which neglects, so far as possible, any higher qualities which distinguish him from his four-footed relatives, such as humor, thought, reason, aspiration, affection, morality, and religion. Real life is full of the contrasts between these conflicting tendencies, but the object of the animalistic school seems always to make a study of the *genus homo* which shall recall the menagerie at feeding-time rather than human society.

Regeneration: A Reply to Max Nordau. With Introduction by Nicholas Murray Butler. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. 311.

The anonymous author of this work assures us that Max Nordau's book has become a nightmare to millions of human beings, that people have been aroused by it from the "lethargy produced by the din of clashing opinions and contradictory systems" (an ill-fitting figure!), and that he knows cases of people of sensitive mind who imagine that, "thanks to this book, their friends will look upon them as on the road to lunacy." It is evident that so much misery is in crying need of being alleviated, and we hasten to inform these sufferers that they will find in 'Regeneration' a perfect remedy for all their ills. The author has set himself the task of replying to the exaggerations of Max Nordau with great detail; one cannot rise from reading his book without being fully convinced that Nordau has failed to establish his position, and that his indictment against humanity as being well on the road to lunacy is, to say the least, not proven. The author takes up in turn the attacks which Nordau makes on the pre-Raphaelites, on Ibsen, Tolstoi, and Wagner, and it is safe to say that those timid souls who have felt constrained to give up their admiration for these great artists for fear lest they were following after erratic and irresponsible will-o'-the-wisps, may now return to their allegiance with recovered peace of mind. It is true that our author does not do all this with the brilliancy which William James devoted to the same thesis in the pages of the *Psychological Review*, but he does it with perfect effectiveness; and if only the brilliant people were allowed to write, of the making of many books there would soon be an end. The scientist, and especially the psychologist, will not make much account of this volume, but then the author has a poor opinion of these misguided people anyway, and he had small hope of turning them from the error of their ways.

It is true that his idea of just what it is that the scientists believe on various points is sometimes rather hazy, as the following sentences will show:

"A hundred years ago the scientists would have laughed to scorn any one who had told them that their senses deceived them with regard to light, darkness, colors, silence, and sound, and that all these presentations received by our senses were simply movement, or manifestations of energy."

"It is not surprising that a scientist by erudition (!), and especially an alienist, who by dint of studying the mechanism which connects what some call the soul, and others designate

as the trinity of the consciousness, the judgment, and the will (!), with the body, has persuaded himself that there is nothing beyond nerves, cells, and the gray matter (!), should look with contempt on the imagination."

One would gladly know who is this enviable scientist who has been able to get at the "mechanism which connects" soul and body, and to study it!

"Psychologists are prone to speak of a man's consciousness, though scarcely two scientific men would agree as to what it is. But this does not prevent them from dividing consciousness up into divisions and subdivisions, all with their special names, in order to be able to express their ideas in words."

It must be admitted that this looks like a laudable motive on the part of the psychologist, whatever may be thought of the means which he employs to attain it. But not all scientists are as bad as psychologists:

"All scientists are not affected by scientific superstition. . . . Thus, astronomers rarely exhibit any such symptoms, while biologists are more apt to do so, and psychologists are more scientifically superstitious than any other class of scientists. It might be hazardous to attempt an explanation of this fact, but may it not be found in the obviousness of outward infinity, and the impalpability of inward infinity?"

Lest these examples may not be a sufficient indication of what the author is capable of in the way of style, we add one more:

"Should we find, on the other hand, that the deplorable state among the poorer classes—their suffering, their degradation, and their joyless lives, coexisting with large fortunes, and irremediable under present laws and institutions—leads to the conclusion that the altruistic feelings of the wealthy are useless, and thus prompt among the upper classes selfishness and egomania, and the determination to drown their higher emotions in a giddy life, and in the poorer classes to foster destructive tendencies and the desire for revenge, we turn our attention to social remedies."

Occasionally even the author himself loses his way in sentences of this kind, and ends with *deny* where he means to say *affirm*, or *folly* where he means to say *wisdom* (pp. 105, 67). He has a curious way of saying *ego* for soul, and "personal responsibility" for a future state of rewards and punishments. He says: "It is not the well-meaning, plodding scientist, striving to arrest disease, lessen pain, and dispel superstition, that can bounce us into the belief in personal irresponsibility." And here is a curious bit of thinking: he believes that in the Franco-German war the victory of the Germans was due to the moral quality of the German army, while the defeat of the French is to be attributed not to lack of moral qualities, but to bad leadership.

But it should not be supposed that the book is all quite as bad as this. There are two subordinate topics, in fact, which the author treats at considerable length, and on which he writes with a good deal of freshness and with a degree of intelligence that would seem to indicate an acquaintance at first hand. These are his description of the peculiar character and tone of feeling of the people of Norway, in refuting Nordau's charge that Ibsen is writing in the air; and his picture of the average German man in the character of husband of the average German wife. Under this latter head, he points out that the Germans are perfectly sensible to the charm of high-spirited, talented, well dressed, and lively women, and that they are also aware that leisure, exemption from hard work, good food, exercise, suitable friends, artistic surroundings, books, a fair amount of pleasure, and considerate treatment are essential to the production of women of this kind. But it is not this kind of woman that they wish to marry—it would clash too widely with the traditional type of a good wife, and would set their whole circle of acquaintances talking; nor is it the kind of woman that they wish their daughters to develop into—they must not have a distinct individuality, or it will go hard with them in the marriage market. Women must eschew romantic ideas, they must practise a demure demeanor, they must notice the evils that follow upon poverty and be content with a prosperous though unattractive husband; men seldom marry young, and girls are taught to ask no question about their past, to sacrifice their own ideals of purity, their dreams of love, their future happiness, their healthful youth, upon the altar of Philistine respectability. It is fortunate for the race of human beings that different ideals have prevailed in other countries, and that a different sort of woman has had opportunity for development. The dreariness of social intercourse in Germany which results from cutting off half the race from the intellectual life is something which it would be difficult to exaggerate.

A Fauna of the Moray Basin. By J. A. Harvie-Brown and Thomas E. Buckley. In two volumes. Edinburgh: David Douglas.

THE printed title-pages of these volumes bear no dates, the photographic titles both have 1895, and 1896 is stamped on the back of each. The books are technically called small quartos, being deeper but not taller than large octavos. The work forms ostensibly volumes vi. and vii. of a series of local faunas in part by the same authors, and all brought out by the same publisher in similar elegant style. Volume v. deals with the vertebrate fauna of Argyll and the Inner Hebrides, 1892; iv., with the same fauna of the Orkney Islands, 1891; iii., with the birds of Iona and Mull (by the late H. D. Graham), 1890; ii., with the vertebrate fauna of the Outer Hebrides, 1887; i., with the vertebrate fauna of Scotland. The two last are out of print. Each of these works is of monographic character, complete in itself, and independent of the rest; and they collectively form part of a still larger series of books of the same general character, several of which we have already had occasion to notice, always with approbation. Such are Charles St. John's 'Natural History and Sport in Moray' (1882), and his 'Tour in Sutherlandshire,' the second edition of which (1884) has a faunal appendix by Harvie-Brown and Buckley; 'The Capercaillie in Scotland,' by Harvie Brown; and Muirhead's 'Birds of Berwickshire.' The set of books is distinctively British, but not confined to sport and natural history in those islands, as it includes Gätke's 'Heligoland,' H. C. St. John's 'China,' the Earl of Southesk's 'Saskatchewan,' and others.

The general character of these works is high, with all the appointments of fine manufacture, and profuse illustration in various styles of art, from thumb-nail sketches in the text to elaborate engravings of compositions from the portfolios of well-known artists, among whom Millais and Keulemans may be named; photogravure is also much used, with striking effect in many cases. The present volumes are among the most elegant of the lot, and may fairly be called sumptuous. They show leisurely and experienced authorship, based on great resources in the way of materials, and abundant pecuniary means for effecting the desired result. They are also among the more formal and technical volumes of the series, in which scenic effect and the freehandedness of "outings" are subordinated to serious scientific work.

Lest "Moray Basin" may convey no very definite notions to the average American, we may say that it is practically the watershed of Moray Firth in Scotland, and some considerable adjoining country lying on the whole northwest of Aberdeen. Sutherland, Ross and Cromarty, Inverness, Nairn, Elgin, and Banff are included in the area to be treated faunally. The greater part of the first volume is occupied with an elaborate physiography of this region, which will abundantly satisfy the cravings of nearly all readers for information in that regard, and probably leave none but some of the most critical special students of the subject anything to require further. The rest of the work is a formal and systematic fauna, in so far as this is represented by vertebrates, carried into great detail. Of its thoroughness there is no question, and none but a local expert could pretend to criticise it minutely. The authors find in their bailiwick just about one-half of the British mammals—42 species out of 81.

As is invariably the case in works of this nature, birds are the most conspicuous and extensive feature of the lists, and also the subjects most elaborated. Out of 360 to 370 species which the authors allow to the holy canon of "British Birds," they give 255 a place in these volumes, and sum them up in nine distinct categories, one of which we observe to be a list of 26 species "recorded on insufficient evidence." Herpetology is at a minimum, only nine species of reptiles and batrachians together being found in the Moray Basin. Fishes would seem to be called for, by the title, for treatment like that accorded to the higher vertebrates, but there is nothing of the sort in either volume; perhaps recent ichthyology is reserved for due recognition hereafter. In place of any recent fish fauna to match the rest of the work, we have a monograph of entirely different and strictly technical character, on the fossil vertebrates, of which fishes constitute the greater number by far, though a few reptiles are included, and the recently extinct mammals (reindeer, elk, ox, beaver, and wolf) are also noted. Dr. Traquair's memoir includes a geological bibliography, and is illustrated with a series of nine special plates of different character from the other illustrations of the work, besides several cuts in the text.

This publication is thus highly praiseworthy as far as it goes, but would appear to require several more volumes to meet fully the requirements of the extremely comprehensive though curt title.

The Roman See in the Early Church, and Other Studies in Church History. By William Bright, D.D. London: Longmans, Green & Co.

THERE is significance in the fact that the Regius Professor of Ecclesiastical History at Oxford should devote nearly half the present volume to refuting the Roman theory of the continuous tradition of Papal supremacy as recently set forth by the Rev. Luke Rivington. This he accomplishes with abundant learning and acuteness, somewhat marred by occasional obscurity of presentation, but his success or want of success in this is of less account than the fact that he should have deemed it worth his while to undertake the task in the *Church Quarterly Review*, and then to re-

print his argument enlarged in the present volume. To us the contest between the two champions is chiefly of interest as a manifestation of the curious movement towards Rome on the part of a portion of the Anglican Church, and of the anxiety, if not alarm, which this tendency is producing in the minds of the sturdy adherents of the Edwardian Church. So sagacious a Pontiff as Leo XIII. would scarce have ordered a fresh examination into the old question, decided so long ago, as to the validity of Anglican orders, without an expectation that some concession, in form if not in substance, might result in a "bolt" which would strengthen the cause of Catholicism in England, while Mr. Gladstone's letter to Cardinal Rampolla bears traces of that singular longing for reunion which would seem to justify in some degree the anticipations of the shrewd and far-seeing men who direct the policy of Rome.

To a disinterested onlooker it is suggestive to watch the development of this revival of the mediæval conception that the Church must be one, like the seamless garment of Trèves. It is true that, during the ages of semi-barbarism and brute force, there were advantages in the powerful organization which controlled Europe and transmitted, in a spiritual disguise, the imperialism of ancient Rome to modern times; but monopoly bears within its bosom the seeds of inevitable evils, and the popular antagonism to "trusts" in the commercial world shows how instinctive is the appreciation of the benefits of competition. The mediæval Church was a trust which controlled salvation and sold it at its own price in power and wealth, resulting in a worldliness and corruption scarce conceivable by the present generation. There are dreamers who deplore the sundering of the Church in the sixteenth century, and who imagine that abuses could have been reformed from within, on some such basis as that which Erasmus suggested; but, so long as the Holy See retained a monopoly, such a reform could have been only superficial and temporary, as may be seen by the career of Spain, which allowed no intrusion on the exclusive claims of Catholicism, and consequently was virtually untouched by the Counter-Reformation.

Spiritual dissension may be an evil, but it is a less evil than spiritual torpor, and dissension at least connotes spiritual vitality. So far from the multiplication of sects being an evidence of error, as Bossuet endeavored to show, it is an evidence of earnest seeking after the truth, and, so long as modern ideas prevent persecution for conscience' sake, it merely stimulates a healthy competition to advance the kingdom of righteousness. No greater misfortune could befall the Christian world than a restoration of unity under Latin Christianity, and, in this, Latin Christianity itself would be one of the chief sufferers. Fortunately such reunion is impossible, however much the advanced type of Anglican priests may long for it; and although we cannot look upon the labors of Mr. Bright as a very efficient instrumentality in preventing it, they deserve recognition as a sufficient exposition of the hollowness of the claims of the Petrine Church that the Vatican decree is securely rooted in apostolic principles and practice.

The other essays in the volume are fair academical discourses, manifesting sufficient acquaintance with the subjects discussed, but presenting nothing new.

Memoirs of an Artist. By Charles Francis Gounod. Translated by Annette E. Crocker. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. Pp. 223.

Charles Gounod: Autobiographical Reminiscences, with Family Letters and Notes on Music. From the French by Hon. W. Hely Hutchinson. Philadelphia: Lippincott. Pp. 267.

Two translations of Gounod's autobiographic fragment have appeared almost simultaneously. Both are well done, and while the first-named has the merit of cheapness, the second is more terse and idiomatic, and free from the occasional blunders which occur in the first (pp. 111, 118, 125, 127, 139). Mrs. Crocker's version contains only the memoirs and a few letters; Mr. Hutchinson's includes further letters and five articles of Gounod's on Berlioz, Saint-Saëns, Nature and Art, The Academy of France at Rome, The Artist and Modern Society. Both versions are elegantly printed and bound.

The noblest trait of Gounod's character was his affection for his mother. "If I have worked any good, by word or deed, during my life, I owe it to my mother," he says, "and to her I give praise." He had reason to adore her, for she was one of the most devoted, self sacrificing women in the annals of art. Her childhood had been unhappy because of parental dissensions, and, as the family was poor, she began giving piano lessons at the age of eleven. She gradually saved enough money to go from Rouen to Paris (a three days' trip by coach) once in three months, for a lesson of Adam at the Conservatoire. At twenty-six she married François-Louis Gounod, well known as a painter, a man of talent, but of frail health and a weak will. He took pleasure in drawing the essentials of a picture—face, expression, etc.—but left the accessories and drudgery to his wife, who luckily also had talent for drawing, and was thus able to finish what he left undone. In 1823 she found herself a widow with two boys, Charles, aged five, and an older brother of fifteen. The widow now took it upon her to support the family by continuing her husband's drawing-class as well as her music lessons, but found ere long that she was overtaxing her strength, whereupon she dropped the former and confined herself to music lessons, to which she devoted twelve hours a day.

Charles Gounod also had to make his choice between music and painting. His talent for both was about the same. He remembered how, as a boy, he used to lie on the floor drawing eyes, noses, and mouths with a white crayon on a varnished blackboard, and he had no doubt that if his father had lived he would have become a painter too; this opinion must have been confirmed when no less an authority than Ingres, after seeing some of his amateur sketches at Rome, told him he might have secured the *grand prix de Rome* for painting as easily as for music. The fates had decided in favor of music, luckily, for France needed another good composer much more than another good painter. His mother used to be proud when, as an infant, he could give musical hints to grown-up girls, and she lived to see him give many other proofs of his talent, including the winning of the Roman prize at the second trial; yet she had her misgivings as to a musical career, and did not live to witness his first lasting success, the opera "Faust."

As holder of the Roman prize, Gounod was obliged to spend two years in Rome. That city was at first a great disappointment. "Instead of the city of my dreams, majestic and imposing, full of ancient temples, antique monuments, and picturesque ruins, I saw a mere provincial town, vulgar, characterless, and, in most places, very dirty." In course of time he not only became reconciled, but enthusiastic, and when he left, after overstaying his time several months, tears rolled down his cheeks. This feeling, however, was based entirely on artistic and social considerations, for musically Rome had little to offer to the talented young composer except a chance to become familiar with the works of Palestrina. As it is almost impossible to eradicate from the American mind the impression that Italy was and is the musical centre of the universe, it is worth while to quote a few of Gounod's remarks:

"As regarded religious music, the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican was the only place where it was possible to hear anything decent, to say nothing of its being instructive. What they called music in the other churches was enough to make one shiver. Except in the Sistine Chapel, and in that called the 'Canon's Chapel' in St. Peter's, the music was not merely worthless, it was vile. It is hard to imagine how such a chamber of horrors could ever have come to be offered up to the glory of God within those sacred walls. All the shabbiest tinsel and trappings of secular music passed across the trestles of this religious masquerade. So no wonder I never tried it twice."

Equally unsatisfactory he found the opera, the only other field of music cultivated by the Italians. Bellini, Donizetti, and Mercadante made up the repertory, and "the performances were very inferior to those at the Théâtre Italien in Paris. . . . The stage management, too, was often literally grotesque." Consequently Gounod went to the opera seldom, finding it more profitable to stay at home and study the scores of Rossini, Gluck, Lulli, and especially his beloved Mozart, whose "Don Juan" remained always his favorite opera. Mozart and Bach were his idols, and "Mozart," he says, "bears the same relation to Palestrina and Bach as the New Testament bears to the Old, in Holy Writ."

When he reached Vienna, Gounod found a very different musical atmosphere—good operas, good singers, and "that universal diffusion of musical knowledge which is such a delightful and peculiar feature in Germany." In Leipzig he was most cordially received by Mendelssohn, who called a special meeting of the famous Gewandhaus orchestra to play his Scotch symphony for him, and who commented on a passage of the "Dies Irae" which Gounod had composed in Vienna—"My boy, that might have been written by Cherubini."

The last forty pages of the Memoirs are devoted chiefly to an account of Gounod's early efforts as an opera composer, up to "Faust," which had been in his mind nearly twenty years before it appeared on the stage. Here the autobiography breaks off suddenly, probably for the reason that there were episodes in Gounod's later life which he did not care to dwell on. Of the essays appended to Mr. Hutchinson's version all contain some good things, besides a considerable amount of declamation and "fine writing." The best are those on Berlioz, whom Gounod calls "one of the greatest emotional influences of my youth," and on Saint-Saëns, to whom he pays this tribute:

"He has an enormous power of assimilation. He can write you a work in any style you choose—Rossini's, Verdi's, Schumann's, Wagner's. He knows them all thoroughly—the surest safeguard, it may be, against his imitating any. He never suffers from that bugbear of the chicken-hearted, the dread of not

making his effect. He never exaggerates; thus he is never far-fetched, nor violent, nor over-emphatic."

Notes of the Night, and Other Outdoor Sketches. By Charles Conrad Abbott, M.D. The Century Co. 1896.

SOME nature-lovers tell us of the dawn and of the twilight, and the sunlit hours we may know for ourselves; but it has been Dr. Abbott's ambition to learn what goes on at every moment of the entire day, nor has he discriminated between the seasons. There is nothing absolute, and on the darkest night something may be seen, although the images are distorted and magnified. Neither does perfect silence ever prevail, for multitudes of living things have nocturnal pursuits, and even those whose chief business is by day are wakeful, and recognize the moon or the aurora with inarticulate comments. Perhaps they, like men, suffer from mysterious terrors when darkness deepens, realizing how helpless they are without the sense of sight. We think of night as dark and damp and chilly; but, as Dr. Abbott reminds us, there are moonlit nights when nearly the whole world can be seen in different attire from that of the day, and when the air is warm and dry. The stories of his nocturnal rambles are very pleasantly told, and they open a new field of travel, more accessible than central Africa or the Arctic zone, and almost as little trod.

"Notes of the Night" is the longest and most original of the essays collected here, the others following more conventional lines. In style they remind us of Thoreau, whom Dr. Abbott highly appreciates and defends against unsympathetic critics. We need, he maintains, "an infusion of intellect into the lower strata of man's activities"; and "the intellectuality that Emerson deplored as dissipated was put to the very highest of uses, that of making the lower or simpler things of life shine out in their proper light." We need not pass upon this point, but only remark that while Thoreau's style is richer in literary allusion and in profounder thought, Dr. Abbott keeps somewhat closer to nature—is, in the technical sense, more of a naturalist. His book is daintily printed and bound, and is to be considered by those who are getting together their vacation reading. The author's modest hope, that it contains some "profitable reflections readably expressed," is certainly justified.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Stumbler in Wide Shoes. Henry Holt & Co.
Holdrewood, Rolf. Old Melbourne Memories. 2d ed. Macmillan. $1.75.
Bunner, H. C. Jersey Street and Jersey Lane. Scribners. $1.25.
Clarke, George. The Education of Children at Rome. Macmillan. 75c.
Cockburn, Rev. G. John Chinaman: His Ways and Notions. Edinburgh: J. Gardner Hitt.
Colonel Hungerford's Daughter. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Cooper, J. F. The Sea-Lions; or, The Lost Sealers. [Mohawk Edition.] Putnams. $1.25.
Cosins, George. Isban-Israel: A South African Story. London: Gay & Bird.
Cowperthwait, J. H. Money, Silver, and Finance. 3d ed. American News Co. 25c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 9, 1896.

The Week.

We have received a number of letters asking us whether, after the Chicago convention adopts a free-silver platform, the sound-money Democrats ought to nominate a ticket of their own or to vote the Republican ticket. This is a question which we should not attempt to answer if we could, but which we cannot answer because we do not know how the action of the convention will be received by the persons most immediately concerned. Perhaps they do not themselves know at this moment. Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof. There are several things to be taken into consideration. One is the question how many Democrats would be likely to vote for the Chicago nominees if they had no alternative but to support McKinley. How many would vote a sound-money Democratic ticket if it were offered to them, but would vote for McKinley if it were not offered to them? What will be the effect on State and local officers and members of the Legislature if there is no national ticket which they can conscientiously support? These questions must be duly weighed by those whose decision is binding. They must cast their eyes beyond the present year also, and see what will be the effect of their present action on future campaigns. For these reasons it is impossible to make a prediction or to give advice. The only thing absolutely certain is that the sound-money Democrats consider it dishonorable to stand on a free-coinage platform. That was the word used by Mr. Whitney. Of course no Democrat who agrees with him will sacrifice his honor merely because a majority of delegates at Chicago have invited him to do so.

The difficulties in the way of the Chicago platform-makers are really more serious than those which confronted the St. Louis artificers. With free silver agreed upon, the rest might be thought to be plain sailing; but the truth is that free silver is going to make every other plank most refractory. How can you say anything about the tariff when you have got to get your free-silver votes from both free-traders and high protectionists? On the other hand, what sort of a figure would a party calling itself Democratic cut, after its record for the past dozen years, by now saying nothing about the tariff? Then there is the income tax. Several State conventions have instructed their delegations to insist upon that being made one plank. Of course, a constitutional amendment would be required, but that would take years to secure, and this convention is to bring the millennium instanter. Any party can promise general happiness and prosperity five years after date, but our Chicago divinities do not propose to be hampered by time or space, facts or figures. Hence their perplexity in dealing with anything so inevitably remote in operation as the income tax. Probably there would be little difficulty in agreeing upon a foreign-policy plank, inviting the rest of the world to come on, if it dared, or in any case to keep a civil tongue in its head and quit being so particular about what kind of money we pay our debts in. But Altgeld, who vows he is going to be chairman of the committee on resolutions, will also demand a free-riot plank, condemning the federal authorities for protecting interstate commerce. That, too, is bound to make trouble. On the whole, the suggestion of J. R. McLean seems to us the wisest made. He advocates a single short plank —namely, "Free silver; get there." He is willing to run for the Presidency on that platform.

The Republican newspapers, one after another, are yielding to the logic of the situation, and accepting the inevitable conclusion that silver is to be the issue of the campaign. The first to recognize the necessities of the case were those in the Western States, where free-coinage sentiment has always been strong. Many party organs in the Eastern part of the country, which had committed themselves to the tariff idea, have been holding off from a surrender of their original position on a theory that the issue might be varied in different sections, so that, while Western stump-speakers and papers should talk sound money, the Eastern orators and editors might talk tariff. But the discovery is being made that the silver propaganda is already so active and effective in the East that earnest work against it will be required. The infection is spreading among the farmers of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey, as anybody will soon learn who makes any investigation. The free-coinage people evidently have abundant funds for the circulation of campaign literature in their interest, and they are sending out large quantities of stuff that is plausible and will make silver votes if nothing is done to counteract its effect.

It would be a fatal blunder if the Republican managers should take the ground that these silver documents are so absurd that they can be ignored, and should meet the arguments and pleas of the free-coinage men only with talk in favor of a high tariff. They should take a warning from the experience of their party in Maine, when a similar craze prevailed nearly twenty years ago. The *Portland Press* declares that the greenback cause gained the great headway which it secured there in 1878 and 1880 largely through the failure of the Republicans to face it squarely. They sneered at it and belittled it, and did not meet it with serious argument. The people construed this conduct as a virtual admission that the doctrine had a good deal in it, and before the Republicans knew it the craze had swept over the State and taken possession of two Congressional districts. Yet Maine is a New England State with a high level of popular intelligence.

In the Sixth Congressional District of Michigan, which went Republican by 9,000 majority in 1894, Jay P. Lee, the leading candidate for the Republican nomination this year, has published a letter repudiating the financial plank in the St. Louis platform, and saying that, if nominated and elected, he will favor the free coinage of silver at a ratio of not more than 16 to 1. In Minnesota, Lieut.-Gov. Day, Congressman Towne of the Duluth district, ex-Congressman Lind, and a number of State Senators have issued an address to the Republicans of the State, declaring that a belief in bimetallism has always hitherto been an article of Republican faith; that the national convention of 1888 adopted a platform "condemning the policy of the Democratic Administration in its efforts to demonetize silver," and the national convention of 1892 one which favored bimetallism and "the use of both gold and silver as standard money"; that in 1894 the Republican party of Minnesota reaffirmed its belief in bimetallism, and declared that "the restoration of silver as ultimate money to the currency of the world is absolutely necessary for business prosperity, proper rate of wages, and the welfare of the people"; that the St. Louis convention "has repudiated this fundamental doctrine of our party" in endorsing the single gold standard, so that "the party no longer stands for both gold and silver as primary money, but for gold only"; and finally that

> "We cannot accept the new faith, and we will hold steadfastly to the old. The policy of gold monometallism means prolonged and intensified depression; an endless and hopeless era of falling prices for our farmers and other producers; continued uncertainty of employment for our workingmen, with lessening wages following the fall in prices of the products of labor; discouragement of all enterprises, and, in the end, universal bankruptcy, and gravitation of all money into the hands of money brokers."

The platform adopted by the sound-money Democratic State convention in Texas will be a revelation to many at the North who have never got over the impression that the Lone Star State is the

abode only of ignorant Bourbons. What could be better, for example, than this clear declaration in favor of the gold standard?

"Holding it to be as impossible for man to measure value by more than one standard as it is to so measure any other quantity, and being firmly convinced that a change in the standard for the measure of value at this time would result in a financial panic to which the history of the world furnishes no parallel, and believing that every government owes it to its own honor and to its citizens that it shall so order its laws as to require all debts to be paid in money as nearly as possible equal in value to the money in circulation at the time of the creation of the debt, we declare that it is the duty of the United States to maintain the present single gold standard of the measure of value, to the end that justice shall be done to all men, and the honor of the nation preserved."

The declaration against free coinage was equally clear and emphatic. "We oppose the free and unlimited coinage of silver by this Government alone," concludes the plank from which we have quoted, "as a measure borrowed from Populism, and fraught, if successful, with dishonor and disgrace to the nation and destruction to the people."

Nor do the sound-money Democrats of Texas stop, as so many men in both parties who profess to favor sound money do, with a mere declaration for the gold standard and against free coinage. They recognize that opposition to a change to the silver standard is not all that the situation demands. They perceive the necessity of positive affirmative action if our currency system is to be placed permanently on a sound basis, and they define what action is needed. They avow their belief that the issue of the greenbacks by a Republican Congress under the exigencies of the civil war, professedly as a temporary expedient, and their retention in circulation by subsequent Congressional action, have

"contributed to miseducate and debauch the public mind upon questions of finance more than all other causes combined. It has miseducated our people as to the proper financial functions of the Government, and has tended to the propagation of the flatism now so current in the land. It has misled many of our people into the belief that the Government can create value with its stamp, and their constant redemption and reissuance has more than once nearly bankrupted our Treasury, and enabled the money changers to rob the people. We demand the immediate retirement of this Government from the banking business, and that the law authorizing the issuance of the Treasury notes should be repealed, and such promises be retired and cancelled. We favor the establishment of a safe system of banking under rigid governmental supervision, in order that the people may have at all times a safe, sound, and elastic currency, amply sufficient for the transaction of their business."

The present speculative movement in silver, which touched 70 cents per ounce a few days ago, recalls the similar movement which took place when the Sherman act was pending in Congress in 1890. That measure proposed the purchase by Congress of 4,500,000 ounces per month in place of about 2,000,000 per month provided for by the then existing law. The price of silver was $1.07 per ounce when the movement began. The debate on the bill attracted the attention of speculators throughout the world. Buying was especially brisk in India and in the seaboard cities of China. The price was carried up to $1.16 per ounce, but as soon as the Government began its increased purchases the holders began to unload and the price began to drop. Before the end of the year, it had fallen to $1.03—that is, it was lower than it was when the bill passed. It did not stop there. It continued to fall through the whole of 1891, 1892, and 1893, reaching 73 cents per ounce in October of that year. The reason why it fell was that the whole world knew that the Government would not and could not continue buying for ever, and that the larger the heap of useless silver in the Treasury became, the more disastrous would be the final catastrophe. While the Government continued to buy, the production of the mines increased, and, when it stopped buying, many of them were obliged to close down and discharge their hands. The result was exactly like that of any other speculation which was foredoomed to failure at some time. The present speculation, in so far as it rests on the expectation of free coinage by the United States, is doomed in like manner.

Despite receipts increased by $13,000,000 over 1895, and expenditures diminished by $4,000,000, the Treasury closes the fiscal year with a deficit of $26,000,000. Pensions, though falling off slightly in total, remain far the largest item of national expenditure—larger, in fact, than any other two items combined—and eat up much more than one-third of the entire national income. With the Republicans denouncing the small economies effected in the pensions appropriation, and practically pledged to a service pension at the earliest moment possible, there seems poor prospect of retrenchment in this particular. Indeed, unless business picks up in a marked way, and the Government revenue with it, the deficit for the next fiscal year will be much greater than for the present one, owing to the extravagant appropriations of the existing Congress. We know, of course, that Republican capacity for finance is matchless; otherwise we should have been disposed to blame a Republican Congress that fiercely upbraided the Democrats for not giving the Treasury revenue enough, and then went ahead and voted money as though the Treasury were overflowing with funds.

We advise the Republican papers to say as little as possible about the "deficit-making Democratic Congress" whose work is visible in the Treasury returns for the fiscal year. We advise them thus because we are sure that they will be placed in an embarrassing position whenever the figures are analyzed. The excess of expenditures over ordinary revenue for the year ending June 30, 1896, was, to be sure, not less than $26,000,000. This is, no doubt, as the *Tribune* describes it, a "humiliating record," and both revenue laws and appropriation laws under which this deficit occurred were the work of a Democratic Congress. It will be noticed, however, that the deficit of $26,000,000 this year compares with deficits of $42,805,223 in the fiscal year 1895 and of $69,803,260 in 1894. Curiosity will naturally be aroused as to how this forty-three million reduction in the annual deficit was attained, and here a surprise will await some *Tribune* readers. In the fiscal year 1894 the McKinley tariff was still in operation; in 1896 the hated Wilson law prevailed. Yet the Government revenue for 1896 showed increase of $28,467,206 over 1894, customs receipts alone expanding $28,717,821. In other words, some revenue laws in our recent history have had considerably more of a "deficit-creating" character than the Wilson act.

There is a comic as well as a pitiful side to the solemn warnings addressed to the President by Republican Jingoes, that he must not try to aid his party by anything spectacular in foreign affairs. They imply that it would not be fair, not in accordance with the rules of the game, to try a great sensation of that sort in the midst of a Presidential campaign. Last December the case was different. Then it was a time to talk about "magnificent Americanism" and "standing behind" a noble Executive; but now a Venezuelan message would be a transparent trick, filling all true patriots with disgust. But, through all these alarmed protests, there runs the fear that the Jingoes, even the Republican Jingoes, would be bound to back up Mr. Cleveland in any adventure of the kind he might undertake. They dread the charge of inconsistency if they should not, and, moreover, they dread their own nature. The fact that they made fools of themselves last December would not in the least prevent them from doing it again. They know their own weakness, and feel sure that a loud alarum would at once set them to shrieking and leaping. They could no more help it than a fire-department horse could help rushing from his stable at the clanging of the gong. The President should really have compassion for them, not to speak of compassion for the country, and refrain from giving the signal which would turn them into raving lunatics.

The Raines liquor-tax law must be set down as a success in several important particulars. In the first place, it has reduced the number of saloons in this city at least 500, which is a valuable gain. Those that are to be continued, about 7,400, will be in less objectionable localities than many of the previous ones, for the 200-feet limit of distance from a private residence has been rigorously en-

forced. In the matter of total income from the law, Senator Raines's estimate of $3,000,000 for the State as its third is certain to be exceeded. The State Excise Commissioner reports the grand total already at $10,500,000, giving to the State as its share $3,500,000. There seem to be no serious complaints anywhere about the law's enforcement. Indeed, when we consider what a radical change it effects in the regulation of the liquor traffic of the State, the smoothness with which it has been put in operation is remarkable. We shall be able to judge by the end of a year what its merits in full operation are; but there is no risk now in congratulating the people of the State on the complete disappearance from their system of government of the pestiferous Boards of Excise, with their "pulls," blackmail, and general corruption.

The latest developments in the Venezuelan controversy illustrate the delights of having a lot of semi-civilized countries as our wards, whom we are bound to keep in order as well as protect. It is reported from Washington that the State Department is greatly vexed at the recent arrest by Venezuelan troops of an English engineering party well to the east of the Schomburgk line. President Crespo "has been flatly informed" that this sort of thing will never do, and that he must not only pay an indemnity for the outrage, but make a suitable apology for it also. This is only a specimen of what we are in for if we are going to set up a protectorate over all South America. The amount of boxing of ears of the bad boys which the State Department will have to do, if it is to take charge of the foreign relations of all these unruly republics, will be enough to occupy all the time of a vigorous secretary. We surmise, also, that this unpleasant application of the big-brother doctrine will diminish by much the enthusiasm of the Venezuelans for "the immortal Monroe." They thought he was a convenient and powerful name to invoke to prevent them from getting a deserved whipping; but if they are to be soundly slapped in this way, as a corollary of the Monroe Doctrine, its beauties will speedily pall upon them.

The Cuban war has fallen into such a languishing condition that people are apt to forget what tremendous efforts Spain has made and is still making to conquer and retain the island. In the thirteen months ending April 10, 1896, the Spanish Minister of War despatched to Cuba no less than 121,326 soldiers of all arms and ranks. With them were transported a vast amount of military material—150,000 Mauser and Remington rifles, 60,000,000 cartridges, 72,000 kilogrammes of powder, etc. In addition, 40,000 to 60,000 more troops are to be sent out in the fall. All told, it is probable that there is nothing equal to this in history. We doubt if any nation ever before sent as many as 120,000 of its fighting men 3,000 miles by water for one campaign. Yet the thing has been done with a rapidity and ease that speaks much for the detail of administration in the Spanish War Office. All these men have been transported, equipped, and fed, at a terrible money cost for a country as poor as Spain, yet it has been done. The fatal blight seems to be on the army itself, not upon the Spanish Government. We know, of course, that operations in Cuba are enormously difficult at any time, and almost flatly impossible in the rainy season; yet, even so, the failure of successive generals has been so nearly complete, up to this time, as to argue a woful lack of both discipline and capacity in men and officers.

When the innovation of adopting the closure in the Commons was resorted to, it was felt that it was a great break with old traditions, but that it certainly armed the Government with all needed power to put their bills through the House. Now, however, the closure has become practically useless, unless applied in the form of "closure by compartments." There were pending, for example, no less than 960 amendments to the Education bill when Mr. Balfour threw up the sponge a fortnight ago last Monday. Each of those amendments might have been peremptorily closured, but how long would the process have taken? Assuming that each division requires ten minutes—and two would be necessary on each amendment—at least forty days of eight hours each would have been consumed in "the healthy, but somewhat barren, process of walking round and round the lobbies." The Ministry could not but surrender, unless they were prepared to enforce closure by compartments—that is, by moving that any particular clause be passed irrespective of amendments offered. This form of closure was resorted to by the Conservatives in 1887 and by the Liberals in the last Parliament, but the present Government is pledged not to make use of it. The temptation to pass the Education bill by means of it, nevertheless, would have been very great if the Conservatives had been more strongly united in support of the bill. But there were most serious divisions and actual bickerings among them—even in the Cabinet itself. The arraying of one minister against another was unexampled, and gave point to John Morley's taunt that the Conservatives had promised the country a policy of humdrum, but had given it one of harum-scarum.

The decision of the House of Commons that the expenses of the Indian troops sent to Africa must be borne by the Indian budget was expected, but will none the less be a cause of much exasperation in India. The arguments advanced in favor of making the Indian Treasury foot the bill are (1) that India would have to pay the troops if kept at home, and would therefore incur no extra burden by paying them when abroad; (2) that India is directly and vitally interested in Egypt, since the Suez Canal and the English control of Egypt exist mainly for the sake of the Indian empire. But to this it is forcibly replied that it is absurd to make India pay for what she has not. It is one thing to ask her to pay for troops which she raises and equips and employs in her own service, but quite another to deprive her of their service and still ask her to pay. The principle is not reciprocal in operation. When England sends recruits to India, the cost is laid upon the Indian Treasury from the day the soldiers leave the British coast. Nor can it be said that the present operations in the Sudan closely affect India. The canal is not endangered; English dominion in Egypt is not imperilled. On the Government's own showing, the enterprise was undertaken simply because a favorable moment came to strike a blow at the Dervishes and make a diversion in favor of the Italians. The truth seems to be that the Government are very anxious not to have their rather theatric African *coup* cost the British taxpayer anything. The Chancellor of the Exchequer has stated that it should not, and he is reported to be resolute against including in his budget a penny for African military expenses. First the Egyptian surplus was to be drawn on, and then India was to be asked not only to send troops fit to stand the climate at Suakin, but to pay the expenses of the affair as well. It would seem that at least the £100,000 which, Mr. Balfour said, would be saved by the failure of the Education bill, might be turned over to the burdened Indian Treasury.

So far as Lord Salisbury is concerned, a very ugly quotation from an old speech of his on this subject is ready to be thrown in his face. In 1867, as Lord Cranborne, he opposed charging to India the pay of Indian troops employed in Abyssinia, saying, as if with prophetic forecast of the situation thirty years later:

> "I do not like India to be looked upon as an English barrack in the Oriental seas from which we may draw any number of troops without paying for them. It is bad for England, because it is always bad for us not to have that check upon the temptation to engage in little wars which can only be controlled by the necessity of paying for them. If this garrison which we keep in India is, as all Indian authorities assure us, necessary for maintaining that country in security and peace, that garrison ought not to be rashly diminished. If, on the other hand, it is too large, and India can for any length of time conveniently spare these troops, then the Indian population ought not to be so unnecessarily taxed."

Even his cynical dialectics will be somewhat severely taxed to explain away this old opinion of his.

PARTY DISINTEGRATION.

THE Republican party nominated its first Presidential candidate forty years ago last month. The slavery issue brought it into existence; the slavery issue, in one form or another, remained a fundamental feature of its platform from 1856 down to and including 1892, for the Force-bill policy was the natural outgrowth of the war upon slavery and the enfranchisement of the slaves. The Democrats secured complete control of the Federal Government in 1893, for the first time since the early part of Buchanan's Administration. They repealed the federal election laws which the Republicans, at intervals during the quarter of a century since their passage, had been trying to make more rigorous. This removed from the statute-book everything that made a distinction between the North and the South, former loyalists and former rebels, ex-masters and ex-slaves—for everybody knew that these election laws were designed to operate in the South for the benefit of the negroes. After two years of reflection, the Republican managers decided to drop the whole sectional issue. Their national platform, for the first time since the organization of the party, has not one line which bears upon the principle that led to its formation. The old issue had been a strong bond of union. Northern Republicans who differed on the new questions that were coming to the front, were held together by appeals to support the regular ticket in order to maintain the principles that gave the party birth. On the other hand, Southern Democrats, who were at swords' points regarding the tariff, were brought into line by the declaration that they must stand shoulder to shoulder in order to meet the onset of men who believed in force bills and "negro domination."

Only three weeks have elapsed since the St. Louis platform was adopted, but it is already manifest that the old party fences have been swept down past repair by a new issue, and that, in this campaign, support of one ticket or the other will not depend upon whether a man has been in the past a Republican or a Democrat. The process of party disintegration is now going on upon a clearer and larger scale than has been seen in this country since the slavery issue broke up the old political associations, back in the fifties. The central West has always been the stronghold of Republicanism. The great majority of its people opposed the spread of slavery, sustained the war for the Union, favored the enfranchisement of the slaves, and supported rigorous legislation to protect the blacks in the suffrage. Nowhere else in the North could the bloody shirt be waved to greater effect; nowhere else could hesitating and wandering members of the Republican party be so easily persuaded to vote the ticket once more in order to "preserve the fruits of the war." The elimination of the sectional issue from the platform adopted at St. Louis has been a proclamation of emancipation to the Republicans of the central West. From Michigan to the Rocky Mountains the former members of the party are treating this platform as though it were that of a new organization, which has no other claim upon their loyalty than that to which its central principle of maintaining the gold standard entitles it; and they sustain it, as in the Minnesota convention last week, or oppose it, as this principle commends itself to their judgment. Only one who keeps close track of the Republican press in that part of the country can properly appreciate the extent to which the rupture of old party ties has already gone.

The first sign of the revolution was given by the chief Republican organ in Michigan, which bolted the platform as "damnably unpatriotic and un Republican" the morning after its adoption. Every day since the Detroit *Tribune* took this stand three weeks ago, it has published columns of interviews with, and letters from, life-long Republicans, who repudiate the gold plank in such deliverances as these:

> "I am a Republican, and have always been, but cannot support a gold platform, and, in my opinion, three-fourths of the Republicans of Gratiot County will not."
>
> "You will find that the woods are full of men who will not 'stand pat' on the St. Louis gold plank adopted by the Republican convention. There are very many good Republicans hereabout in this vicinity, especially farmers, who will not 'stand pat' on a gold platform. Silver Republicans are too determined to allow themselves to be whipped back like curs into the ranks of gold-bugs in order to carry out the plans of Grover Cleveland and his Wall Street allies."
>
> "I am engaged as an instructor in the public schools of this village, and I believe that I express the sentiments of the great number of Republicans who live in and about this village when I say to you about the platform that we will have none of it; if to be a Republican one must favor a single gold standard, then we are not Republicans and will not vote the Republican ticket. I believe I am right when I say that, if it is necessary to believe in a single gold standard to be a Republican, there are not 200 Republicans in Genesee County [vote for Harrison in 1892, 5,404]."

The same state of things exists in Kansas. The Atchison *Champion*, edited by ex-Lieut.-Gov. A. J. Felt, always hitherto an earnest supporter of Republican platforms, "spits on the St. Louis platform," pronounces it "a stupid blunder to declare for Clevelandism in the money plank," proclaims that "Kansas is not a gold-standard State," and "not a congressional district in it can be carried for the gold standard if the bimetallists unite," and advises the silver Republicans to nominate Congressmen of the sort they had "before the single-standard gold brand was adopted at St. Louis." The Topeka *Capital*, which defends the platform, does not interpret it as going beyond opposition to absolute free coinage, and publishes a double-leaded appeal to its readers, "Don't leave your party before you know where you are going."

The South has been solid for Democracy ever since 1876. The Force-bill issue could always be depended upon in the last extremity to unite the whites for the party. The elimination of the sectional issue and the assured elevation of free coinage to the first position in the Democratic platform have destroyed the cohesion of the dominant party in that region. Florida had no Republican ticket in the field four years ago. E. D. Lukenbill of Fernandina, one of the delegates to the Chicago convention, says of the prospect this year: "I know that a great portion of the Southern business men, heretofore always voting the Democratic ticket, but who value the business interests of the country more than their politics, will either remain away from the polls or vote for McKinley, rather than help elect any silver man to the Presidency, and it is the opinion of these same business men that a silver candidate will lose a great many of the Southern States." Texas has always been the "Democratic stronghold" of the Union. The Democratic party of Texas has been split in two by the silver issue. Not only have the sound-money men chosen a delegation upon a most excellent financial platform to contest the seats of the regulars, who are silverites, at Chicago, but they have resolved to nominate their own State ticket, and fight the thing out in every city and town until election day. The Austin *Statesman*, the Democratic organ at the capital, says of the situation:

> "There never was a broader line of division between two opposing parties than there is today between the two wings of the Democratic party in Texas; and, loving the Democratic party for its principles, its traditions, and its glories, the sound-money Democrats could not conscientiously do less than organize for the defeat of what they regard as the heresy of free coinage and fiat money."

We could easily fill columns with equally striking evidence of the disintegration going on in both of the old organizations, but these samples suffice to illustrate the character of the movement. It is a most healthful development. It insures a square fight between radically opposing ideas on the financial question. The Republicans need only to realize the situation and devote all their energies to the one issue of which everybody is thinking, and on the right side of which they placed their party at St. Louis, and they will win, with the help of a host of former Democrats, the victory which maintenance of that platform deserves.

"CORNERING GOLD."

ONE of the commonest sayings of the silver men is that gold has been "cornered," or is liable at any time to be cornered, by "syndicates," especially the Rothschilds, who are interested in making money scarce and dear to borrowers and to people who are in debt. By cornering gold it is assumed that they can make other people pay a higher rate of interest and thus add to their own profits. This cornering process has been going on, they

tell us, ever since 1873, when silver was demonetized. In fact, silver was demonetized here and abroad at their instance, so that they might corner gold. It was all a smart game and "put-up job," and the only way to stop the cornering is to remonetize silver.

One fact militating against this theory is that the rate of interest has been falling instead of rising since 1873. At that date money could not be borrowed by the Government of the United States at less than 4½ per cent. It can now be borrowed at about 2½. In 1873 the rate for endorsed bills receivable in New York was 6 to 7 per cent. It is now 4 to 4½ per cent. The rate for Western farm mortgages then was 10 per cent. and is now 7. The rate for city mortgages was 6 to 8 per cent. and is now 4 to 5. So it appears that if the aim of the syndicates has been to bring about a rise in the rate of interest, they have failed completely. Inasmuch as it costs a great deal to corner a commodity, one would think that the Rothschilds would have got tired in the course of twenty-three years, especially when they saw that their efforts were useless.

What is meant by "cornering" any article of commerce? It means getting possession of all there is in the market, so that people who want some and must have it will be compelled to pay a high price for it. What is implied by the phrase "cornering gold"? It means getting possession of all the gold that has been produced in the world since man first began to dig it out of the ground or from the beds of streams, minus what has been lost in the intervening ages. The difference between cornering gold and cornering wheat, regarded as a task calling for the employment of capital, can be seen at a glance. All the wheat produced in any year is used up within the following year, or, if any is carried over, it is but a small margin, and not cumulative. Therefore, in order to corner wheat it would not be necessary to buy up more than one year's production in any case. Practically it would only be necessary to buy one-quarter of a year's production, since the withdrawal of that amount from the world's markets would accomplish all the rise in price that the cornerers could desire.

When it comes to "cornering gold," however, the task is that of buying not merely this year's supply as it comes out of the ground (estimated by statisticians at $200,000,000), but that of last year and the year before, and so back to the time of Darius and Alexander the Great, many of whose gold coins are still to be seen in museums, although they are not now in circulation. Of course much has been lost by abrasion, by shipwreck, by forgotten hoards, and still more has been used in the arts, although much that has been so used is recoverable for service as money, and would be recovered if the cornerers should put the price up very high. How much gold would the syndicates have to buy and take care of if they should really set out to corner it? This question is answered by Mr. Charles S. Gleed of Topeka, Kansas, in the columns of the *Bond Record*. Mr. Gleed casts out of the reckoning all the gold that was in circulation before the discovery of America. He finds that the amount produced since 1492 has been between nine and ten-and-a-half billions of dollars, equivalent to about 21,000 tons. "This," he says, "would load 2,100 freight cars with ten tons of gold each." It would require more than ten thousand wagons to haul it, each carrying two tons; and the procession of teams so occupied would reach from New York to Philadelphia. The idea of monopolizing such a mass is as absurd as all the other generalizations of the silverites. Yet their favorite pictorial illustration, to show the amount of gold in the world, is an ordinary wheat-bin in a grain elevator, representing a cube a little higher than a man's head, and about ten feet square, or less than the amount that was sent out of New York in one week when the silver scare was at its height in 1893. The gold in the Bank of France alone would make two hundred and fifty wagon-loads, and the procession, moving as closely as possible, would be more than two miles long. Yet that is not so large as the amount owned by the Imperial Bank and Treasury of Russia.

How much would it cost the syndicates to corner gold? Of course they would lose the interest on it while they held it. They could not have their cake and eat it too. Supposing that the rate of interest were as low as 3 per cent. (and we may assume that the syndicates would not work for less), it would cost at the rate of nine million dollars per year to lock up even so small an amount as the stock in the Bank of France. Since they could get that amount of income by lending it, they would lose that amount by withholding or cornering it. But it would be of little avail to corner so small an amount. The commercial world would hardly miss it, because it would be less than two years' supply of new gold. In order to be effective, they would need to rake in several times that amount and hold themselves ready to take all that comes from the mines besides. A few years ago a powerful syndicate, backed by the Comptoir d'Escompte, the second largest banking-house in France, was smashed flat by an attempt to corner copper, a metal that does not pile up from year to year as gold does, but whose yearly product enters into forms from which it cannot be detached without losing the chief part of its value. The copper syndicate was broken by the increased output of the mines, plus the old junk that was brought to market by reason of the advance in price.

To corner gold, if that were possible, would produce a panic and general bankruptcy. It is assumed by those who believe in the gold-cornering theory that this is the very object and aim of the cornerers. In other words, the chief bankers in the world are interested to break their customers, in order to get possession of their property by sheriffs' sales and foreclosures. Now, every instructed person knows that bankers are the very first men to tremble at the approach of a panic. All their liabilities are payable on demand. They are the only class of business men so exposed. Consequently the blast strikes them first. Their ability to meet present demands upon them depends upon the solvency of their customers. Their future profits must come from the same source. When their borrowers are wiped out, they are mostly wiped out also, and even the survivors among them are weakened and sickened for a long time afterward. Their expenses run on and they have no business. They must live on their capital till times get better.

The gold-cornerers are a myth. They have no more solid substance than the spectre of the Brocken. In these later days and in civilized countries, with their enlarged banking facilities, clearing-houses, credit systems, and note issues, gold is seldom seen. The more perfect the banking system of any country is, the less occasion is there for the handling of gold. The less it is seen, the higher is the state of civilization. But when it disappears from sight and touch altogether, and becomes an unknown quantity, it is well fitted for the purposes of witchcraft, and the men who are supposed to have it under their control become, in the minds of very ignorant persons, a lot of wicked conjurers around a hell-broth conspiring against the welfare of the human race.

A FREE-COINAGE CATECHISM.

Q. WHAT is the fundamental contention of the free-coinage advocates? A. That the amount of money in circulation has been decreasing since the demonetization of silver, and that this decrease has caused a general fall in prices.

Q. Is it true that the money supply has been decreasing? A. It is not.

Q. What are the facts? A. So far as the United States is concerned, there has been an enormous increase. In 1860 the money in circulation in this country was $442,102,477; in 1872 it was $738,309,549; by the Treasury bulletin, at the beginning of the present month of July, it was $1,509,725,200.

Q. What does this show? A. It shows that our money supply has increased 240 per cent. as compared with 1860, and 104 per cent. as compared with 1872.

Q. Has the money supply increased faster than the population? A. Very much faster.

Q. How do you prove this? A. By dividing the total money in circulation at each date by the total population of

the country at the same date, and thus finding the circulation per capita.

Q. What does such a process show? A. The per-capita circulation of the United States on July 1, 1860, was $14.06; on July 1, 1872, it was $18.70; at the beginning of July in 1896 it was $21.15.

Q. But has not the money supply of the world at large been decreasing? A. On the contrary, it has been increasing rapidly.

Q. How is this proved? A. By the statistics of new gold production.

Q. How large has this production been? A. The reports of the Director of the Mint, which are acknowledged authority, show that from 1873 to 1894 inclusive the world's total new gold production has been $2,526,834,900.

Q. Is this new product of gold increasing or decreasing? A. It is increasing with enormous rapidity.

Q. Give the figures. A. In 1873 the world's gold production was $96,200,000; in 1880 it was $106,436,800. In the year 1890 it was $118,849,000. In 1894 it was $180,626,100. For 1895 the exact total is not yet compiled, but it is closely estimated at $199,500,000.

Q. What does this mean? A. It means that the amount of gold annually added to the world's money supply has more than doubled in the last twenty-three years.

Q. Is not this annual rate of production liable to decrease? A. On the contrary, all experts in the American, Australian, and South African gold fields look for a further and very heavy increase over the present rate of production.

Q. But has not the disuse of silver with full coinage privileges cut down the total annual addition to the world's metallic money supply? A. It has not.

Q. Why? A. In 1873 the world's gold production was $96,200,000; its silver production, $81,800,000; total, $178,000,000. Last year the production of *gold alone* was $199,500,000.

Q. Was not the combined annual production of gold and silver larger than this in the "bonanza days"? A. It was not.

Q. What was the highest record of that period? A. Between 1856 and 1860, the world's average annual production of gold was $134,083,000; of silver, $37,618,000; total, $171,701,000, or less, by $27,800,000, than last year's production of gold alone.

Q. What are we to say, then, of the argument that the money supply, since silver free coinage was abandoned, has been contracting? A. That it is utterly false as applied to the world at large, and especially so as applied to the United States.

Q. Is it true, nevertheless, that the price of wheat and many other farm products has fallen heavily? A. It is.

Q. How are such declines, in wheat for instance, to be explained? A. By the enormously rapid increase in grain-growing area throughout the world.

Q. Has this increase been especially rapid since 1872? A. The increase in grain-growing area in this period, especially in North America, South America, and Asia, has never been approached in any equal period in the history of the world.

Q. How do we judge of actual competition in the sale of wheat? A. By the supplies thrown annually on the world's great distributing markets.

Q. What market in particular? A. England, where most of the buying nations go to purchase their grain.

Q. What are the figures? A. As recently as 1880, Great Britain imported, for consumption and reëxport, 55,261,924 hundredweight of wheat—a large increase over the preceding annual average. In 1895 it imported 81,749,955 hundredweight.

Q. What has made possible this remarkable increase in wheat production? A. The exceedingly rapid development of transportation facilities in newly cultivated grain countries; among them India, Russia, and the Argentine Republic.

Q. Has there been an increase in the United States itself? A. An enormous increase.

Q. How large? A. In 1875 there were 26,381,512 acres of wheat cultivated in this country; in 1891 there were 39,916,897, an increase of 50 per cent. The yield in 1875 was 292,136,000 bushels, a heavy increase over preceding years. In 1891 the yield was 611,780,000. Even last year, with a greatly reduced acreage and a partial crop failure, the yield was 467,100,000 bushels.

Q. Has the yield of other crops increased correspondingly? A. It has.

Q. Give instances. A. The cultivated area of corn in the United States in 1871 was 34,091,137 acres; it 1891 it was 76,204,515; increase, 124 per cent. The yield of corn last year was more than double that of any year prior to 1875. Both the acreage and the average annual yield of oats have doubled since 1871. Our cotton crop in 1894 was 50 per cent. greater than in any year prior to 1887.

Q. Was a decline in grain and cotton prices, under such conditions, inevitable? A. As inevitable as a decline in the price of clothing, or furniture, or books, or steel rails, or pins, when competition in their manufacture has extended enormously.

Q. Would free coinage help the producers of grain to a larger profit, under such conditions? A. Not in the least.

Q. Why not? A. Because if the nominal price of grain were to rise through inflation of the currency, the price of everything else would rise also, and the farmer would be relatively no better off than he was before.

Q. Do the free-coinage advocates use in their speeches these statistical facts which we have examined? A. They do not.

Q. Can the subject be understood without examining them? A. It cannot; the whole question rests on these facts regarding money and production.

Q. Why do the free-coinage speakers not use these facts and figures? A. Because the facts and figures are against them.

Q. Is there any dispute over the truth of the figures quoted in these answers? A. They are undisputed, even by free-coinage men. They are taken from the reports of the United States Treasury, of the Department of Agriculture, of the Director of the United States Mint, of the United States Bureau of Statistics, and of the British Board of Trade; all of them, in their respective spheres, the highest known authorities.

HARRIET BEECHER STOWE.

THE late world-famous authoress who died on July 1 was, when she removed to Brunswick, Me., with her husband, Prof. Calvin E. Stowe, in 1850, a woman possessed of hereditary seriousness and earnestness; intellectual and accustomed to the exercise of intellect in others; having a father and six brothers in the clerical profession, and so being familiar with discussions on ethics and theology. She had, moreover, while a resident of Cincinnati, become acquainted with the facts and incidents of slavery, and had been strongly interested in the anti-slavery agitation; her house in Cincinnati had been a refuge for fugitive slaves, and Lane Seminary itself had been threatened by a pro-slavery mob. Her friend Dr. Gamaliel Bailey had established an anti-slavery newspaper in Cincinnati, and his office had been twice mobbed. A little colored boy, one of her favorite pupils, had been offered at a sheriff's sale as belonging to the assets of an estate in Kentucky. She had often written letters in behalf of a servant in her own family to the woman's husband, who was still a slave, and would never break his promise to his master when sent on errands into a free State and pledged to return. All these things had prepared her mind for being absorbed more and more in the most exciting question of the day; and the passage of the Fugitive Slave Bill, with its consequent agitations, brought the matter to a crisis in her mind. She read in an anti-slavery magazine an account of the escape of a slave-woman and her child across the Ohio River on the ice, and the incidents of her story began to crystallize in her imagination. The faithful slave husband to whom she had written so many letters for her maid occurred to her as the pattern for her hero, and the story that was to make her famous came rapidly into shape. One day, while sitting, during the communion service, in the little church at Brunswick, there occurred to her the scene of Uncle Tom's death. It excited her so much, she tells us, that she could not restrain her sobs. Returning home, she wrote it out, and then read it aloud to her two boys, ten and twelve years old, and found them as much impressed by it as she could desire. She then began at the beginning, wrote two or three chapters, and arranged for its publication in the *National Era*, then edited by her friend Dr. Bailey at Washington, D. C. The publication began at once, and she was called upon for weekly instalments. She had, at this time, a young infant, and had resident pupils in her

family whom she taught with her own children. To this household she read each instalment of the story before sending it to Washington.

From the moment of its commencement the story attracted the greatest interest, but publishers were not yet sure that it was to command success in book form. It has always been reported that Ticknor & Fields refused it, although Mrs. Stowe, in her historical introduction to the Centennial Edition, makes no such statement. She tells us, however, that Mr. John P. Jewett, who offered to publish it, demurred at its length and wished it compressed into one volume. It finally appeared on March 20, 1852, and had the very greatest success from the first moment. It took but a few days to sell 10,000 copies, and over 300,000 were sold within a year, eight power-presses barely keeping pace with the demand. This is Mrs. Stowe's own statement in the Centennial Edition, but it can hardly be reconciled with the fact that the publishers in 1868 announced only the 314th thousand. Such a sale, however, even in sixteen years, was a thing probably unexampled in history for a purely literary work. Its success in England, and then in Europe generally, was as startling. Macaulay wrote to her in October, 1856: "I have just returned from Italy, where your name seems to throw that of all other writers into the shade. There is no place where 'Uncle Tom' (transformed into *Il Zio Tom*) is not to be found." Dickens, Kingsley, Helps, Lord Carlisle, Lord Shaftesbury, Frederika Bremer, George Sand, wrote to her with enthusiasm. Within eight months, according to Sampson Low, twelve different shilling editions had appeared in England; the total number of English editions was forty, and the aggregate number circulated in Great Britain and its colonies was estimated by Mr. Low some years since at a million and a half. According to Mr. Bullen of the British Museum, that library contains translations of the book into twenty different languages, in some of which there are many different versions or adaptations—ten in French, nine in German, six in Spanish, and so on. Pains were taken to collect these for the Museum, on the ground that no purely secular book had ever been so widely translated.

It is plain that no immediate literary success, tried by the ordinary standards, was ever greater than this. If now the question be asked, how far 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' has vindicated its claim to be one of the great and permanent works of literature, it can only be replied that it is too soon to judge, but that the probabilities now seem rather against such a destiny. It had, like Cooper's novels, the immense advantage of introducing to the reading world a race of human beings practically new to literature, and it had, beyond the writings of Cooper, the advantage of a distinctly evangelical flavor, such as had of itself secured a great success for the novels of the Warner sisters, now almost forgotten. Finally, it roused the world's resentment against a mighty wrong. All these things together could not sufficiently explain the success of the book, but they helped to explain it. There had already been anti-slavery fictions which had attained but a moderate success, as for instance Hildreth's 'Archy Moore,' which had got so far as to be reprinted in England, but had attracted comparatively little attention. Miss Martineau, also, both in her little story of 'Demerara' and in her novel of 'The Hour and the Man,' had made slavery her theme. It must therefore be owned that the vast success of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' implied a marked literary ability in its author. Characterization, grouping, incident, all were good; but, in view of the favorable conditions offered by the subject and the occasion, it is not necessary to account for its success by calling it a work of pure genius, nor is it likely that this will be the judgment of future criticism. The simple fact that the same publishers issued soon after a story of the most mediocre quality, called 'The Lamplighter,' which, without any especial interest of theme, yet made a tour through Europe and was abundantly translated, seems to imply that there may have been something favorable in the conditions of the time.

A further question has sometimes been raised as to how far the book was correct in its pictures of slavery. One result of this debate was to induce Mrs. Stowe to publish, in 1853, a 'Key to "Uncle Tom's Cabin,"' giving chapter and verse, so to speak, for every incident she had employed. It is certain that many Southerners of high standing, beginning with Senator Preston of South Carolina—in a conversation with Prof. Lieber—admitted that every fact it contained might be duplicated from their own observation. All this might be true, however, and yet the general atmosphere of such a book might be unfair; there might be unfairness also in the omissions. It is stated by Mrs. Stowe herself that she expected more criticism from the abolitionists than from the slaveholders themselves. Perhaps the keenest criticism ever made upon 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' was from a Southern lady who, while conceding the probable truth of all the incidents, complained that Mrs. Stowe had described neither the best nor the worst class of slaveholders. Those who could not accept Legree as a sufficient approach to the latter type must have had a terrible experience. As to the former, it is enough to say that Mrs. Stowe was consciously engaged upon an anti-slavery tract, not, like Frederick Law Olmsted, in an economic study; and that the very impotence of the more humane slaveholders either to emancipate their slaves or to extricate themselves from the toils of the system, is not the least weighty part of the indictment against American slavery. The fury of Southern criticism was and still is directed against the veracity of the picture of the every-day tortures inflicted on chattels over whom the law gave absolute control to the owner. The statutes of the slave States, the advertisements in the Southern press, the burnings at the stake which continue to the present hour, demonstrate the absurdity of the general challenge of the veracity of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' There is a problem, far more curious, as to the absolute effect of a work whose appeal to the feelings was so powerful and which was so universally read, in producing a real opposition to slavery. In the height of its first impression it did not save the Free Soil vote from dwindling, and how little it has done to remove color prejudice, everybody knows who but looks about him.

It was inevitable that the immense success of this book should give to its author a great personal following, especially in England, where the memory of West India emancipation was still fresh. In April, 1853, Mrs. Stowe visited Europe with her husband and her brother Charles, and found her path through England a continuous triumph. In town after town she had public receptions, and she met at Stafford House the highest and best of England. The Duchess of Sutherland presented to her a gold bracelet whose successive links bore the dates of the English abolition of the slave-trade and of slavery in the British West Indies. Before the recipient died, she had the pleasure of inscribing on its other links the successive dates in the progress of American freedom.

After Mrs. Stowe's return from her first visit to Europe—for she revisited England in 1856 more quietly, to obtain a copyright for her next book—she entered on a long career of literary production. In this, it must be owned, her artistic standard—if she can be said to have had one—went on lowering, while her sales kept up, and she undoubtedly felt that she was doing good. 'Dred: A Tale of the Great Dismal Swamp' (1856)—republished ten years afterwards under the weaker title of 'Nina Gordon'—was a work of some power, especially in its negro sketches, but seemed tame after its greater predecessor, and had but a small circulation in comparison. This was the last of her expressly anti-slavery novels; but 'The Minister's Wooing' (1859) bore somewhat indirectly upon the same subject, and had vigor in its historic picture of Rev. Dr. Hopkins and his experiences at Newport, R. I. From this time forward her books may be said to have declined. 'Agnes of Sorrento' (1862) had little of the atmosphere of Italy, nor did the 'Pearl of Orr's Island' convey the flavor of the coast of Maine; yet both were, on the whole, pleasing stories, and they were widely read. Some very sensible 'House and Home Papers' (1864-5) were reprinted from the *Atlantic Monthly*, followed by a series of essays on minor ethics called 'Little Foxes' (1865-6), a small book of religious poetry (1867), and a volume called 'The Chimney Corner' (1868). She published at Hartford (1868) a subscription-book entitled 'Men of Our Time,' containing sketches of Lincoln, Grant, Garrison, Phillips, Sumner, and others. She was one of the editors of *Hearth and Home* (1868-70), and wrote a volume called 'Oldtown Folks' (1869)—perhaps her best book after 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.'

During that same year she startled the repose of society by publishing in the *Atlantic Monthly* (September, 1869) what she conceived to be the true story of Lord Byron's quarrel with his wife, afterwards amplified and published (1869) as 'Lady Byron Vindicated.' It was a revelation so utterly ghastly that it aroused a large part of her readers against it; and as it was incapable of further proof—resting entirely upon verbal statements of Lady Byron—it never succeeded in establishing itself in the public mind. That Mrs. Stowe fully believed her own theory as to Lord Byron is unquestionable, but the motive of the exposure still remains unexplained. Had Lord Byron been a falsely canonized saint, there might have been some possible object in unveiling his sins; but as he occupied no moral eminence, it was not worth while to disgust the public in order to settle the mere question of more or less, and as Lady Byron had died in the odor of sanctity, there seemed no reason for vindicating her from the charge of a too zealous and exacting virtue. In the long run the publication neither helped Lady Byron's reputation nor hurt that of the poet, and it gave temporary stimulus to the sale of his works, which were steadily losing their influence.

Mrs. Stowe next wrote (1870) a children's book, 'Little Pussy Willow.' Her fiction was still in great demand; 'Pink and White Tyranny' (1871) began with an edition of 20,000 copies, a thing then almost unexampled, and

it was followed in the same vein by 'My Wife and I' (1872) and 'We and Our Neighbors' (1875). In these stories she entered on a new mission, that of the reformation of fashionable society; and so far as mere sales were concerned, she attained success. In all literary aspects they were the profoundest failure; the grade of their execution being like that of Mr. T. S. Arthur's stories, then popular, and far below those of Miss Sedgwick and Mrs. Child. She created a class of literature which corresponded to the "social dramas" now so popular on the American stage, combining unexceptionable morality with the absence of all intellectual value. Yet these books had what was then an enormous sale. To an author not trained to a high or exacting literary standard, such a test is conclusive; from a sale of 20,000 copies there is no appeal. In 'Sam Lawson's Fireside Stories' (1871) and 'Poganuc People' (1878) Mrs. Stowe reverted to the vein where she was strongest, that of the now fading vernacular of rural New England. She had a true, though thin, vein of humor, and the types of character which she could really draw were village Yankees, negroes, and country clergymen. The family tendency to the milder subdivisions of theological opinion was strong in her, and it was hard for her to finish a book without giving her reasons why a descendant of Puritans could consistently become an Episcopalian. The clerical figures in her books were, however, usually Congregationalists or Presbyterians. They sometimes fatigue you; but in this respect also they have verisimilitude.

From 1852 to 1864 Mrs. Stowe had resided with her husband at Andover, Mass., where he had become a professor in the theological institution, after his two years at Bowdoin College. In 1864 the professorship was resigned, and the family took up their residence at Hartford, Conn., where Mrs. Stowe had been at school in early girlhood. Her later life was divided between this home and an orange plantation at Mandarin, Florida, where she built, with the proceeds of some public readings at the North, a little church in which her husband used to preach. She has written animated descriptions of the way of living in that sunny land, and of the orange-culture, in a book called 'Palmetto Leaves' (1873). Her married life was a very happy one, though she had her share of burdens and sorrows. She outlived her husband, and, what was sadder, her own strength of mind, having been herself only at intervals for a number of years past.

HIGHER EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN ENGLAND.

OXFORD, June 27, 1896.

THERE is no more interesting chapter in the history of modern education than that which records the movement for the higher education of women. And while it is true that the battle for their rights has been won more completely in America, it certainly is no less true that the struggle in England presents many features far more interesting and instructive than those of the comparatively easy victory on the other side. As the campaign here is not yet over, in view of the last great engagement (the defeat of the proposition that women should be admitted to degrees at Oxford) and of the forthcoming one (the action on the report of the committee appointed by Cambridge to consider the question, which is but a few months off), it may be of interest to sketch briefly the present situation.

It is impossible here to even touch upon the women's struggle for recognition in the past fifty years. Those who are interested in the subject will find invaluable a pamphlet by Miss Emily Davies, "Women and the Universities," a careful chronological survey of the movement from its inception about 1848 till now.* I shall attempt only to consider some of the more important results of this movement, as shown in the position taken towards it by the universities of the United Kingdom. Of these at present nine admit women to membership and degrees on much the same footing as men, namely, London, Victoria, Durham, Edinburgh, Glasgow, St. Andrews, Aberdeen, Wales, and the Royal Irish University. In most respects they are on essentially the same footing as the ordinary American co-educational institution, and require no special notice. It is the state of the question elsewhere, in particular at Oxford and Cambridge, which is of especial interest just now.

The assertion is hardly too sweeping that in both of these places, with the exception of being ineligible for official matriculation into the University and for taking a degree, there is practically no difference between the position of women and that of men. Women are required by their college or delegacy to pass essentially the same entrance examinations as men, with a very few exceptions they attend the same lectures, they work in the same laboratories, they are more or less under the same tutorial system, they take essentially the same examinations during their stay at the university and the same final examinations on completing their residence, they have their own colleges and halls, they even have their own athletics. So that, as far as life and education go, they are on almost exact equality with the men. The whole difference lies in the fact that their connection with the university is to a certain extent unofficial, with all that that implies. Technically, they have no university existence; their presence, while recognized, perhaps, in a semi-official way by the university in so far as it permits them to take university examinations and receive certificates to that effect, is not in any sense on the same footing as that of the men. They are here by courtesy, not by right, and their anomalous position leads, of course, to many complications both in the university and outside.

Of these, probably the most serious is the practical question of the financial value of a degree as an aid to securing a position, especially in teaching. And as some 60 per cent. or more of these women engage in teaching on leaving the university, and as a university degree counts towards obtaining a position as a teacher quite as much in England as in America (perhaps even more), this is a very serious question indeed. Again, of course, either the university or any college might decide at any moment to discontinue some or all the privileges now accorded to women, who in that case would have no recourse. Though this is by no means likely to happen, the possibility emphasizes the extra-university position women now occupy. Their position, indeed, at present is not unlike that of the students of Radcliffe College towards Harvard University, with the advantages, if any, on the side of Radcliffe. The position taken up by the university is, of course, totally different in most respects from that of the American co-educational institution, and has certain advantages in excluding the problems raised by the class system, especially on its social side, which the latter has had to face, it must be owned not altogether with success.

Educationally, as has been said, women enjoy practically nearly all the privileges of men, and it is highly probable that if the universities frankly recognized the responsibilities of the position into which they have been drawn, and admitted women on exactly the same footing as men, it would greatly increase the number of women both at Oxford and at Cambridge. In Oxford there are at present some 180 women: Lady Margaret Hall (founded 1879) with 43 students; Somerville College (1879) with 68; St. Hugh's Hall, 25; and 44 Home Students, or those unattached to any college or hall. In Cambridge the numbers are considerably greater. There are some 120 students in Girton (1872), and 160 in Newnham (1875). There are no "unattached" women students in Cambridge, though a few students of Newnham live out of college. In Oxford the direction of this movement is in the hands of the Association for Promoting the Education of Women in Oxford, to which all women students belong. With the assistance of its staff of teachers, the Association organizes and arranges the work of the women as a whole. It is managed by a board of delegates representing the women's colleges and halls, the Hebdomadal Council of the University, the delegacies of Local Examinations and of University Extension, besides certain individuals elected by the Association. In Cambridge the two colleges act independently, and there is not now any central organization representing women students as a body.

For admission to university examinations, which means virtually to university privileges, candidates must pass entrance examinations which, as has been said, are the practical equivalents of those taken by men. At Oxford they must pass at the same examination in

I. Any two of the following languages: Greek, Latin, French *or* Italian, German.

II. Arithmetic.

III. Euclid, Books I. and II.; or Algebra.

These differ from the examinations set for men only in allowing a choice between ancient and modern languages. Certain persons are exempt from this examination, notably graduates of American universities who are members of the American Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, provided they become candidates for Honor certificates at the Second Examination. Having passed this entrance examination, or, in some cases before, women join a college or hall or enter as unattached or home students, and are eligible without further requirements for both Pass and Honor Examinations for B.A., B.Mus., and D.Mus. The B.A. examinations are in Theology, Classics, Mathematics, Ancient History and Philosophy, Modern History, Jurisprudence, Natural Science, Oriental Languages, or English Language and Literature. Women are also eligible for an Honor Examination in Modern Languages, which is open to them alone. Those women who take the full B.A. course (open since 1894) must comply with the same conditions as the men, viz., a minimum residence of three years of twenty-four weeks each, the passing of the same intermediate examinations after the first examination of the university, and the final examinations. No previous residence is required of others for admission to any of these examinations, nor need the course be strictly adhered to, though

*Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes. 1896.

as a matter of fact the same terms of residence are usually observed by all.

For this work, women at Oxford receive certificates from the university for each examination passed, but no final certificate as to residence, course, and standing such as is given at Cambridge, which, while not the equivalent of the degree given to men, corresponds to it in the assurance it conveys on these three points. The Council of the Oxford Association has, however, since the defeat of the proposition to grant degrees to women, just now decided to give its own certificates to those of its students who have taken the degree work with the requisite residence, and also certificates of another kind to such as have passed a specified course of examinations or resided a certain time. This, it is thought, will strengthen the hands of those who are working for the granting of degrees to women, by enabling them to point to a body of fully qualified students who are refused the degree to which they have a reasonable claim, and are obliged to be content with an inferior substitute. Similar certificates given by Girton College, Cambridge, and Somerville College, Oxford, confer rights of membership of the college. In addition to these various certificates, the names of those who pass the examinations are printed in the *University Gazette*, and the names of those taking honors also appear in the *University Calendar* in the same way as those of men similarly distinguished.

For admission to Girton College, Cambridge, candidates must satisfy the examiners as to their knowledge of

I. Principles and practice of Arithmetic.

II. English Grammar and Composition.

III. Physical and Political Geography.

IV. English History, a general knowledge and a special period.

V. Scripture History (the New Testament), unless objection is raised.

Further, they must pass in any two of the following subjects:

I. Latin. Latin-English and English-Latin translation, and Grammar.

II. Greek, as above.

III. French.

IV. German.

V. Elementary Mathematics.

For entrance to Newnham the examination consists of:

I. Mathematics—Arithmetic, Euclid, Algebra—three papers of two hours each, all of which the candidate must pass.

II. Classics—Latin, Greek—three papers, two in Latin, one in Greek, two of which must be passed.

III. Modern Languages—French, German, Italian—three papers, of which two must be passed.

The passing of certain extra-university examinations under certain conditions—the Cambridge Higher Local Examinations, Cambridge and Oxford Senior Local, Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board, and examinations of affiliated colleges—also admits students to either Oxford or Cambridge, corresponding in essentials with the examinations already noticed.

After passing these examinations, women at Cambridge must fulfil the same terms of residence and standing for admission to the Triposes or final Honor examinations as men. This involves three years' residence and the passing of certain intermediate examinations. These Triposes correspond roughly to the Oxford Schools examinations, and one learns from the Girton and Newnham reports that last year women attended lectures and did work in Mathematics, Classics, History, Law and History, Mediæval and Modern, Languages, Moral Sciences, Natural Sciences, Divinity, and Music. Though women are not admitted to Pass Examinations in Cambridge, they are permitted to reside for a certain time, as at Oxford, for purposes of study even though not candidates for certificates. The names of successful candidates, as at Oxford, are printed in the University lists; and they are given general certificates by the University which state their having satisfactorily fulfilled terms of residence and examination with their standing in the latter, which, in so much, is an advance over the Oxford system of separate certificates. With the exceptions that have been noted and a certain greater strictness of regulations at Cambridge, practically the only differences that exist between the two places are such as arise from differences in the educational aims and opportunities of the two universities.

At both Oxford and Cambridge many scholarships and exhibitions have been established by private benefaction. University prizes or scholarships are, of course, not open at either place. At Oxford all scholarships are entrance scholarships—*i. e.*, students in residence are not eligible. Some eight or ten scholarships, ranging in value from £25 to £50, are offered annually for competition, several exhibitions somewhat less remunerative, and several prizes ranging in value from £5 to £20. These are nearly all confined to members of certain colleges or halls. At Cambridge there are both entrance and resident scholarships. Newnham alone offers some twelve or more scholarships of £35 to £50 value, certain studentships of £75 and £80 value, exhibitions of £5 a term, and various prizes. Girton has rather more and comparatively more valuable scholarships, ranging from £30 to £88 in value, besides certain exhibitions and prizes. Various scholarships included in the above are open to members of either college, in addition to which certain loan funds for the benefit of poor students are available at both Oxford and Cambridge.

The net result, then, of the movement for the higher education of women in England is that in most universities, though not in the most powerful or most representative, women are recognized and received on much the same terms as men as candidates for most of the degrees offered by these universities. In Oxford and Cambridge, women have demonstrated their ability to do the same work as men in the same way and under the same conditions. Their claims in this respect have been recognized in so far as they are permitted to enjoy the same educational advantages and to attempt the same feats in the way of examinations as men. The difference lies in the limited official recognition given them by the two universities for the successful accomplishment of these tasks, from a reluctance based, so far as one can see, chiefly on a disinclination to grant a degree which would apparently lead to an M.A. and a share in university management and university affairs of every sort. This would mean little less than a revolution in the general condition of things, which at present more conservative members of the university seem most strongly disinclined to bring about, but which is regarded in by no means so unfavorable a light by many others.

WILBUR C. ABBOTT.

GONCOURT'S LAST VOLUME.

PARIS, June 18, 1896.

ANOTHER volume of the 'Journal des Goncourt' has appeared; is it the last? It would seem so, as it extends from 1892 to 1895. I have read this ninth volume with as much interest as its predecessors; it seems like a conversation between clever people, free to say to each other what they think and all they think. The conversation, to be sure, in this case becomes a mere monologue; and the *moi* (the hateful *moi*, to use Pascal's word) is too omnipotent, too startling. But, with all its defects, this Journal of Goncourt has the great merit of sincerity. You see in it as in a mirror the fluctuation of the thought of a man of imagination, who looks on the world's stage with some fastidiousness and with an independent mind. As he grows older, much older, Goncourt lives more and more in retirement—his horizon is contracting; but there remains much in this horizon which is of interest. The Daudets (I mean Alphonse Daudet and his wife) have now become the most intimate friends of Goncourt, and their name recurs constantly. On January 7, 1891, the Journalist writes:

"Great dinner at the Daudets, with Schoelcher, Lockroy, the two Simons, Coppée. Decidedly this Jules Simon has a charm, a grace, composed of a certain delicacy of thought with a great softness of voice. As for Coppée, he is quite extraordinary for boyishness; the whole evening it was a *feu d'artifice* of odd things. Yes, Coppée is preëminently the Parisian talker in this age of *blague*, with all the admirable *sous-entendre* of the conversation of his kind. Phrases begin, ending in an ironical smile, odd allusions to things or facts known in the select and rotten world of intellect. They told us that at Maupassant's, there is now only one book on the drawing-room table—the Almanach de Gotha! It is the beginning of the *folie des grandeurs*."

Goncourt was not mistaken in this, as Maupassant had soon after to be shut up again in an asylum; but shall we quite agree with him when he adds, two days afterwards: "Saturday, January 9.—Maupassant is a very remarkable *novelliere*, a most charming *conteur*; but a stylist, a great writer—'No, no!'" On February 2, Goncourt writes: "Doctor M. told me yesterday that he had often seen Musset take his absinthe at the Café de la Régence; after which a waiter gave him his arm and took him, supporting him all the way, to the fiacre which was waiting for him."

The Goncourts were in their youth the intimate friends of Gavarni, and Goncourt is just now the president of a committee formed for the erection of a monument to the great humorous designer who flourished under the July Government. Gavarni's place has been taken in our time by Forain, and the comparison between Gavarni and Forain makes you feel distinctly the difference of the times. "Ah," says Goncourt justly, "the cruel legends of Forain! No, Gavarni in his legends has not so implacable a character, and his sayings were tempered by a philosophy at once good-natured and elevated. The work of Gavarni provokes a smile and does not chill the spine like the *comique macabre* of Forain." In the pages written on March 18, 1892, Goncourt, in a fit of melancholic dreaming, gives us many interesting details regarding his family.

"To-day, at this hour, when the day becomes insensibly the night, I am trying to find again the dear creatures who are no more. . . . By and by the image of my father, whom I lost when I was twelve years old, appears before me, . . . and, in the vague memory

of my eyes, I see on a long body a thin face, with a great nose, slender whiskers, lively and witty black eyes ('les pruneaux de M. de Goncourt,' as they were well called); the hair cut in military fashion, the head on which the seven sabre cuts which the young lieutenant received at the battle of Pordenone, had left straight lines. . . . I saw him with his military gait when, after having read the papers in that old reading-room which still exists in the Passage de l'Opéra, he walked for hours on the Boulevard des Italiens, from the Rue Drouot to the Rue Laffitte, in company with two or three gentlemen wearing the red ribbon of the Legion of Honor and the long Bonapartist redingote. . . ."

"I saw him again in the salon of the De Villedeuils, daughters of a minister of Louis XVI., old cousins of my mother—that cold and immense salon, with its white woodwork, its scanty furniture covered with linen, where always, on the back of a chair, was forgotten the reticule of one of the sisters; with the upright flower-stand bearing a few poor faded flowers, and the cabinets which contained Legitimist works of art in line—I saw him in this salon, which might have been the salon of the Duchesse d'Angoulême, against the chimney-piece, his devilish black eye full of irony.

"I saw him again in the Haute Marne, at Brevannes, where I used to spend the summer in my youth, in the sunny mornings of July and August; walking with a long step, which I could hardly follow, and taking me to drink at a spring in the midst of a flowery meadow, which gave one the wholesome and refreshing sensation of a water which he compared to the *acqua felice* at Rome. . . ."

I must cut short this citation. I pass over the pictures which Goncourt gives of his mother at different times; I mention them only to say that these descriptions have a strange sensation of reality mixed with a sort of dreamy and poetical feeling. They have a minuteness which appears almost exaggerated, but the result is sometimes very powerful. Goncourt has pushed almost *ad absurdum* the descriptive mania; he gives us, for instance, a description of his *Grenier* (the name he bestows on the rooms where he keeps his collections), and of the works of art of all sorts which he keeps in it; in this curious catalogue, you will find elaborate accounts of Japanese drawings, bronzes, vases, which are really astonishing, and are at the same time almost untranslatable. This curious inventory will serve when the Grenier becomes a museum (it is said that Goncourt intends to leave all his works of art to the public, in some way or other). The two Goncourts, when they were young, lived much in the ateliers among artists; they painted a little themselves, they formed their taste in the conversations of Bohemia; and they amused themselves by collecting drawings of the French masters of the eighteenth century, at a time when people thought not much of them, and when there were shops where the remains of their ateliers could still be found, mixed up with a lot of rubbish. The Goncourts then became possessed, at very little cost, of some beautiful drawings, engravings, and eaux fortes. They discovered some Fragonards, some Watteaus, etc.; they collected the drawings of Gavarni and others. When Goncourt lost his brother, he devoted himself chiefly to Japanese art, and he knows more than anybody in France about Hokusai and the other Japanese masters.

Goncourt's style becomes particularly picturesque when he speaks of Japanese art; here is a specimen:

"A drawing by Hokusai: a very fine surimono, representing, on Japan's New Year's Day, a longish little woman, bearing under her arms a casket containing a present, in a meditative walk, clad in a gown of delicate colors as if they were diluted in a bath; a surimono framed in a stuff in which shine, on a golden ground, small white flowers, coming out of turquoise leaves. A line of poetry on the top: 'The spring air, which has passed over the flowers of the prune tree, perfumes her hair, which resembles willow leaflets.'"

He delights in these Oriental stuffs, and I imagine him spending hours before a theatrical decoration, a great piece of red stuff, entirely covered with broad leaves of nenuphar; in this red and gold shines the white of a chrysanthemum and the bluish tint of a branch of glycinium.

Goncourt considers, however, the great curiosity of the Grenier the collection of portraits of his literary friends, of the visitors to the Grenier, painted or drawn each in one of their books, the work which he himself prefers, and always on choice paper, and with a manuscript page of the author's. The list of these books is a rather singular one; it contains many names whose reputation, very limited in France, is not likely ever to cross the Atlantic. Of the better known I will cite Alphonse Daudet, painted in oil by Carrère in a copy of 'Sapho'; Zola, painted in oil by Raffaëlli, in a copy of 'L'Assommoir,' a Zola somewhat materialized; Théodore de Banville, painted in oil by Rochegrosse, in a copy of 'Mes Souvenirs,' a portrait having a screaming resemblance; Coppée, painted in oil by Raphaël Collin, in a copy of 'Toute ma Jeunesse,' an elegiac portrait, in which you see nothing, in the physiognomy, of the laughing gayety of the talker; Huysmans, painted by Raffaëlli, in a copy of 'À Rebours.' Shall I complete the list? Octave Mirbeau, Rosny, Paul Margueritte, Rodenbach, Gustave Geffroy, Henrique, Descaves, Hervieu, Hermant, Ajalbert, Frantz Jourdain, Rod, Jean Lorrain, Gustave Toudouze, Burty, Claudius Popelin, Robert de Montesquiou, Henri de Régnier; these two last are poets of a new school. I have looked in the Journal for details as to many of these writers, whose names are almost unknown, but have found very few. Goncourt, who spent his youth in Bohemia, the Bohemia of Henri Mürger, now divides his time between the Princesse Mathilde, with whom he dines regularly every week, and who has a salon, and a new sort of Bohemia, very different from the old one, composed of all the aspirants to celebrity. He has the honor of being counted among the friends of the niece of the great Napoleon; he does not refuse to associate with the most advanced Republicans and Socialists, but he is never tired of alluding to his Legitimist family and relations. He is very eclectic in the choice of his acquaintances, but he never forgets himself, and he feels himself much, to use a favorite expression of Saint-Simon's.

On the whole, his Journal will be chiefly consulted for its detailed documents on the literary period which covers the end of the nineteenth century. It teems with small anecdotes and sayings which throw light on many writers and many artists. People will not care for all the endless details which Goncourt gives concerning the representations of his plays, of his difficulties with the managers of theatres, with the critics; he is morbidly sensitive on this subject, and can write page after page on it. It would have been better if he had left out a number of such pages, as well as certain anecdotes which are improper and disgustingly indecent. I can imagine an edition of the Journal in which the present nine volumes would be reduced to three or four. In this condensed state, I believe that it would gain much in value and have a more lasting interest.

Correspondence.

IN STRICTEST CONFIDENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One peculiarity of the Republican nominee for President has been noticed, so far as I am aware, in only one paper. The *Advance*, "published weekly in the interest of Congregationalism," in a leading article in its issue of June 25, informs its readers that the neighbors of Major McKinley "remark with much satisfaction that he blacks his own boots, shaves himself, hoes in his garden, and talks to them over the fence." Does not this picture of the Major blacking his own boots and talking to them over the fence deserve wide circulation? What he talks to his boots about is, most unfortunately, not disclosed. Does he confide to them what he has withheld from anxious inquirers—his views on the silver question—or does he educate them in the doctrine that the foreigner pays the tax? Would that the *Advance* had not left us so unsatisfied.—Respectfully,

Rochester Ford.

The Owls, Tucson, Arizona, June 30, 1896.

CAIVANO'S GUATEMALA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On p. 176 of the last volume of the *Nation* you printed a letter, purporting to be written by the Vice-Consul of Guatemala in New York, who implied that a book on Guatemala by Sig. Tommaso Caivano contained calumnies on that country inspired by a spirit of vindictiveness. The Vice-Consul alleged that Sig. Caivano appealed to the Guatemalan Consul, in June, 1895, for money wherewith to publish his book, and that, being refused, he inserted in it falsehoods in regard to the Government of Guatemala and the Barrios dynasty. Being a friend of Sig. Caivano, I forwarded to him the letter in question, but I have only now received a reply, because early in the winter he was in Venezuela, and subsequently he was detained by serious illness for more than a month at Teneriffe. Writing from No. 22 Via Saluzzo, Cuneo, Italy, June 17, 1896, he says (I translate from the Italian):

"Concerning the article published by the Guatemalan Consul, it shows itself to be a mere calumny of the Guatemala variety—which it really is, for, as you know, my book was already printed in June, 1895, so that I could not at that time have asked for money to write in one way or another a book already printed, and much less to write in it lies and falsehoods through spite and vindictiveness at being refused. The Consul of Guatemala who signs the aforesaid calumniating article is wholly unknown to me. Probably he was aware of my presence in New York in June, 1895, either through the hotel where I put up, or from one of the many Central Americans who were at that hotel, or from the New York *Progresso Italiano*, which announced my arrival there with a long article of welcome. In view of this, I have determined to bring suit in the New York courts against the said Consul for calumny and defamation."

I may add that at the time you printed the letter in question I could not credit its allegations: first, because I had read a copy of Sig. Caivano's book in print before he or it reached New York last year; secondly, because I knew Sig. Caivano to be a gentleman of independent fortune, who would not, conceivably, ask a subsidy from the representative of the

very government whose corruption his book was written to expose.

WILLIAM R. THAYER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., July 8, 1896.

THE HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A distinguished Boston clergyman, in speaking before a large number of readers of the *Nation* at the Harvard commencement dinner the other day, had somehow conceived the idea that the number of students of theology at Harvard is decreasing, and, by way of spreading this notion further, took as his text for a thoughtful and admirable speech the fact that this year ten candidates—a distressingly small number, he assumed—received the degree of Bachelor of Divinity. Any inquiry on the reverend doctor's part, or a glance at the Quinquennial Catalogue, would have brought him the information that ten is not the smallest but the *largest* number of degrees of Bachelor of Divinity that Harvard has ever conferred. Since that degree was established in 1869, the largest number hitherto given in any one year was seven, in 1891. Some of the earlier years of the Divinity School (for example, 1859) seem, indeed, to show thirteen and even fourteen alumni, but the lists of so-called "alumni of the Divinity School" which the catalogue gives down to 1874 are composed in such a way as to make any comparison with the lists of recipients of degrees since that time wholly misleading; in fact, similar lists if made nowadays would unquestionably be longer than the old ones. The number ten is, further, by no means contemptible when compared with the classes graduated this year from most of the denominational seminaries in New England.

It may be worth while to add that of the ten graduates of this year, one is a Baptist, three are Orthodox Congregationalists, two Methodists, one a Presbyterian, three Unitarians, and that all are looking forward to service in their own denominations. Many of the men, including representatives of all the non-Unitarian communions, have regular denominational work already arranged for.

It is perhaps not generally known that a large number of the courses primarily intended for Divinity students are now, through Radcliffe College, accessible to women.

Yours very truly,

JAMES HARDY ROPES.

CAMBRIDGE, June 29, 1896.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. announce 'Yekl, a Tale of the New York Ghetto,' by A. Cahan; 'The Sentimental Sex,' by Gertrude Warden; 'A Humble Enterprise,' by Ada Cambridge; 'Dr. Nikola,' by Guy Boothby; 'An Outcast of the Island,' by Joseph Conrad; and 'The Monetary and Banking Problem,' by Logan G. McPherson.

D. Van Nostrand Co. will publish next month 'Roentgen Rays, and Phenomena of the Anode and Cathode,' by Edward P. Thompson, M.E., E.E.

Henry Holt & Co. will issue immediately 'International Bimetallism,' by Francis A. Walker, President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The Macmillan Co. have nearly ready 'The Crowd: A Study of the Popular Mind,' by Gustave Le Bon; a translation, by Dr. Charles R. Eastman, of Von Zittel's 'Palæontology'; and 'Rheumatism: Its Nature, its Pathology, and its Successful Treatment,' by T. J. Maclagan, M.D.

The forty-seventh volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) makes a good advance into the letter R, and is not devoid of great names—Raleigh's for one, and Pym's for another. Pym is admirably delineated by Prof. S. R. Gardiner. The architectural Pugins, the eminent composer Purcell, Pusey the divine and Quin the actor, Mrs. Radcliffe, Sir H. Rawlinson, the Marquis of Dalhousie, Charles Reade, are other if lesser lights; and one is glad to have particulars also concerning that much esteemed teacher and writer on education, Robert Herbert Quick, and Turgeneff's translator, William R. Ralston, whose real name, it appears, was Shedden. Even there is something to be learned from the initial sketch of James Puckle, inventor of a mitrailleuse in 1720. Raleigh of course belongs to the New World as well as to the Old, and so, by a different title, do Mayne Reid and Henry Reeve, the translator of Tocqueville's 'Democracy in America.' Most interesting we have found the sketch of James Ralph, Franklin's friend and beneficiary till the latter intruded upon his amours; afterwards a respectable historian and a precursor of Walter Besant and the Authors' Society.

Each new issue of 'Burdett's Hospitals and Charities: The Year-book of Philanthropy' would afford a text for much discourse, owing to the annual revision and the absolute freshness of the fore-matter. Of that for 1896 (London: The Scientific Press; New York: Scribners; Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) we can only say that it maintains the position of this publication at the head of works of its kind, thanks to the enormous diligence of its editor. For the first time it gives comparative tables of the cost of patients in leading institutions, by way of meeting charges of misapplication and waste of funds—a very useful check. Mr. Burdett still complains of the diversity of hospital accounts in this country, and the general difficulty of obtaining official information. He is particularly severe on Chicago for its dereliction in this latter respect. The statistics of the volume are brought down to December 31, 1894.

To the various academic song-books previously issued by them, the Ditson Company have added a 'Columbia College Song-Book,' including the latest songs and glees, making a volume of 496 pages. Another collection, of wider scope, is the 'Academy Song-Book,' published by Ginn & Co. It begins with an introduction to the study of music, and includes "patriotic and national songs," "school and college songs," "familiar songs," and "songs of devotion."

From C. A. Ellis we have a volume of 876 pages, comprising the analytical programmes of the twenty-four concerts given in Boston during the last season by the Boston Symphony Orchestra. These volumes are well worth preserving, as the analyses are from the pen of Mr. W. F. Apthorp, who was called upon to comment on 105 pieces by forty-six composers, and nearly always has something of interest to say. A special feature of these programmes is the entr'actes, in which the editor writes about various epochs and incidents in musical history, or indulges in reminiscences of Boston musicians. If any fault can be found with Mr. Apthorp's analyses, it is that he sometimes indulges too much in what a London critic has called "parsing" a symphony. Such parsing may, however, benefit students, and in any case it is less out of place in a programme than it would be in a newspaper. It is interesting to note that Wagner leads even in the concert hall and under a leader who is not avowedly a Wagnerite. He had twelve performances, Beethoven coming next with ten.

A useful pamphlet for singers and teachers of singing is W. Bottermund's 'Die Singstimme und ihre krankhaften Störungen' (Leipsig: Vogel). The author is a specialist for diseases of the throat, nose, and ear, and begins with the anatomy of the vocal organs considered as a musical instrument or organ blown by the lungs as a bellows. He then discusses the development of the voice and the manner in which it is affected by physiological peculiarities and pathological conditions, defective teeth, malformations of the tongue, stoppage of the nose, nervous disorders, indigestion, etc., and the changes produced by age.

One of the cleverest and most readable of recent literary histories is Dr. Karl Borinski's 'Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur seit dem Ausgang des Mittelalters' (Stuttgart: Union Deutsche Verlagsgesellschaft), covering the period from the birth of Luther in 1483 to the death of Goethe in 1832. It is not a dry compendium of facts and dates, but the work of a scholar who has thoroughly mastered the subject, and has a clear perception of the manifold intellectual forces which combine to produce a national literature. The book is exceedingly suggestive, and treats nearly every topic it touches from some new and striking point of view, so that the object, as Matthew Arnold expresses it, "is made to flash upon the eye of the mind." Remarks on Protestant hymnology and the German choral, the polemics, satire, and humor of the period of the Reformation, the popular literature of middle-class life in the sixteenth century, the influence of the revival of letters and the epoch of the Renaissance, are followed by an admirable survey of the evolution of German literature from Haller and Gottsched to Schiller and Goethe. As a specimen of lucid and compact exposition the chapter on Lessing can hardly be surpassed. The inherent value of the volume is enhanced by an excellent index.

That somewhat eccentric personage, Joséphin Péladan, who calls himself Sar Péladan, appeals from Philip drunk to Philip sober against the decree that his "Prince de Byzance" (Paris: Chamuel), a Romanesque drama in five acts, is not suitable for public performance. Both Porel of the Odéon and Jules Claretie of the Comédie-Française refused the play, politely but firmly, and the perusal of the piece, by one not a "Kabbaliste," justifies the action of these worldly-wise directors. There are fine passages, unquestionably, in this Wagnerian drama, and some striking situations, but it is full of mysticism of a very vague sort, of mysterious allusions and incomprehensible people, so that even in reading it one wonders what they really are, what they want, and what the whole business is about. If performed, the play would probably prove generally unintelligible and therefore very wearisome.

A recent issue in the Johns Hopkins University Studies, 'Slavery and Servitude in the Colony of North Carolina,' is notable as being the product of the professor of history in Trinity College in that State, Dr. John Spencer Bassett. It may be profitably read in connection with Dr. Weeks's 'Southern Quakers and Slavery,' lately reviewed by us, and in con-

nection with 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' by those who still find that fiction stranger than truth. Dr. Bassett's exposition is candid and not devoid of feeling for the victims of the "peculiar institution," though his pity and censure are somewhat oddly expressed and distributed. Of the punishment of negroes and Indians, "bond or free," for false testimony—viz., cutting off both ears after they had been successively nailed to the pillory, with the addition of thirty-nine lashes—he says it was, "it must be confessed, vigorous enough to reach the conscience even of a pagan." He praises the Quakers for finally reaching a unanimous decision as to slaveholding in the denomination without passion, in contrast with Congressional debate on the subject—as if slavery affected the North only on the side of its philanthropy.

The article of most general interest in the *Geographical Journal* for June is on the Shan country in Eastern Burma, by Col. R G. Woodthorpe. Of a somewhat desultory character, it mingles descriptions of physical features and resources with entertaining sketches of the people and their customs. Among these was a ceremony witnessed at the burial of a chief. The coffin containing the body was placed upon a heavy wooden sleigh, to each end of which were attached two long bamboo ropes. To these about two hundred men and boys, women and girls, harnessed themselves, and, at a given signal, began a regular tug-of-war. For two or three hours till sunset the corpse was dragged up and down hill amid much merriment, and then was put in a grave. No explanation could be given of the signification of the ceremony, but it naturally suggests the struggle of the powers of good and evil for the dead man's soul. Extraordinary was the dexterity of the boatmen on Lake Inle. "The rower holds the paddle lightly in one hand to guide it, and, balancing himself on one leg, he works the paddle with the other by hooking the foot round the upper portion of the blade." In his unoccupied hand he carries a spear with which he transfixes a passing fish. The article concludes with an earnest appeal for the careful study of the language and customs of the various wild tribes of this region, before their isolation shall have ceased, and contact with the world shall have modified their languages and assimilated their customs to those of the Shans and Chinese. In a discussion upon Mr. Marr's paper on the waterways of the English Lake district, at the time of its reading before the Royal Geographical Society, we remark with much satisfaction several references to the "inestimable service" rendered to scientific geography by Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard University.

Prof. Davis begins, by the way, in the June issue of the *National Geographic Magazine* a paper on the Seine, the Meuse, and the Moselle, of which our readers have had a foretaste in these columns during his study of those valleys. The discussion is beautifully illustrated by maps from the best French and German sources, and may be recommended for wide reading.

A noteworthy contribution to scientific political geography is to be found in Prof. F. Ratzel's account of the laws governing the territorial growth of states, in the fifth part of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. He enumerates seven, the first of which is culture. There is also an interesting map, with explanatory tables, showing the progress made in the provinces of West Prussia and Posen by the Colonization Commission.

Dr. Quidde, whose brochure on 'Caligula' created considerable sensation in Germany some two years ago, has now been sentenced to three months' imprisonment for leze-majesty. His offence consisted in the assertion that William I. was a man of very ordinary capacity, and that to call him William the Great is a piece of political shamelessness (*politische Unverschämtheit*). This remark was regarded as an insult to William II., who has endeavored to confer upon his grandfather the aforesaid title, and thus led to Dr. Quidde's condemnation. The prosecuting attorney proposed six months' imprisonment, which would have involved penal labor and a convict's dress; but the court passed a sentence of three months' imprisonment, which is the longest term possible without subjecting the condemned to these harder and more degrading conditions. The Münich *Allgemeine Zeitung* published a brief account of the trial merely as an item of news, and, for the information of its readers, quoted the words which Dr. Quidde had used and upon which the accusation against him was based. Thereupon the editor of that paper was in turn indicted for leze-majesty. This attempt, however, excited such general indignation that the prosecution was finally withdrawn, and the whole arbitrary and utterly absurd affair ended simply in a solemn warning against future journalistic indiscretions of this kind.

Prof. J. Minor, the well-known biographer of Schiller, delivered last winter before the Grillparzer Gesellschaft at Vienna an address on 'Wahrheit und Lüge auf dem Theater und in der Literatur,' which he now publishes in Prof. Sauer's *Euphorion* (vol. iii., parts 3, 4). The moral estimation of truthfulness in modern times, as contrasted with that of antiquity (*e. g.*, Ulysses) and of the middle ages (*e. g.*, Tristan), is referred to by way of introduction, and not far from fifty works of the imagination dealing with the moral aspect of lying are touched upon in the essay. All more recent character-comedies of the class here considered proceed, directly or indirectly, from Alarcón's 'La Verdad Sospechosa' (1634), the "famous three lies" of which recur, for instance, in Corneille's 'Le Menteur,' in Steele's 'The Lying Lover' and Foote's 'The Liar,' and in Goldoni's 'Il Bugiardo.' Of philosophers, Kant and Schopenhauer, and Paul Heyse and Ibsen among contemporary dramatists and novelists, have more especially arrested the writer's attention. The treatise is, of course, far from exhaustive, and Prof. Minor generously places his notes (thirty-six closely printed 8vo pages) at the disposal of future investigators of this subject, which may well be developed into an important chapter of the moral history of the race.

Two articles in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for June testify to the earnestness of the efforts now making in France to turn the interest of foreign scholars and students to the French universities. The first article treats of the "Meeting Franco-Écossais" recently held at the Sorbonne; the second, which deserves especial attention, is by Mr. William Henry Schofield, a graduate of Harvard, now at Paris, who writes on "Les Universités de France et d'Amérique." This frank, not to say bold, discussion by an American, in a leading French periodical, of the relative merits of the universities of the two countries cannot fail to interest thousands of American students if it chances to fall into their hands. That the facts should plainly justify the writer in urging Frenchmen to pursue their advanced studies in English at Harvard, or at some other great university in the United States, may well awaken a sense of satisfaction in readers who remember that, twenty years ago, such a proposition would have been preposterous. The French authorities upon whom devolves the shaping and development of their university system, can do no better than heed some of the suggestions of their plain-spoken but sympathetic counsellor *d'outre-mer;* for, under present conditions, the tide of American students in Europe is not likely to turn from Germany to France.

The Boston Public Library has issued, in a handsomely printed pamphlet of thirty-two pages, the first four numbers of its new Monthly Bulletin, containing a classified list of additions to the Library from January to April, inclusive, together with a supplemental list of books on the Transvaal and the Boers. "The next number will contain titles from April 15 to June 15. After that each issue will contain titles to the 15th of the month preceding."

We learn from *Science* that Helen Kellar, the young girl who, though totally blind and deaf from an early age, has already shown signs of very remarkable intellectual powers, is to be sent to the Gilman training-school in Cambridge next autumn, with a view to preparation for Radcliffe College. It is only a few years ago that the experiment of giving the higher education to the female brain, even under the most favorable circumstances, was regarded as a dangerous leap in the dark, and already it awakens little surprise that it should be expended upon a girl who is so terribly handicapped as is this poor child. So rapidly does the world now move.

—In the pleasing article, "A French Friend of Browning," by Th. Bentzon (Mme. Blanc), in the July number of *Scribner's Magazine*, the space that is not taken up by reminiscences of Browning himself, of Mrs. Browning, and of their child, is given to Joseph Milsand, the brilliant reviewer and interpreter to the French of the Brownings' work. Letters to Milsand from the poet and his wife, showing the strength of their attachment to him, are freely quoted, but of letters of Milsand's own writing there are none. It is perhaps not to be wondered at that he should have suffered here the usual fate of bodies placed too near a bright luminary, although the attractive glimpses of him obtained from this article and elsewhere furnish another proof that unto those to whom gifts and talents have been abundantly given, charming and talented friends are also usually added. In writing of "Some Portraits of J. M. W. Turner," Cosmo Monkhouse has had in one sense a somewhat thankless task. It has fallen to his share to have virtually to explain to the uninitiated reader that Turner was an ugly man, as unlike as possible to any preconceived notion of a great artist's appearance. There is but one of the portraits that gives a flattering impression of even the youthful looks of Turner, and this, though accepted by Mr. Ruskin, is of doubtful authenticity. Several of the drawings taken at a later stage of his life reveal a figure and features of grotesque homeliness. The spectacle of "mighty genius run to seed" is, however presented, a sad one, and though interest and curiosity may be gratified by this article, which departs scarcely at all from explanations of the likenesses, little pleasure is to be derived from it. In the article "A New Art," Mr. J. Carter Beard makes out, in text and illustrations, as strong a case as the evidence at hand will permit for

his subject, which is taxidermy. Prof. Brander Matthews presents, interwoven with comments on the "Poetry of Place-Names," the practical, if impracticable, suggestion that the name of New York city be changed to Manhattan.

—In an article on "English Elections" in the current *Harper's*, Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge makes short work of the Anglo-American newspaper writers and of the obscure handful of readers who fancy there may be lessons for ourselves in the plan on which the English carry out their campaigning and balloting. With scuffling and free fights, stoning and rioting, and mobbing of candidates still going on at the hustings, how can it be seriously supposed there is anything besides in the political system worth our while to dwell on? Mr. Lodge industriously made newspaper clippings last summer to show how these and other things of the sort can still be seen in England, and how, in spite of the corrupt-practices act, money is still spent there on voters at the rate of four shillings and a penny a head. He himself is sure of a large following for his advice not to weakly and nervously imitate other people in their reforms. For the great majority there is comfort in the thought that other people are no better than themselves, and these will no doubt rejoice to hear that "there is no perfection to be found in English election methods," and that human nature over there, as far as political corruption goes, is very much the same as here. President Charles F. Thwing of Western Reserve University writes in the same number of "Ohio." His enumeration, among other things, of the thirty and more colleges and the three universities which represent higher education in the State, is a reminder that these two words have, like coins, different values in different communities. In the name of the higher education there is, however, a movement fortunately on foot that no charter shall henceforth be granted to any institution "unless it is in the beginning properly endowed." W. E. Norris's neatly turned little story, "The Dowager's Companion," is a pleasant variation on the formlessness and pointlessness of the general run of magazine stories.

—The fact that Mr. E. J. Phelps's article in the *Atlantic* on "Arbitration and Our Relations with England" is in a measure composed of truisms, does not at all lessen its value for the public in the midst of which it is written. To argue with a Congressman, a political orator, or a certain class of newspaper writers that "it is well to understand that among nations, as among individuals, friendly relations are largely dependent upon good manners," would probably be a waste of breath; but there is always hope that through a body of intelligent readers such doctrine may be filtered down to the less intelligent classes. It is, moreover, a timely thought on Mr. Phelps's part to remind an enlightened and patriotic class of persons that it is not to be expected that arbitration can under any circumstances become a substitute for diplomacy, or relieve us from the necessity of reconstructing and improving our diplomatic machinery, on the basis of a divorce of foreign relations from the business of domestic politics, "which mean, not the adoption of policy, but the acquisition of office." Prof. George Burton Adams, in an article on "The United States and the Anglo-Saxon Future," points out the peculiar fitness of this country—as compared with Great Britain—both by geographical position and by methods of federal and territorial government, for leadership in an organization of the scattered branches of the Anglo-Saxon race which shall make its world-empire a certainty. Plausible and interesting reasons for the ultimate necessity of such a universal federation, if the race is to maintain its present position of supremacy, are found in the warnings, already dwelt on by other writers, of a coming commercial and industrial competition with Oriental races whose rivalry has never yet been felt. The increasing interest of Rossetti's letters, edited by Dr. Birkbeck Hill, will be a gratification to those who were disappointed in the earlier instalments. Mr. E. L. Godkin considers "The Real Problems of Democracy" in a review of Mr. Lecky's latest work.

—In the *Century* Mr. Bryce's "Impressions of South Africa" rise to their climax of interest in the third and concluding paper. The immigration of a mixed multitude into the Witwatersrand gold-fields, in the Transvaal Republic, has introduced fresh political complications into the involved relationship already existing between the peaceable and sluggish but sturdy Boers and the more progressive English settlers in this and other districts. But the social as well as political problems which grow out of the existence of a dominant white race side by side with a numerically larger but inferior population of blacks, outweigh all others presented by this singular colonial territory. Politically, the difficulties of the preponderance of a colored race equal in the eye of the law with the white have, in Cape Colony, so far been avoided by a combined property and educational qualification. In the two British colonies there is special legislation regarding the blacks, designed both to protect and to restrict them, while in the Dutch Republics, where no person of color is allowed to vote, the laws which control them are more stringent. The result most deplorable at present of the contact between the white and black races is the effect of the large supply of cheap labor upon the character of the former, who lose the habit of performing manual labor and acquire the habit of despising it. In the future, the more educated and capable the natives become, the more will their industrial competition press upon the whites, and the peace and prosperity of the country will, in Mr. Bryce's opinion, depend largely "upon the wisdom and temper with which the higher race treats the backward one and leads it onward and upward." The novelty of the number is an account, with drawings of Eskimos, of "An Arctic Studio," by Frank Wilbert Stokes.

—With all its sophistication, the idyll of Jean-Jacques and the Misses Galley and Graffenried in book four of the first part of the 'Confessions' will never cease to charm. One of Rousseau's countrymen contributes to the Berlin *Nation* for May 30 an account of his visit to the Grange at Thônes (or Toune, as Rousseau writes it phonetically after the vulgar pronunciation), where the happy day was spent which was marked by the episodes of the ford, the mount behind Miss Graffenried, and the cherry-gathering. Sir Henry Taylor tells, in his autobiography, of being invited to Tennyson's house to meet Garibaldi, and of all the celebrities being eclipsed for him at sight of a pretty girl in the company. Our Bernese writer explains on the same principle Rousseau's unusual neglect to dilate upon the scenery of the route from Annecy to the Grange, though it is sufficiently romantic, passing through a deep gorge with its mountain torrent the Fier, and its Morette cascade; and he essays the task himself, adding some interesting particulars about the landed estate, which is still owned by the Galley family. The building which Rousseau styled "château," and our writer a "schlossähnliche Bauerngut" or "Ferme," was gutted by fire some twenty years ago and has been completely renovated within, but the thick walls remain, and the stone lintel of the doorway bearing the Galley arms. The landscape is much as the picnickers might have viewed it if not absorbed in themselves. Tourists on the Continent could scarcely devise a pleasanter and less hackneyed excursion than to Savoy "in den Spuren J. J. Rousseau's," beginning with Mme. de Warens's well-preserved house at Chambéry.

—The quarterly July portion of the Oxford Dictionary (Macmillan) is Dr. Murray's, and ranges from Diffluent to Disburden, thus advancing us in the domain of the great prefix *dis*, which has emancipated itself from classical fetters and become "living," attaching itself freely to words irrespective of their origin, but no longer deforming itself by assimilation. A considerable number of familiar words in this section cannot be traced etymologically, and such are *dimple*, *dingle*, which dropped out of literary usage from the 18th to the 17th century, *dingy*, which first appears in 1786, and *dirk*, which first turns up as *dork*, to the confusion of much ingenuity expended on analogies depending on the present spelling, fathered by Johnson in 1755. This incident well illustrates the value of "an English Dictionary on historical principles." Another more palpable one is to be found in the quotations under *Diggers*, which compactly display the nature of this communistic sect of commons cultivators which flourished in the Puritan Revolution; or again in the series of fossil "enfants terribles," the *dinoceras* (Marsh, 1872), *dinornis* (Owen, 1843), *dinosaur* (Owen, 1841), and *dinothere* (Kaup, 1829). Bretonneau of Tours invented *diphthérite* in 1821, and in 1847 we were using the corresponding adjective *diphtheritic*; but in 1855 our Frenchman substituted *diphthérie* for the earlier form, and in 1857 the newcomer was already established in English. We remark that Dr. Murray does not give the countenance even of a cross-reference to the spellings dip-theria and dip-thong. History comes to the front again under the adjective *direct*, from which we quote as follows:

"*Direct tax:* one levied immediately upon the persons who are to bear the burden, as opposed to *indirect taxes* levied upon commodities, of which the price is thereby increased, so that the persons on whom the incidence ultimately falls pay indirectly a proportion of taxation included in the price of the article. . . . The chief direct taxes in Great Britain are the Income and Property Taxes; local and municipal rates are also examples of direct taxation."

We had noted much else for comment, but will close with remarking that *dilletant* was ventured attributively by Carlyle in 1851, and substantively by Hamerton in 1875; Dr. Murray places *dilletantism* before *dilletanteism*.

—The proper pronunciation of *g* in German has long been a matter of controversy. Directors of theatres have repeatedly endeavored to regulate it so as to make the usage of the stage uniform in this respect, but with only partial success. In 1887, instructions of this

kind were issued by the intendant-general of the Royal Theatre of Berlin, enforcing the views of Tieck and Devrient, who are no longer recognized as competent authorities on the subject, and who ignored, if they were not wholly ignorant of, the historical evolution of the language in this direction. Recently Dr. Grabow, a member of the school board in Bromberg, delivered a lecture on "Die Aussprache des G," a full report of which may be found in *Mittheilungen des Deutschen Sprachvereins*, just published at Berlin. In this discourse he maintains that *g* has a different pronunciation according to its place at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a word, and adduces linguistic, physiological, and statistical reasons in support of this statement. Thus, in *Gabe*, it is like *g* in English gave; in *hinweg* it has the sound of ck; in *Könige* that of *j* (English y), and in *Tag* that of *ch* in *ach*; in *Tage* it has a softer, and in *König* a sharper sound of *ch*. This applies to North and Middle Germany; in South Germany final *g*, he says, is pronounced *k*. We may add that the Bavarian, at least in Munich, simplifies the matter by not pronouncing it at all; in his tongue "König" is "Kini," and "neugierig" becomes "neugieri." As an example of difference of meaning corresponding to difference of pronunciation, Dr. Grabow states that in North and Middle Germany "lang' geblieben" refers to duration of time, and "lang (langk) geblieben" refers to bodily dimension; but this distinction is untenable as a general rule. Where this phrase refers to time, the adverb should be used: "Er ist lange geblieben" (he remained a long time). In the phrase, "Die Zeit wird ihm lang" (langk, according to our author), the reference is also to time, but the adjective is used. It is impossible to lay down any fixed and universal laws on this subject. Dr. Grabow's discourse is commended to the consideration of teachers of German.

SUMNER'S HISTORY OF BANKING.

A History of Banking in All the Leading Nations. Vol. I. A History of Banking in the United States. By William Graham Sumner. New York: The *Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin*. 1896.

THE undertaking here assumed by the *Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin* is rare if not unparalleled in the range of monetary science, involving an enormous amount of labor by first-class talent and training, and large pecuniary expense, in order to illuminate the very darkest part of the "dismal science." Few persons, however high their attainments in general cultivation, pretend to know anything about money in its scientific aspects. Very few, we are obliged to add, are willing to make the effort to know. The country, having got into a "trough of the sea" on the currency question, cannot get itself out, because only a small number of citizens understand the question, and these are left to do battle with the hosts of ignorance and prejudice who know much less than nothing, but think they know it all. But if the hosts of ignorance and prejudice carry the day now, it will not be for want of supplies and ammunition on the other side, for here we have so ample a presentation of both fact and theory touching banks and money that anybody can equip himself for the battle who has a mind to.

It may console us, although it cannot help us, to know that the fight for sound money in this country has been continuous for nearly three centuries. It began with the first settlement at Jamestown, Va., and has been going on with variations ever since; for, says Prof. Sumner, "all the doctrines of currency have to be learned over again apparently every ten or fifteen years, if, indeed, they are ever learned at all. From the landing of the first settlers at Massachusetts Bay until to-day the country has never enjoyed ten years of peace, rest, and security with an established and satisfactory system of currency" (p. 415). Sometimes the fight has been over "bills of credit"; at other times over commodity currency, such as tobacco and raccoon skins; again, over land banknotes, State banknotes, United States banknotes, railroad and canal scrip, private shinplasters, counterfeits, Treasury notes of various kinds, cheap money, wild-cat money, bogus money, silver money, etc., etc.

"A community forced to do its business in that way [the ante-bellum way] had no money. It was deprived of the advantages of money. We should expect that a free, self-governing, and, at times, obstreperous people would have refused and rejected these notes with scorn and have made their circulation impossible, but the American people did not. They treated the system with toleration and respect. A parallel to the state of things which existed, even in New England, will be sought in vain in the history of currency" (p. 455)—

unless (we venture to add), its parallel be looked for in the same country before or during the Revolutionary war.

The question how a history of banking in the United States should be written—*i. e.*, on what plan the facts should be presented after they are collected—is one not easy to answer. Probably nobody would be able to answer it to his own satisfaction until he had done the work once. The difficulties in the way of laying out a plan are more formidable here than in a country like England, where banking capital has mostly been concentrated at one place, and where accordingly ideas relative to banking have had a continuous and traceable development. In the United States before the civil war, banking was sporadic and epidemic. It "broke out" at different places in different forms and ran a certain course. It grew better or worse—generally worse—but presented the widest diversity of ideas and practice. It left a perfect jungle for the historian to make his way through. Prof. Sumner has collected the facts as they have never been collected before. To say that his history of banking in the United States is much superior to any other would not be saying much, since there is no other except the one which the late John Jay Knox left in an unfinished state, and which has been published only in separate numbers in a magazine. We may add, therefore, our opinion that this field will not need to be explored again in a very long time, except for the purpose of working over the wealth of material here displayed.

The method adopted by the author has been composite. Periods of about twenty years have been taken in which the facts have been arranged under each State separately—the two Banks of the United States falling within two of these periods and being carried along simultaneously. Thus the reader, after learning what was done in Massachusetts in a given period, learns what was done in each of the other States in the same period. Then he comes back to Massachusetts for the next period and then to each of the other States for the corresponding period. This arrangement has its advantages in that it gives us a continuous social history of the United States in so far as relates to the money question—and the reader will be surprised to find how large a part of our social history is embraced in that question. Yet it has one marked disadvantage, that the reader's attention is frequently interrupted, and he becomes overburdened with facts which he cannot assimilate unless he is an expert in monetary science.

In his preface Prof. Sumner says that his treatment "is not evolutional, for scarcely any genetic development can be traced." We think that the rule holds good in banking, as in other affairs of this world, that the things which exist to-day are what they are because something else existed yesterday, and that the proof of it is to be found in abundance in the book under review. On page 464 we are told that "the national banking system is a product of the history of American banking," and that "every important point in it stands out as the result of some long and important line of experience during the previous seventy or eighty years." Here, at all events, the course of banking was evolutional, although the opportunity for bringing in the new system was accidental. The law of genetic development had been at work all the time, and, when the opposing force of particularism was shot away, took possession of the entire field. Still, it is easier to say how such a history should be written than it is to write it, and it is probable that any one attempting it for the first time would do it as Prof. Sumner has done it, as a condition of doing it at all within any reasonable time.

Some idea of the amount of labor embodied in this book may be formed from the fact that the session laws of all the State legislatures, south and west of Maryland, have been examined, and not only the features of all the general banking laws in the Union, but the distinctive features of all separate bank charters, noted. This unique presentation was brought within the compass of one man's powers by the superb collection of session laws in the library of the Bar Association of New York, which was placed at the service of the author. In addition to this compilation all court decisions of any importance touching the banking laws are referred to and quoted so far as needful. Documentary matter other than the laws and decisions has been consulted so far as it was possible to obtain it without making the circuit of the several State libraries. All secondary authorities of importance, such as State histories, diaries, biographies, *Niles' Register*, the works of Gallatin, Gouge, Raguet, and Mathew Carey, debates in Congress, records of law suits, besides many newspaper files, have been brought under contribution.

Perhaps the most interesting part of the work is the account given of the liquidations following the bursting of the speculative bubbles of 1819 and 1837-'42, including the "relief" measures adopted to save those persons who had plunged into wild speculations, at the expense of those who had abstained. "The bubble having burst, the time had now come for 'relief.' Relief meant that some were left 'long' of goods on a market which had dropped. They wanted something to raise prices again long enough for them to unload on somebody else" (p. 120). The relief laws of Pennsylvania, Kentucky, and several other States were really revolutions under legislative forms. The fact that society survived them at all is perhaps the strongest available proof of the tenacity of our institutions.

Prof. Sumner's ideas of monetary and bank-

ing science in the abstract are introduced here and there as they serve to illustrate the particular facts he is dealing with. This is certainly the best way to fasten the truth in the reader's mind. Thus, coming to the suspension of specie payments in most of the States in 1814, it becomes convenient to exhibit the difference between money, cash, and negotiable paper. Money is that which constitutes payment itself—*i. e.*, metallic money; cash is anything which passes in all transactions without hesitation or dispute; negotiable paper is that which passes at some sort of discount, with more or less doubt and higgling. Such paper may be bank paper, or Government paper, or private paper; it may be a negotiable instrument at one time and cash at another time—the former when it is received with some distrust, the latter when it passes instantly and universally as money of account, even though depreciated in comparison with gold.

"In 1814 the notes of each bank were at a different rate of discount. Each town or county accepted some one kind as its local money of account. Others in the same place, and groups of them in other districts, were quoted with reference to that one, but the great character of the period was that the varieties were so great, and the badness of all was so extreme, that there was no money of account. The state of things is very difficult to understand and is almost incredible. It was the *differences* at the same time between the existing mediums of exchange which produced the result that there was no medium. Exchanges were made by barter of such paper as one had, for the goods which the other had" (p. 65).

One of the oddities of the time was that the Government received in payment for duties the banknotes of the port where the goods arrived. Consequently those cities whose notes were at the greatest discount had an advantage in foreign trade over others. New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore had an advantage ranging from 14 to 20 per cent. in the matter of duties over Boston, which paid specie.

Prof. Sumner condemns the ante-bellum system of State bank issues utterly. It is a misnomer to speak of it as a system. It was chaos, and there is no reason to suppose that it would be other than chaos if the federal tax on such notes were repealed, since the decision of what kind of notes should be issued would be left to more than forty different legislatures.

As to the national banking system, most people will agree that

"its first great feature was that it was national and federal – a thing which, in the days of misery under the local bank system, people had sighed for as an unattainable hope. It is a great point which must be put to the credit of the civil war, that it brought about what was otherwise a political impossibility. . . . It was a tremendous gain – one which people nowadays do not realize or appreciate, unless they know what the previous history has been, that currency banking, and with it to a large extent the whole system of banking, were brought under federal control" (p. 465).

Prof. Sumner is an adherent of the "currency principle" as distinguished from the "banking principle," *i. e.*, he believes that banknotes should be issued against deposited securities, and that the greater or less amount needed at particular times and seasons should be supplied by gold. This is the Bank of England system. It is also the national banking system. He acknowledges (p. 466) that such a system can never be elastic, but he does not consider elasticity of banknote issues desirable. The reason is that bankers would inflate and contract at their own pleasure. This is the coming question in the United States, and will be upon us as soon as the silver question is disposed of. There is already a sharp division of opinion among those who give their attention to the subject, both here and abroad. In the second volume of the present series, by Henry Dunning MacLeod, the contrary view is maintained. The gist of Prof. Sumner's doctrine is embraced in the following paragraph:

"This system of currency has put an end at once and for ever to the old banker's trick of expansion and contraction. The present generation knows of that trick hardly by tradition. It is now complained that the national banknote currency is not elastic. That is very true. The old local banknote currency had the highest conceivable elasticity, and, instead of varying with the requirements of the market, the banker was for ever operating on its elasticity by his arbitrary will, and imparting fluctuations to the market. In order to stop him from doing that, a stringent system has been made, which has taken away the elasticity altogether, but if there was no other currency than a national banknote currency, limited far within the requirement, and combined with a large component of specie, the specie margin would give all the elasticity which would be required."

Space does not permit a discussion of this question here, but we may point out that, in modern banking, inflation and contraction take place by means of book entries, otherwise called discounts and deposits, rather than by note issues, and that the national banking system offers no more obstacles to such fluctuations than the old methods did.

In two pages at the end of the book there is an impressive summing up of the present situation—the situation being merely one stage of the struggle which has been going on for nearly three centuries, in one form and another, to effect a national gain by means of cheap money. Although our quotations have already been copious, it would be an injustice to the reader to omit this one:

"This gain has been pursued, as alchemists pursued the philosopher's stone, by trial and failure. Whether there be any such gain or not, our attempts to win it have all failed, and they have cost us in each generation more than a purely specie currency would have cost if each generation had had to buy it anew. . . .

"At the moment of this writing, the turmoil and confusion, the conflict of opinions and projects, the clash of political schemes, in and around the currency, are as great and mischievous as they ever were. The banks have but a very subordinate share in it, and are not to blame for any part of it. Eight or nine hundred millions of paper rest on a specie reserve which was originally planned for three hundred and forty-six millions, and that upon a fallacious plan. The stability of this currency has been maintained for two years by arbitrary purchases of gold, involving a manipulation of the foreign exchanges. Such manipulation may be excusable under great stress of other dangers, but it is perilous to some of the greatest and most delicate interests of the country. Theoretical and practical financiers must agree that this manipulation is a subject of grave apprehension, all the more because it is beyond the power of any man to foresee or estimate the consequences in their remoter reactions and more extended complications. The operation only wins time. It is no remedy. When the respite expires, if no sound measures have been adopted, the problem is still there, greater and more oppressive than ever, and complicated with the consequences of arbitrary interference with one of the most important and most delicate parts of the financial system. In the meantime, the factions produced by various dogmas about the currency, by interests engaged in it, and by party intrigues to profit by it, have grown fierce and stubborn. They exhaust their strength in making a deadlock. We are in a financial crisis which is becoming chronic, and which will be solved by a great disaster, unless we can rally knowledge and statesmanship to deal with it."

ITALY AND FRANCE IN 1870.

Souvenirs Militaires, 1866-'70. Préliminaires de la guerre. Par le Général Lebrun. Paris. 1895.

General Lebrun attempts to prove that France would never have entered on the war with Prussia without the pledge of an offensive and defensive alliance given by Italy; the moral certainty of the same given by Austria. Italy gave no such pledge, though Victor Emanuel did promise to further such an alliance on one condition, the withdrawal of the French troops from the Papal territory—not a return to the Convention of September, 1864, which bound Italy neither to enter nor permit Garibaldi and the volunteers to enter the Papal States, and which had been violated on both sides by Garibaldi and his volunteers, who defeated the *papalini* at Monterotondo; by the French, who returned in 1867, defeated the Garibaldians at Mentana, and persisted in retaining their garrison in Rome, although Garibaldi was strictly guarded at Caprera and the Papal frontier lined with Italian troops. Capital has been made, and Gen. Lebrun attempts to make more, out of the legend that Victor Emanuel pursued a line of foreign policy unknown to and often contrary to that of his ministry. That monarch used to the uttermost the rights bestowed on him by the Constitution, but he never overstepped them. In accordance with Article V. he appointed and dismissed his ministers pretty often—generally wisely. In 1864 he dismissed the Minghetti-Visconti-Venosta ministry after the massacres in the streets of Turin, and appointed Lamarmora, Sella, and Lanza, who all disapproved of the Convention, to execute, much against their will, the terms thereof—*i. e.*, to transfer the capital to Florence and guard the Papal frontier.

After Mentana there was a coolness between the King and the French Emperor, whom, however, the royal family, the court, a portion of the *consorteria*, and certain army generals (Cialdini and Menabrea, for example) looked upon as the only safeguard of monarchical institutions in the new kingdom. When Napoleon III., apprehensive of Prussia's growing importance, first turned his thoughts towards war, he set himself to pave the way for an alliance with Italy and with Austria, especially after he was assured that Bismarck made no secret of his intention of uniting Germany under Prussian leadership, counted confidently on Russia's neutrality, and had the armies of North Germany in a state of readiness for contingencies up to the end of 1871. The *pourparlers* between the King and the Emperor by means of his special and secret agents were not even communicated to his ministers until June, 1869. Hence the assertions of Gen. Lebrun are simply astounding. He affirms that the Emperor, to whom he had objected the absence of allies, answered, "Oh! we may consider the Italian alliance as certain, that of Austria as morally if not actively assured" (p. 59), and on May 19, 1870, the Emperor, after examining the war plan of the Archduke Albert, said that in this plan "the forces of France and Austria alone need not be counted on, but should include those of Italy—not her entire army, but in any case a contingent of 100,000 men, which King Victor Emanuel had promised to send to join the armies of the two great powers if they were allied with a view to

common action in resisting the ambitious projects of Prussia." This statement is not only untrue, but improbable, as Italy had nothing to fear from Prussia's ambition, whereas she had everything to hope from Prussia anent the Roman question. In June, 1869, the King informed his ministers that in a possible war between France and Prussia, he deemed it advantageous for Italy to ally herself with France, then in treaty for an Austrian alliance, and he requested them to draw up propositions. The announcement was received "with painful surprise," but the ministers, in the presence of the Roman question, which threatened to overwhelm them, and well knowing that, if they refused even to negotiate, the King would summon a "war ministry," drew up the following proposition:

"Should Italy consent to enter into a defensive alliance with France and Austria, which might, on occasion, be transformed into an offensive one, will the French Emperor consent to withdraw his troops from Rome, recognize the principle of non-intervention, and give a pledge that the alliance shall not tend to destroy the results of the war of 1866 or the unity of the German nation?"

The answer came promptly from the Marquis de La Valette, who, in the name of the Emperor, declared that the Italian proposals could not be accepted *ni pour la forme, ni pour le fond*, and all negotiations were suspended; Austria also retiring.

The Hohenzollern candidature revived the matter. On July 18, 1870, came a letter from the Emperor to the King, renewing the demand for an alliance. Almost at the same time Count Brassier de Saint Simon, Prussian Minister at Rome, formally demanded in the name of his Government, information as to the line of conduct that Italy intended to pursue. The King, Menebrea, Gen. Cialdini, and many others were as sure of French victory in the case of war as of their own existence; were eager to share in the glory and the gain; counted on French gratitude in the form of the restitution of Nice, the cession of the Tyrol, the solution of the Roman problem; deprecated the ire of victorious France towards the "ungrateful neutrals" who had forgotten Magenta and Solferino. Sella, on the contrary, believed that France was rushing into a war unprepared and undisciplined. Moreover, he looked upon it as a crime to take sides with either the ally of 1859 or the ally of 1866; Italy's duty was to remain neutral; it was also her necessity, for she had none of the sinews of war, neither funds nor soldiers. He knew, too, better than the King or the generals, what was the feeling in the country. Lanza was of Sella's opinion. Visconti-Venosta, one of the makers of the Convention, still clung to the hope that a return to its strict observance would facilitate matters and pave the way for Italy to help France in her difficulties, should help be needed. On the evening of the King's return, the Cabinet decided to call out two classes of the conscripts subject to military service, thus adding 70,000 soldiers to the army. After the Emperor's letter urging an accord with Austria and speedy action, the Italian Government informed the Austrian that "they were ready to come to an agreement should a fresh situation be created by circumstances beyond their control; but that, while preserving a benevolent attitude towards France, they desired that the conflict might be limited, and could assuredly assume no responsibility in extending it." On which Beust wrote to Metternich:

"The September Convention, it is useless to delude ourselves, is no longer adapted to the situation. We cannot leave the Holy Father to the ineffectual protection of his own troops. The day on which the French quit Rome, the Italians must be allowed to enter the Papal States in their own right, with the consent of Austria and of France. We shall never have the Italians with us heart and soul until we have extracted the Roman thorn from their side."

Thereupon the Duke de Gramont informed the Italian ministry that a return to the September Convention was the only thing possible. The ministry replied that they were willing, if need be, to return to the terms of the Convention, which was no concession to Italy, and that if they were bound to the execution of the treaty (*i. e.*, to guard the Papal frontier), they would not at the same time contemplate the possibility of taking part in any war. For this acceptance of a return to the terms of the abhorrent treaty the ministry was vehemently blamed, but the King's ministers had their own reasons for securing at any cost the departure of French troops from Rome. They, or at least the majority, did not believe in an imperial victory, foresaw that in case of defeat France would proclaim a republic, and that a republican garrison in Rome might very possibly become the centre of a revolutionary movement in Italy.

Everything tended to confirm Italy in her neutral position. Bismarck, however, did not yet feel secure on this head, and summoned Count Brassier de Saint-Simon to Berlin with instructions to bring an accurate account of the situation. Sella bade him assure the Prince that "he should support neutrality to the uttermost and resign rather than consent to a war against Germany." On July 25, after a debate on Italy's foreign policy, in which strict neutrality was affirmed, Sella demanded a vote of confidence, which was accorded by a majority of 63 out of 282 present. This debate was highly displeasing to the French Ambassador at Florence, and he complained to the King, who answered "that if the Emperor would consent, in case of danger to the Pope from invasion or other causes, to his troops performing the offices now performed by French soldiers, occupying certain strategic points, so as to insure the safety of the Holy Father, all the rest would be easily arranged." And on the same day the King wrote to the Emperor in the same strain. But the Emperor remained obdurate, holding out for the September Convention pure and simple. Even this aroused the suspicions of the Austrian, Prussian, and even the English Governments. If France consented to withdraw her troops from Rome, there must be a secret alliance between France and Italy,

After the skirmish at Saarbrück, which was vaunted as a brilliant victory, the friends of France in the Cabinet proposed an armed intervention. Sella formally announced his resignation, and the affair was not pressed, but he quitted Florence on the morrow to leave his colleagues free to settle matters with the King. General Türr, one of the intermediaries between Florence and the Tuileries, explained to the Duke de Gramont that they could not hope for help from Italy by returning to the bare Convention, which, for her, was only a complication. To which Gramont answered haughtily, "It is impossible for us to do the smallest thing for Rome. If Italy won't march, let her stand still." Then followed *pourparlers* for a simple alliance between France and Austria, the latter offering to mediate with France regarding the Roman question. This Italy declined, convinced that, after the formal declarations of the Emperor and the French Government, no mediation could avail. The news of the battle of Wörth put an end to these negotiations, and the Austrian envoy quitted Florence. Later, Count Latour d'Auvergne was sent to Vienna to treat for an Austrian alliance only, and the Italian ambassador at Paris was given the cold shoulder by Gramont and even by the Emperor; the Empress, who was the inspirer of French policy, declaring that "France should not be indebted to Italy for anything whatsoever." The King's confidential agent, Vimercati, tried to induce the Emperor to persuade the Pope to accept a *modus vivendi* with Italy, in which case it was proposed that Italy and Austria should demand from Prussia a pledge to respect the *status quo* of the treaty of Prague. No effective coöperation was to be given unless the French should have penetrated into southern Germany, in which case the Italian troops, thrown across the Tyrol, would join them near Munich and their united forces would be sustained by Austria. Austria approved because it seemed more like an armed mediation than an aggression. Vimercati left Florence the 29th of July. Arrived on the 1st of August at Paris, he found the Emperor at Metz. Napoleon refused to accept the article pledging him to induce the Pope to accept a *modus vivendi*.

Still the war party hoped and struggled; if only the King could be induced to dismiss the peace-at-any-price ministry, all might yet go well. In the Senate, Scialoja made a hostile interpellation, while Cialdini's speech would in any country, and in Italy at any other time, have led to his arrest. He expressed his astonishment that a ministry dared to remain in power after the "negligence and miserliness that had disarmed the country in these supreme moments for its welfare. I hope," he continued, "that the Minister of War does not live on illusions, that he is convinced that he can no longer remain in the position he now occupies, that he can no longer direct the war department and the army, seeing that he is not sustained by the blessings, the affection, the confidence of that army."

"The discourse you have listened to," replied Sella, "not only bears the imprint of incredible violence against our actions and our persons, but contains, also, a menace. Who has given Gen. Cialdini, an army general, the right to abuse his high position and speak in the name of the army, and to tell us that the Minister of War can no longer retain his portfolio because he does not enjoy the confidence of the army? Do these words of the honorable Cialdini contain the threat of a *pronunciamiento?*"

The whole Senate applauded, but the King called Sella severely to account.

After the battle of Wörth, Napoleon addressed a "dignified and touching letter to the King," appealing to his chivalrous sentiments to help him in his sore distress. Victor Emanuel, much anguished, sent Lanza and Visconti-Venosta to Lamarmora, who had held aloof from King and Government ever since the war of 1866, to implore him to find some way of assisting their former ally. Lamarmora "wept bitterly," said Sella in his funeral eulogy of the General (1880), declaring that "if the Government should decide on sending a corps over the frontier, he should claim the honor of commanding a *company*, but that his opinion as a general and a statesman was that Italy was not in a condition to do the least thing for France."

Such, briefly, are the facts of the negotiations between Italy and the French Empire in

1870. The French have ever since that date accused the Italians of base ingratitude, forgetting the cession of Nice and Savoy in return for the victories of Magenta and Solferino; it remained for Gen. Lebrun to accuse Italy of "bad faith" and "broken pledges," without adducing a single document or tittle of evidence.

LEA'S AURICULAR CONFESSION.

A History of Auricular Confession and Indulgences in the Latin Church. By Henry Charles Lea, LL.D. Vols. I. and II. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers. 1896.

THESE first two volumes of Dr. Lea's latest work form together a first part, and treat in continuous chapters the history of Confession and Absolution. The subject of Indulgences is reserved for a third volume, which may be expected at no very distant day. Once more Dr. Lea offers to the world a new chapter in the great indictment against the Roman Catholic system which has been the work of his long and laborious life. No scholar in America, and perhaps none in the world, has a firmer and more comprehensive grasp on the vast literature of the Church in all its forms, and none has handled the immense problems of theological controversy with clearer purpose and more moderate spirit. All of Dr. Lea's writing may fitly be described as controversial, but it is not the controversy which wastes itself in a petty give-and-take of charges and countercharges. He is sparing of invective, cautious in his use of language, and willing to show his admiration for the power displayed by the system he opposes. His method of controversy is to gather up into one elaborate presentation all there is to be found in sources which his opponents would admit as authoritative. In the present volumes, for instance, he has made no use whatever of Protestant literature. All his citations are from the writings of Catholic authorities, and chiefly from such as have been honored and cited by those of their own confession as standards of faith and action.

There is something so convincing in the mere declaration of this method that one is tempted to accept its results as final without further criticism. Yet it is a method that can easily be overdone, and in not a few modern instances has been so overdone. For example, the modern assault upon the Reformation rests very largely upon the utterances of Protestants, carefully selected and so arranged as to leave on the reader's mind an impression of almost complete condemnation. The truth is, that no great human institution or movement of the human mind can ever command the undivided allegiance of all those who are ready to fight under its banner. There will, happily, always be dissensions in the party ranks, but that does not prevent the party from going on to do its work in the line of human progress. Thus the Catholic criticism of Catholic measures and ideas must mean a very different thing when taken up by a Protestant mind, and *vice versa*. The indispensable condition for all true criticism is sympathy with the thing criticised, and the power of distinguishing between essentials and those details which often obscure essentials.

Dr. Lea has done his work thoroughly. His presentation is enormously learned, and his authorities are unexceptionable. The impression he makes is, one feels sure, the one he intended to make. Is it a true one, in the sense that truth implies completeness? Has the author so penetrated the spirit of the great Roman institution as to give due credit for the intention which underlay the vast fabric of scholastic and casuistic reasoning? This is the point precisely where one feels a doubt. The Church did not run deliberately into the confusions of thought and practice which are so easily criticised; it drifted into them. Assuming always as a starting-point the necessity of some external process by which the sinful nature of man could manifest its reconciliation with the kind of a God in whom all the world believed, the Church went on trying to adapt its system of reconciliation to the changing conditions of human society—a blundering, a blind, and often a wicked experimenting, but on the whole sincere. The evil of it all was in the assumption on which it rested; but could society, during that long period of its schooling for something better, have lived at all on any other assumption? Incidentally Dr. Lea furnishes from time to time the answer to this question. Down at least to the thirteenth century European society was essentially barbaric, passing slowly and painfully through the elementary stages of national growth. What there was of culture—which means self-restraint—was in the Church and in its influence upon common life. Dr. Lea shows us very convincingly how the system of confession and absolution became the great agency for retaining that influence, but he leaves us in doubt whether he sees quite clearly that the influence of the Church was essential to the maintaining of any effective moral standard at all. Then came the great awakening of the European mind—national feeling, the Roman civil law, cities and their commerce, wealth, learning for learning's sake; and by that time the power of the Church was so widely felt and so firmly fixed that no one knew how to escape it. The Church itself was swept along by the rising tide, and must hold its own by adapting itself. Not only must it stand as the mediator between man and God, but it must perfect its system of mediation to meet all emergencies. In an age acutely intellectual, it must base its action upon some system which would appeal to the mind of the day.

Dr. Lea's picture of the great confessional system thus reaches its natural climax in the chapter on probabilism and casuistry. The vast and awful responsibility of the confessor could be met only by some process whereby a law claimed as absolute and inevitable should be made adjustable to the weakness of humanity. The infinite complexity of human relations demanded a moral law of corresponding flexibility. The Church was not permitted to deal with mere distinctions of the absolutely right and the absolutely wrong. It was called upon to give specific answers in individual cases, and that not occasionally but constantly. Its great problem was (and this is clearly shown by Dr. Lea) how far the opinion of the average sinner and the average confessor might enter into the decision of the specific case, or, in other language, how far the individual conscience was to be trusted as a guide to action. Put in this way, the doctrine of "probabilism" has a very harmless sound indeed. To say that a man ought to obey his conscience can hardly shock any one at this day. The evil was, that a human authority should believe itself capable of putting that principle into a form to meet all cases, that human frailty and human doubt should be so elaborately analyzed and so recklessly put forward that men were in danger of forgetting that there were any principles of action at all which could not be juggled with.

The problem of Jesuit ethics is that of all ethics: to make individual action square with eternal principles. We do not for a moment question that Dr. Lea recognizes this view of the case. We felt only, in reading his presentation, that it was not fully or quite fairly brought out. The aim of casuistry was primarily to satisfy the individual conscience. That is a worthy aim, but the method is liable to terrible abuse. The conscience may be trained to almost any subtilty, especially under the force of selfish desire. When we today say, "Follow conscience," we assume the education of the conscience by every available means. During the growth of the Roman ethics, the same phrase implies an education solely through the Church. But if all our agencies of civilization can do no more than they have done to make the individual conscience work right under pressure, how plainly inadequate was this organization of priests to accomplish their purpose, and how natural it was that the keenest among them should have strained every nerve to invent excuses for failure and devise substitutes for the infallible accuracy they claimed in vain.

One gets from Dr. Lea's presentation a sufficiently vivid idea of all the meaner motives of the Roman ethical struggle, but hardly an adequate sense of the terrible complications into which the Church had let itself drift. To get this, one has to read between lines. It is there if one can find it. So read, these volumes must do a splendid service. They will help to clear up the mind of many a doubter as to the real meaning and danger of the whole theory of a fixed authority in faith and life upon which the Roman system is built. They ought to rouse many a one who lazily fancies Roman Catholicism to be merely a religious sect like a dozen others, and imagines it can so be overlooked or sniffed away. The concluding words of the preface are full of prophetic import, reminding us as they do that Romanism, against its will, has been forced into a position of advantage which needs only to be recognized to become effective.

Kokoro: Hints and Echoes of Japanese Inner Life. By Lafcadio Hearn. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. Pp. 388.

AGAIN Mr. Hearn enriches philosophy and ethnology, as well as literature, with a volume of his observations upon Japanese life, about one-half of the papers being *genre* sketches and folklore traditions retouched, and the rest being comparative studies of various fundamental traits of Japanese and European philosophy. Needless to say, Mr. Hearn still maintains his place as the great, perhaps the only competent, sympathetic and large-sighted interpreter of the Japanese inner life. It is not merely that his acute subjective analysis outlaws for good those crude enumerations, in treatise and essay, of forms and observances which have hitherto misled us into supposing that we knew something of Japanese religion—as if one should judge Christianity by prayer-book and pew, by stole and chalice. Nor is it merely that the higher side of Japanese moral and religious life is here emphasized, and that we now realize how petty and misguided are the well-meant efforts of foreign missionary enterprise to change that which was not in nature meant to be changed—as if a champion of the noisy, ponderous steam printing-press

should pity and strive to proselytize the patient line-engraver.

There is still another value in Mr. Hearn's work: it introduces us to the broad and interesting field of ethno-psychological analysis and speculation, which is and always must be rarely worked, because it requires in the observer a combination of opportunities and capacity which can seldom occur. Take, for example, the Japanese principle of courtesy or the Japanese principle of compromise, so characteristic of the people. These, as different from Occidental principles in the same situations, are to be explained; and, with a hundred other particulars, they form a complex which cannot be explained without a resort to ultimate physiological and psychological facts, by aid of which a point of view is attained and a differentiation is accomplished between Japanese and Occidental conduct or belief under the same circumstances. Mr. Percival Lowell, in his 'Soul of the Far East,' was perhaps the first to attempt the problem in its broadest form—an attempt worthy of praise, but on the whole unsuccessful. Then a professor of psychology, after a paltry three months' sojourn in the country, made what we must consider a singularly presumptuous attempt at a similar analysis, forgetting that his equipment was lacking in the one essential thing, personal observation of data and familiarity with Japanese literature and history. But now Mr. Hearn has made himself the one and great interpreter, and has already solved many of the most important parts of the problem, mainly the ethical and the religious elements; others —such as the commercial and the legal instincts—still awaiting their interpreter. What is notable is that the Japanese, among Oriental peoples, are specially fortunate in this. As between the Germanic and the Latin peoples, we have been vouchsafed a few masterly solutions, more or less comprehensive—Emerson for the English, Brownell and Hamerton for the French, Whitman for the Germans, Bryce for ourselves. For the Slavs, and even for the Arabs, something has been done to give us a vantage point whence we may comprehend. On the other hand, for the people of India, Rudyard Kipling, missing great opportunities, has done little or nothing. In China, there are several presumably competent persons, and yet each new volume falls short of our hopes. What we ask for, in this age, is no longer a traveller's diary, nor a correspondent's gossip, nor an opponent's diatribe, about the Turks, the Hindus, the Chinese, the Japanese; but a subjective explanation of why things are as they are, a category for comprehending, an ultimate synthesis which will explain at once both the life of those peoples and its differences from our own. It is in this aspect, then, that Mr. Hearn's achievement seems greatest.

Percy Bysshe Shelley: Poet and Pioneer. A Biographical Study. By Henry S. Salt. London: William Reeves; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

MR. SALT announces in the preface that his purpose is "to *interpret* Shelley, not to criticise or eulogize him." Just at the close he again disclaims "any idea of suggesting that Shelley was a faultless being." But in the body of the book the mortal clods are forgotten. Mr. Salt seldom allows his saint and hero to lay aside the nimbus, and then only for the sake of an artistic contrast. This enthusiasm is due to other causes than mere literary and personal sympathy. Mr. Salt's interest is not so much in the bard as in the revolutionist. Mr. J. Cordy Jeaffreson once made a book called 'The Real Shelley,' and Mr. Salt might better have termed his essay 'The Socialist Shelley.' "By the full-fledged social democracy on whose threshold we now stand, he will at length be seen in his true human character as the inspired prophet of a larger and saner morality, which will bring with it the realization of the equality and freedom to which his whole life was so faithfully and ungrudgingly devoted." Mr. Salt is a particularly full-fledged social democrat, with a taste for rhetoric and a lively aversion to the married state. His contempt for those who see in marriage more than a "stereotyped and loveless institution" is unveiled. Are we mediæval or is there something droll about the following sentence? "The failure of marriage has become so notorious as to be a commonplace of modern novel-writers." Mr. Salt outstrips Prof. Dowden in defending Shelley's domestic relations. He has only one censure to offer: Shelley's marriage with Harriet was the mistake of his career because he compromised his opinions by marrying at all. And when, after chastising Walter Bagehot, Leslie Stephen, and the "nincompoop" of Matthew Arnold, Mr. Salt proceeds to indict Addington Symonds for being "misled by the same social prejudice," we feel that we are posting into the twentieth century at break-neck speed.

Arnold is Mr. Salt's pet aversion, especially his phrase about "the beautiful and ineffectual angel." In retaliation, Mr. Salt "gives it" to Matthew throughout nine special pages, concluding with a sledge-hammer blow in rhyme which is alone worth the price of the book. A score of other people, ancient and modern, come in for severe slating. What a pity that the Socialists, with their views about the perfectibility of mankind, should have to pour torrents of abuse upon their fellow-men! "Brutal Tory" and "invertebrate Liberal" must comprehend a good many humans, yet the race is so pure and lofty that it can be trusted to follow the guiding-star of free love.

Despite the second title, Mr. Salt gives us less biography than disquisition. A great deal of the author's comment accompanies a brief account of the poet's life. Shelley's detractors are assailed in pretty much the same strain that Shelley himself uses in "Adonais" towards the Quarterly Reviewer: "Live thou whose infamy is not thy fame." Mr. Salt, the most dogmatic of writers, objects to the dogmatism of those who deny Shelley the possession of great intellectual powers. He excludes discrimination. One must not criticise, but bow at the shrine. Hepworth Dixon writes similarly about Lord Bacon. The least hint of a disposition to patronize Shelley is a red rag to Mr. Salt. If Shelley learned of Rousseau, Paine, and Godwin, he transmuted their ideas and is an independent pioneer of modern socialism. When one has always supposed that he was more or less a product of the French Revolution, it is hard to be told abruptly that he was a political creator. On the other hand, gibes at "our national deity, 'Mrs. Grundy,'" are perfectly familiar, and Mr. Salt has no monopoly of them. We have learned to take them for just what they are worth. We desist from touching in reply upon fixed moral ideas, for fear our remarks might be termed the futile "complaint of a capitalist press." Mr. Salt has much to say about Shelley's humanitarianism, and here we are in accord with him, though his tone is too declamatory. But why should the Socialists assume a monopoly of human kindness? Socialism stands less for universal benevolence than for a particular scheme to extend human happiness. Because one differs from the details of the scheme, he is not necessarily opposed to its aim.

Mr. Salt starts many questions of universal moment, and manages to connect Shelley with them all. We wish we could praise his panegyric more highly, for it has the merit of true zeal. We also regret that he has forced us to assume a tone of disparagement towards one who was a paragon of poetical genius and personal unselfishness. But that is the fault of his treatment. Mr. Salt's Shelley will never command the unqualified admiration of the world until our present moral and social ideals have emerged from Medea's cauldron.

The Ecclesiastical Architecture of Scotland, from the Earliest Christian Times to the Seventeenth Century. By David Macgibbon and Thomas Ross. Vol. I. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1896. Pp. xiii, 488.

BETWEEN the years 1887 and 1892, the authors of this book published their 'Castellated and Domesticated Architecture of Scotland,' in five volumes. No work more satisfactory than that is contained in the library of the student of architecture. Scottish domestic building is not exactly in the order of the great styles which have developed themselves, one out of another, in Europe, and whose sequence makes up the main current of what we study as architectural history. It is rather an eddy—a backwater which the great stream ignores; but every succeeding Scottish style is itself derived from the more central styles of France and England, the number of good specimens is very great, and the student of the principles of picturesque design is especially fortunate if he is brought into contact with these simple old Scottish manor-houses and town houses. There were nearly 1,700 pictures in that former work—spirited drawings of very telling character, carried no farther than necessary for the reader's perfect understanding of the building or the detail under consideration.

The present work promises to do as much for Scottish churches. The volume before us contains about 400 drawings devoted to the main subject. They carry with them the strongest internal evidences of accuracy. No sham picturesqueness, like that of most of the architectural drawings in our illustrated magazines—a picturesqueness made up largely of broken lines and little touches put in for effect—is allowed to interfere with the simple statement of the facts. The drawings are not as beautiful as those of Viollet-le-Duc, nor do any of them deal with such complicated structures as some of his; but there is little doubt that they are more uniformly accurate, even if the great Frenchman's admittedly conjectural work is left out of consideration. The text of the present volume, as far as its leading topic is concerned, deals with Celtic (monastic and ecclesiastical) structures and with the transition from Celtic to Norman; then with Norman architecture and with the transition from Norman to Gothic. There is an index, which seems to be brief, occupying only four pages.

We have left until the last the introduction, which gives, in sixty pages, a general account of the relations of Scottish architecture to that of the rest of Europe, and seeks to define and explain the great styles, Romanesque and Pointed, by means of a comparison of French and English work. In this introduction the decorative crosses, slabs, and carved work of unknown date, and the equally unplaced round towers of Scotland and Ireland, are touched upon, and the unquestioned Irish ori-

gin of the earliest Scottish architecture is well explained. On pages 12 and 13 the slow change of ecclesiastical buildings from purely Celtic to semi-Roman types is clearly set forth. The larger works on Irish architecture and those on Scottish Celtic archæology are to a certain extent condensed in these pages, with reference to them. On page 32 begins an account of the development of the greater architecture of Europe through Romanesque to Gothic and from early Gothic to late. This is very well managed. The critical remarks on the causes and true characteristics are extremely just, and no better brief history of the subject exists.

On page 65 the Celtic monastic and ecclesiastical structures in Scotland are taken up in reliance upon the work of the late T. S. Muir, to whom our authors defer as to the most enthusiastic of antiquaries, and one who was fortunate in the early epoch of his investigations, when these structures still remained in tolerable condition. Then follows, p. 101, a description of the churches in Orkney and Shetland, with one or two in Scotland proper, all founded upon the investigations of Sir Henry Dryden, made about forty years ago. The drawings and descriptions prepared by this author from personal observation of buildings now much less perfect are here published for the first time.

Only half the volume before us is left for the first chapters of the main work; and it may be well to defer remark upon this portion till the appearance of the second volume.

The Making of Pennsylvania. By Sydney George Fisher. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1896. Pp. viii, 364.

In its mixture of nationalities, languages, and religions Pennsylvania was from the first quite unlike most of the other American colonies. Dutch, Swedes, English, Scotch-Irish, Germans, and Welsh contributed to the formation of its heterogeneous population, while Quakers, Lutherans, Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Mennonites, Tunkers, Moravians, and others found within its borders a welcome and a home. Mr. Fisher has undertaken, without writing a history of Pennsylvania, to treat each of these elements in detail, tracing their history, noting their peculiarities of custom and creed, and pointing out their influence upon the social and political characteristics of the State. Though written for the "general reader," and in a style which at times descends to triviality, the book is not without value for students of our colonial history, and, in its earlier pages especially, attains a genial blending of historical and antiquarian learning. Mr. Fisher enters at considerable length into discussion of the tenets and practices of the numerous sects represented in the Pennsylvania colony, and although in his preface he seems to anticipate that his treatment of religious matters will give offence, we fail to find in the work itself the justification for his fears. Space forbids extended comment, but we fancy that good churchmen will be a little surprised that the author finds an "easy explanation" of the facility with which many Quakers became Episcopalians, after the Keith controversy, in the fact that "the Church of England has never been a very dogmatic body, has never been much devoted to systems or theologies, and has always given ample room for the development of individual opinion" (p. 191).

Mr. Fisher is firmly convinced that Pennsylvania ought to be in all respects the foremost State in the Union, and he frequently turns aside from the main course of his narrative to moralize on this attractive theme. He does not hesitate to score the Germans for their obstinate adherence to their own language and customs, their disposition to live by themselves, and their opposition to public education. The readable chapter on "Early Development of Science and Arts" contains little that is new; but, unless Mr. Fisher has fixed some chronological limits which he does not state, it can hardly be admitted that Franklin "was the first man who wrote in English on the modern science of political economy," and that "he suggested some of the principles which are now elementary in it" (p. 217). We will not dispute the further assertion that "it was a chance statement of his [Franklin's] that aroused Malthus to develop his peculiar theory of population," but it would have been worth substantiating.

The long chapter on "The Connecticut Invasion," dealing with the struggle for the possession of the Wyoming region, and the account of the tedious boundary controversy with Maryland, are written in a spirit of narrow and almost bitter partisanship, in striking contrast to the temper of the earlier chapters. Mr. Fisher is sure that the claim of Connecticut ought not to have been pressed; as for the successive Lords Baltimore, they were either knaves or fools. It hardly need be said that this portion of the book must be read with caution.

We note two slight misprints: *Ann* Hutchinson (p. 213), and the distortion (p. 133), by the omission of a comma, of the title of Rosengarten's "Pennsylvania Dutch," in volume ix. of the *Nation*.

Calendar of State Papers. Colonial Series: America and West Indies, 1675–1676; also, Addenda, 1574–1674, preserved in the Public Record Office. Edited by W. Noel Sainsbury. London. 1893. 8vo, pp. lxi, 595.

This volume (constituting the seventh of the series, and the fourth dealing with what is here broadly spoken of as the "West Indies"), though dated 1893, has only recently been issued. Like the preceding volumes, it is a key to a vast series of papers in the English State Paper Office, many of which are abstracted at such length as to be little less than verbatim copies. Indeed, the tendency with each volume towards a fuller and more verbal transcription is distinctly noticeable, and in line with this is the return in the present volume to earlier dates, not merely that newly discovered documents may be embodied, but as well to include such documents as were formerly omitted because they were in print in Hakluyt, and are now inserted at the suggestion of Lord Derby that this "series of documents ought to be complete in itself." Of these documents Mr. Sainsbury had before his death prepared an admirable résumé, which, like those in the earlier volumes, is a testimonial to his scholarly, as the texts are to his editorial, ability.

In the earlier papers is a considerable series relating to the colonizing attempts of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and he himself tells of his "spending of a thousand marks land a year" to win only "the scorn of all the world." Document No. 47 records the earliest (1697) of the flights to America for conscience' sake, being a petition of "Her Majesty's faithful subjects falsely called Brownists," . . . "greatly distressed thro' imprisonment and great troubles sustained only for matters of conscience," praying leave to emigrate to "a far country which lieth to the west in Canada"; and how akin the spirit of these emigrants was to the Puritan is revealed by their wish not merely to "worship God as in conscience persuaded by his word, but also do Her Majesty great good service by annoying that bloody and persecuting Spaniard about the Bay of Mexico." This paper is followed by a series relating to the actual settlement of Virginia, one of which tells of the seizure of a French ship attempting to plant a colony, with the cruel treatment of Jesuits found on board. An obverse to this is an amusing narrative of John Pory, just chosen "Secretary in Virginia," who, on the question of maintenance, finds the Council "as dry as Pumystones, which is the cause that I mean not to adventure my carcase in so dangerous a business for nothing." The new products of the West are touched upon in No. 104, relating to "Virginia wheat, called Maize, much commended for an excellent strong meat and hearty for men at sea and more wholesome than beef," and No. 108 is King James's Proclamation against the culture of tobacco in England, reciting:

> "It is not unknown what dislike we have ever had of the use of tobacco, as tending to a general and new corruption both of mens bodies and manners; nevertheless it is of the two more tolerable that the same should be imported amongst many other vanities and superfluities which come from beyond seas than permitted to be planted here within this realm, to abuse and misemploy the soil of this fruitful kingdom."

Several papers deal with the export of criminals to Virginia, and others with the "Supplication of certain Walloons and French" who wish to settle there. As early as 1621, exertions were making for "erecting a school in Virginia." Penn's expedition to Jamaica is fully set forth in many documents, as also the wholesale removal of the English from Surinam to that island, consequent on the cession of the former to the Dutch—the beginning of the Venezuelan-Guiana controversy. No. 377 (1669) is a prospectus of the "New Plantation of Cape Florida, Carolina," promising the settlers, among other privileges, "full and free liberty of conscience." In connection with an argument against the Culpeper grant (1674), the danger of lessening the King's authority in the colonies is dwelt upon, "for the New England disease is very catching"; the independent conduct, the smuggling, and the religious intolerance of that section being set forth in numerous other papers, one of which records that among the "fiercest [ministers] is one Mr. Thacher, the only man in the country who keeps a coach." These charges lead up to the Randolph mission, and three lengthy reports of his are printed. The Royal African Company is noticed in connection with the "cries" of the colonies for slaves. In 1675 it is shown to have imported 7,025 negroes, and in six months of 1676 a sale of 1,583 is recorded in Barbados alone, yet so little was the demand satisfied that illicit voyages were constantly made to obtain further supplies. An act of Barbados, passed in 1676, forbids "the people called Quakers from bringing Negroes to their meeting." Amusing glimpses are given of Henry Morgan, doughtiest of buccaneers, sitting as a judge of the court of admiralty in Jamaica, and of Nathaniel Bacon, uttering "dreadful new coined oaths," "as if he thought God was delighted with his ingenuity in that kind." Concerning this latter, the documents are endless; perhaps the most worthy of note is his proclamation to Col. John Washington "and the rest of the commissioners for Westmoreland County," since it fills the blank in the commissioners for that county as printed by Hening (ii., 19).

As in the former volumes, the proof-reading is adequate, and the index satisfactorily full.

The Life and Letters of George John Romanes, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S. Written and edited by his wife. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

As if oppressed with the scantiness of her material, Mrs. Romanes has printed her memoir in large type very expansively, making a big and coarse octavo where a smaller book would have been much more attractive to the eye and hand. She has, however, done her editorial work in an intelligent and instructive manner, except that, where many of her readers will wish that she had put forth all her strength, she has taken quite the opposite course. We allude to the theological somerset which Romanes described in the latter part of his life. This bulky volume adds very little, if anything, to the 'Thoughts on Religion' published soon after Romanes's death. Here as there we are left to the infecting and discouraging suspicion that the change in Romanes's religious opinions was due to morbid intellectual conditions, coinciding with his broken bodily health. Paralysis is not likely to make for clear thinking, and the conclusions of a thinker who completely reverses his position in some sudden fashion are dubious at either pole. Certainly those who were much impressed by Romanes's 'Candid Examination of Theism' are not likely to be captivated by his later speculations. He cites the case of Clifford's sudden change from orthodoxy to scepticism as showing that reason has very little to do with religious opinion. The fable is equally for him. Indeed, he is frank enough to confess it He tells us that the hardest sacrifice which Christianity imposes on an intelligent man is "that of his own intellect," and adds, "At least, I am certain that this is so in my own case." But how can we be expected to care very much for the protracted reasoning of a man who has avowedly sacrificed his intellect? That the sacrifice was not wholly imaginary we have the arguments by which it is justified to show, and those also for an orthodoxy impossible even for the clericalism of Oxford at the present time. Theologians have often been sharply reprimanded for not sticking to their last, but few of them have sinned more grievously than Romanes did in this particular. Such knowledge as he had of Biblical criticism it would seem he must have got up in a few hours, and yet he speaks as confidently as if he had demonstrated the possibility of trinity in unity by uniting Kuenen and Reuss and Wellhausen in himself.

It would not be strange if the quality of Romanes's theological lucubrations were to breed some slight suspicion of his scientific work. His case is very different from Faraday's, who kept all his thinking for science and did not think at all about his Sandemanian theology. The process in Romanes's theologizing is utterly unscientific. Many will regret that Mrs. Romanes did not avail herself of the assistance of some competent scientist in those parts of her book which deal with her husband's scientific studies and achievements. The lack is felt most keenly when she is dealing with his doctrine of "physiological selection," the most important contribution which he made, if it were valid, to Darwin's doctrine of natural selection—rather, the most important addition. Where Mrs. Romanes is entirely satisfactory is in her account of her husband's personal life. Here everything is beautiful and attractive. We have the picture of a man most affectionate and kind, a most loyal nature, strongly emotional, eager for work and love. The [illegible] who have made haste to infer from Darwin's case the atrophy of poetry and imagination and religion in the scientific man at large, have in the case of Romanes food for reflection, as, on the other side, in Dean Stanley's insensibility to landscape and Freeman's indifference to Shakspere. The relations of Darwin and Romanes were very intimate, and equally creditable to the older and the younger man. The biography reaches its highest points of interest in the many letters which they interchanged. The most beautiful letter in the book is that written by Romanes to Francis Darwin after the death of his father.

Madame Roland: A Biographical Study. By Ida M. Tarbell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, pp. 328.

THE authoress of this volume has worked among the manuscripts of Madame Roland in the Bibliothèque Nationale, and has drawn from them some details that have not previously been printed. Other material—"family legends"—she says she has obtained from the descendants of Madame Roland, but she does not specify what it is, and it can only be unimportant in character, as nothing in the volume strikes a reader familiar with Madame Roland's life as new either in substance or in presentation, save two chapters derived from the Bibliothèque Nationale manuscripts. One of these chapters is on Madame Roland's feelings towards her husband, and makes evident that she was more warmly attached to him, both before and after their marriage, than her autobiography would lead us to believe. It is a well-known fact, of which this is an illustration, that no human being remembers his own past truly, and that the more intimate portions of our past experience are the most falsified by the changed perspective of added years. There are no autobiographies—not the sincerest—that would be found to reflect accurately the emotions expressed in the letters or conversations of past days. This instance in Madame Roland is precisely similar to the instance Sainte-Beuve pointed out fifty years ago regarding her relations to La Blancherie, and it does no more than confirm our previous knowledge of the ardor of her nature, which from time to time demanded fresh material to expend itself upon.

The other "new" chapter is somewhat more interesting. It describes a visit of Madame Roland to Paris in 1784, while living at Amiens. She went as her husband's envoy, hoping to obtain from the Court some reward—Miss Tarbell says, letters of nobility—for his long services to the country. It is a great pity that, instead of describing this portion of the manuscripts, Miss Tarbell has not given much fuller extracts from them, and that she has not given the extracts in the original. A volume of Madame Roland's unedited letters, with notes, would be of value; this volume has but little. The inconceivably confused bibliography appended and the unintelligent index indicate a want of familiarity with scholarly work which the character of the style confirms.

Animals' Rights, considered in relation to Social Progress. With a Bibliographical Appendix. By Henry S. Salt. Also, An Essay on Vivisection in America. By Albert Leffingwell, M.D. New York: Macmillan.

THAT animals' rights include the right to live and to enjoy life without suffering pain and death at the hands of man, is the fundamental idea in this work. The author advocates the application of the Golden Rule in man's treatment of the lower animals. He makes a vigorous, temperate, readable, and in the main very practical discussion of the subject. He recognizes conditions as they exist, and, while fully believing in a complete and radical change, placing man's injury to himself by his cruelty and inhumanity in strong relief, he is very judicious in his recommendations. As education appeals with effect only to such as are predisposed to its reception, he concedes that it, as well as legislation, must in a measure be secondary to the awakening of the humane instincts. He writes for those who realize that decrease of cruelty and increase of humanity measure advances in civilization, "that man, to be truly man, must cease to abnegate his common fellowship with all living nature, and that the coming realization of human rights will inevitably bring after it the tardier but not less certain realization of the rights of the lower races." Before accepting as final his conclusion that mankind should entirely adopt vegetable food, many of his more conservative readers will inquire whether experiments have sufficiently demonstrated that our race can retain its rank and progress as well without meat; whether, in fact, without access to the "fleshpots" it would not have remained in the groves with the orangs and gorillas.

Dr. Leffingwell's essay on vivisection is of prime interest to American educators, among whom, no doubt, there are few who will not at least agree that much of the imitative vivisection practised in schools is deplorable in its effect both on victim and on audience.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baskervill, W. M. Joel Chandler Harris [Southern Writers]. Nashville, Tenn.: Barber & Smith. 10c.
Berger, F. French Method. New York: The Author.
Brooks, E. S. The True Story of Abraham Lincoln. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.
Brown, Anna R. Sir Mark: A Tale of the First Capital. Appleton.
Burdett's Hospitals and Charities. 1896. London: Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
Chambers, E. T. D. The Ouananiche and its Canadian Environment. Harpers. $2.
Daudet, Alphonse. Artists' Wives. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Dexter, F. B. Biographical Sketches of the Graduates of Yale College. Vol. II. May, 1748–May, 1763. Henry Holt & Co. $5.
Graduate Courses. 1896–7. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 25c.
Graves, C. L. More Hawarden Horace. London: Smith, Elder & Co.
Guyot, Yves. L'Economie de l'Effort. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Habben, F. H. London Street Names. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
James, Henry. Embarrassments. Macmillan. $1.50.
Jones, H. A. Michael and his Lost Angel. Macmillan. 75c.
Jones, L. A. A Treatise on the Law of Real Property. Two vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $12.
Keightley, S. R. The Crimson Sign. Harpers. $1.50.
King, Capt. Charles. An Army Wife. F. T. Neely.
Kirk, Eleanor. Libra: An Astrological Romance. Brooklyn: The Author. $1.50.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLVII. Puckle-Reidfurd. Macmillan. $3.75.
MacCauley, Clay. An Introductory Course in Japanese. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh.
Matthews, Brander. Tales of Fantasy and Fact. Harpers. $1.25.
Mazel, Henri. La Synergie Sociale. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
McManus, L. The Silk of the Kine. Harpers. $1.
Meyers, Prof. W. J. An Inductive Manual of the Straight Line and the Circle. Fort Collens, Col.: The Author.
Meynell, Alice. The Color of Life, and Other Essays. London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Noble, J. A. The Sonnet in England, and Other Essays. London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.
Our Flag: Its History and Changes from 1620 to 1896. 2d ed. New Haven: Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor. 75c.
Phillips' Elite Directory. 1896. W. Phillips & Co. $6.
Pope, Alexander. The Rape of the Lock. Illustrated. London: Leonard Smithers; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.50.
Quackenbos, Prof. J. D. Practical Rhetoric. American Book Co. $1.
Roche, Jules. Contre l'Impot sur le Revenu. Paris: Léon Chailley.
Rodkinson, M. L. New Edition of the Babylonian Talmud. Vol. I. Tract Sabbath. New Amsterdam Book Co.
Roosevelt, Dr. J. W. In Sickness and in Health. Appleton. $6.
Smith, W. D. A Manual of Elementary Law. St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $3 75.
Twain, Mark. The Prince and the Pauper. Harpers. $1.75.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 16, 1896.

The Week.

THE one comic touch in the Chicago platform is its denunciation of the Republicans for their "threat to business." This, coming from men who propose not only to threaten, but to throttle, business, to make property and life itself unsafe, shows that they have lost all sense of humor as well as of honor. No such collection of inflammatory and reckless men ever put themselves on exhibition in a national convention. Beside them the Populists are lamb-like, and the Socialists sucking doves. The country has watched their mad proceedings with disgust and shuddering, only impatient for the coming of November to stamp out them and their incendiary doctrines. Yet these objects of alarm have the impudence to accuse somebody else of threatening business!

The daily press teems with evidences of the Democratic revolt which the Populistic, anarchistic Chicago platform has already caused. It may be predicted from them with safety that the Eastern section of the Democratic party will refuse, practically in a body, to support the Chicago ticket. Not a Democratic newspaper in this city will support it, and very few in any other city of the State. This means such an overwhelming vote for McKinley in this State as to enable him to carry New York city. In other Eastern States the prospect is the same, and the indications are that no Northern Democratic newspaper of character or influence will support the ticket, while even in the South several of the party's most powerful organs have repudiated it. This will be an extraordinary situation, but the platform and the utterances of the favorite orators of the convention have made it inevitable. It is not a question of the wisdom of putting McKinley in, but of the overpowering necessity of keeping the Tillmans, Blands, Bryans, Altgelds, and the indescribables who believe them to be statesmen, out.

A more extraordinary overturn in political journalism has never been seen than that which has occurred in Michigan during the past six weeks. The Detroit *Tribune* has long been the chief Republican newspaper in the State; the Detroit *Free Press*, the leading Democratic journal. The Republican national convention had no sooner adopted a gold-standard platform than the *Tribune* denounced it as "damnably unpatriotic and un-Republican." On the other hand, when the Democratic convention declared for the free coinage of silver, the *Free Press* denounced the monetary utterance as "un-Democratic and fraught with serious menace to the country and its prosperity." The *Tribune* urges Republicans to see that free-coinage men are nominated and elected to Congress; the *Free Press* insists that the duty of every right-minded Democrat is to work for a House of Representatives which will oppose any further silver legislation. In short, the two newspapers have completely changed sides. Cases have been known before where important journals bolted their party, but we can recall no instance in which the two chief party organs in a State have bolted simultaneously.

Several of the revolting Democratic journals raise the question of another Democratic national ticket. The movement for such a ticket is likely to be especially strong in this State, for a Governor is to be chosen here this fall, and the next Legislature is to elect a United States Senator. If there be no Democratic Presidential ticket save that of the free-coinage destructionists, the Democrats of the State will have great difficulty in holding their votes for their candidates for Governor, Congressmen, and members of the Legislature. Thousands of Democrats will vote for McKinley, and in doing so will vote for the Republican State ticket also, simply because it will be more convenient to do so. In every Eastern State the Democratic Congressional candidates will be greatly handicapped if there be no honest-money Democratic Presidential ticket in the field. If there be no rallying-point for the sound-money men of the party, they will either not vote at all or vote the entire Republican ticket, out of sheer disgust with their own party and disinclination to make any discrimination in the expression of their disapproval.

An important point to consider in deciding upon the wisdom of a sound-money Democratic electoral ticket is the arrangement of the ballots under the Australian system. In a large majority of the States the tickets are arranged in party columns on the ballots, each having the names of the Presidential electors at the top. In New York State the names of the candidates for President and Vice-President follow immediately below the party emblem and name, and after them come the names of the electors. If there be no sound-money Democratic electors, what electors are to be placed in the Democratic party column? The Democratic State convention, when it assembles to nominate a candidate for Governor, must face the question of an electoral ticket. It can either approve the Republican McKinley electors, or nominate a set of McKinley electors of its own, or a set of Bryan electors, or fail to nominate any whatever. If it fails to nominate any, then its party column on the ballot will be blank in its upper half, and Democratic voters will be asked to vote a State ticket only, choosing their electoral ticket from the column of some other party. If the convention proposes to endorse the Republican electoral ticket, it will undoubtedly offend the "regular" susceptibilities of Tammany and other machine Democrats, and run the risk of precipitating the nomination of Bryan electors. If it nominates separate McKinley electors of its own—that is, decides to put a third Presidential ticket in the field—it will provide for the filling out of its party column with Democratic names, and a full Democratic ticket will be presented for the approval of all Democratic voters. The Southern and Western States will, without exception, approve the Chicago ticket, and the Bryan electors will appear on all the regular Democratic tickets. In the Eastern and Middle States, which, like New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey, have party-column ballots, the regular Democratic organizations must decide whether they will put the Bryan electors into the party column, and thus become members of the repudiation party, or whether they will refuse to do so, and either put up a separate ticket or leave the electoral space bare. There is no escape from this dilemma.

A veteran of the party sends us the following reasons for the third-ticket policy:

I. Any attempt to transfer the bulk of a political party at once to its ancient and inveterate foes invariably fails.

II. A sound-money Democrat, supporting a gold Democrat, can get the ear of the Democracy with far less trouble than a Republican can.

III. A divided Democracy with two Democratic candidates in the field means a large Democratic vote for McKinley, and a vast number of Democrats who will not vote at all.

IV. A great number of free-trade Democrats will vote for an independent Democrat, who, if there be none such in the field, will vote for Bryan.

V. The nomination of an independent Democrat means saving the House of Representatives, and also the future of the Democratic party.

Another reason of much importance is that the speaking talent among the sound-money Democrats ought not to be lost in the campaign if it can be utilized. These speakers are generally well equipped. By battling inside their own party, they have mastered the subject and have gained the ear of the very men who ought

to be reached. Carlisle, Patterson, Hoke Smith, Vilas, Fairchild, Bynum, are names that will readily occur, but the country is full of them. These men are not likely to take the stump for McKinley, although they may cast a silent vote for him.

The Chicago convention emphasized more strongly perhaps than any previous assemblage of the kind has done the folly of holding these gatherings in buildings of such enormous size. It is estimated that the attendance at most of the sessions was between 15,000 and 20,000. When we consider that the full convention, counting both delegates and alternates, does not exceed 2,000 persons, the absurdity of having it sit surrounded by a shouting, shrieking mob ten times its size is apparent. Pandemonium reigned in the Coliseum on Thursday night, when the convention was at the mercy of the 20,000 occupants of the surrounding galleries and floor spaces, who turned the proceedings into a prolonged riot of shouts, cheers, cat-calls, and general uproar, making anything like deliberation impossible, and practically taking control of the proceedings from the delegates. The crowd seems to have been in thorough sympathy with the free-silver majority, and most of its members were doubtless admitted with the understanding that they should add to the free-silver fury and thus give the impression that it was the cause of the people. The first convention to be held in a monster building was that which nominated Lincoln in 1860. Since then the size of the buildings has been increasing pretty steadily, and as a consequence the deliberative character of the conventions has steadily decreased until the present point has been reached. We ought to return to the old order of things, not excluding spectators, but subordinating them to the convention and keeping them within the bounds of decorum.

Mr. Bryan's oratorical powers are not marked by great versatility. It has been shown already that his speech which carried the Chicago convention off its feet and made him the nominee for President was mainly one which he had delivered a week earlier in a joint debate. He declaimed it to the convention as a spontaneous burst of pure eloquence, but the body of it and the closing passage, with its "crown of thorns" and "cross of gold," had been delivered only a few days before to another audience. Now it appears that even this first audience had it at second hand, for he closed a speech delivered before a committee of Congress on December 24, 1894, in opposition to a bill exempting the notes of State banks from taxation, as follows: "I for one will not yield to the demand. I will not help to crucify mankind upon a cross of gold. I will not aid them to press down upon the bleeding brow of labor the crown of thorns." Possibly this was not its first appearance. Whenever the "Boy Orator of the Platte" gets under the spell of his own eloquence, the crown of thorns and cross of gold roll irresistibly from his tongue. For an orator in his line of business the two figures are perfect. Nobody can tell what he means by them, but they are sonorous in delivery, and have a Biblical flavor which gives them the aspect of true prophecy. When shouted forth by a man with waving hair and upturned eyes, they strike everybody who is dissatisfied with the way the world is moving as the very soul of eloquence. . . .

When Mr. Hobart was in Canton, a fortnight ago, he apologized to the people for not possessing "the grace of diction" that marks all the public utterances of McKinley. His speech to the notification committee, however, on Tuesday week shows that if he has not grace he has grit. It was the boldest, squarest, and most explicit endorsement of the gold standard; the frankest admission that the money question is to be the one issue of the campaign—that no compromise on this question is tolerable or possible, but that it must be fought out and settled now. If Mr. Hobart was practically unknown to the country before, he is known now. Where he stands and what he believes and what he will do if ever called upon to act, no one has any longer the least excuse for doubting. "Gold is the one standard of value among all enlightened commercial nations." "An honest dollar worth 100 cents everywhere cannot be coined out of 53 cents' worth of silver plus a legislative fiat." Mr. Hobart's remarks about the tariff were so subordinate and perfunctory that they might easily be passed by. It is perhaps worth while, however, to point out the way in which he shifts his ground when he passes from money to the tariff. "Great and self-reliant as our country is," he says in the currency part of his speech, "it is great not alone within its own borders and upon its own resources, but because it also reaches out to the ends of the earth in all the manifold departments of business, exchange, and commerce." It is a good deal of a jump from that to railing at a fiscal policy which "opens our markets to commodities from abroad," etc. But then, Mr. Hobart had to say something of the kind to show that his heart was still true to the dead.

McKinley's speech on Saturday showed a correct appreciation of the situation made by the action of the Chicago convention. The pending question is, as he said, the proposition there advanced for "the repudiation of our obligations and the debasement of our currency." High tariffs or low are of no consequence in comparison with this issue, and will get no attention from the people. The Republican candidate does well, therefore, to drop the tariff question from the first place which he has previously given it, and invite support as the representative of financial honor. He strikes at last the true keynote of the campaign.

The English Bimetallic League has often displayed great ability in extracting sunshine out of cucumbers, but its efforts on Monday to read into the Chicago platform a consuming love for "international bimetallism" surpass its best previous record. International bimetallism was jeered at and denounced at Chicago with only less violence than the gold standard. Bryan himself had only scorn for it. It was, in his mind, and in the opinion of his eager fellow-repudiators, only a low-down trick which had been played on them successfully once or twice, but by which they would never be taken in again. An international bimetallist was, in fact, in rather worse repute than a gold-bug, for he was thought to be either a namby-pamby, kid-gloved sort of amiable philosopher with whom no straight-thinking repudiator could have any patience, or else a hypocrite and a trickster. President Walker had the disagreeable task of telling his English bimetallic friends that they were all off the scent in this Chicago business; that it was a huge blunder, "deeply to be regretted," and that this passionate and unthinking action of the mob would only strengthen the gold standard.

The London *Times* is thrown into one of its attacks of melancholy over American institutions by the anarchist talk at Chicago about the "West and South against the East," and it sees "signs of estrangement" which "threaten the stability of American institutions with novel dangers." If our English friends will keep their eyes on American political history, they will learn that the American people, when they express themselves at the polls after the case is argued, make short work of such politics as has been voiced at Chicago. The hard times following the panic of 1873 produced a Greenback party in 1876 which found so eminently respectable a candidate for President as the philanthropist Peter Cooper. He polled, however, only 81,737 votes out of a total of 8,411,136. All the gall and bitterness excited by Mr. Cleveland's political honesty found expression in the nomination of Gen. Butler in 1884. He received, however, only 175,370 votes in a total of 10,067,610. The fight against the silver heresy this year will be a bigger fight than was the fight against Greenbackism, but our English friends may rest assured that Republican institutions will come out of it with honor.

It must be plain to every one, even from the speeches and documents produced

thus early in the political campaign, that the free-coinage cause, so far as it appeals to thinking men, rests wholly on the question of money supply. "There is not enough gold in the world to do the work of trade," is the commonest of all objections to the present standard, but this is usually expanded into the assertion that the world's currency is contracting. We took occasion recently to meet this entirely false assertion by a series of categorical questions and answers. Since then a further and overwhelming answer to the contention of contracting currency has appeared in the Mint Director's estimate for 1896. It should first be said, for the benefit of people unfamiliar with the character of our mint department, that it stands to-day probably the highest authority in the world on gold production. Its advance estimates during the last few years have been confirmed with extraordinary closeness, and it has not once, in its last half-dozen annual estimates, placed the year's anticipated yield too high. The latest advices give Mr. Preston's estimate of gold production for the present calendar year. It fixes the remarkable total of $220,000,000. To appreciate what this means, and what light it sheds on the alleged contraction of the money supply, comparison with previous years is necessary:

WORLD'S GOLD PRODUCTION.

1896.....	*$220 000,000	1891.....	$130,650,000
1895.....	203,000,000	1890.....	118,848,700
1894.....	180,626,100	1885.....	108,435,600
1893.....	157,287,600	1880.....	106,436,800
1892.....	146,815,100	1875.....	97,500,000

*Estimated.

This table covers the period since contraction in the money supply, according to the free-coinage school, began. It may be added that the highest annual average of gold production ever reached before the present decade was $134,083,000, and that the current annual production of gold alone is nearly $15,000,000 in excess of the world's combined production of both gold and silver as lately as 1884.

It is sometimes said that the "use of gold in the arts" prevents the employment of the newly mined product as money. The industrial use of gold has in recent years been a subject of close investigation, the conclusion reached by general agreement among experts being that $50,000,000 is a safe outside estimate of the annual consumption for such purposes in the world. It may readily be figured out that this would still leave, under the estimate of production for 1896, no less than $170,000,000 worth of new gold annually for coinage purposes. How large a percentage this is to existing money supplies is of course a very difficult question to determine. In 1885, however, Dr. Adolph Soetbeer undertook the task. His figures have an interest as being the nearest approximation which we are likely to obtain to the exact truth of the matter. He reckoned the total metallic money supply in all civilized states that year at 21,207,000,000 marks, or, roughly, $5,301,750,000. These figures had of course no reference to bank or Government paper issues, but they included legal-tender silver. On such a total, the current annual gold production, after allowing for the industrial use of gold, represents an annual increase, in the world's metallic money supply, of more than 3 per cent. Neither the population, nor the foreign trade, nor the domestic operations as represented by clearing-house exchanges, show in any state an increase even approximating this.

England's revenue returns for the first quarter of her financial year show no sign of bringing her to her knees in terror at the dire effects of the gold standard. As compared with the corresponding period of 1895, there is a total increase in revenue of $8,000,000. The excise alone yields $5,000,000 of this, and high returns from excise are always a sure indication of generally diffused prosperity. An increase of $700,000 in the revenue derived from stamps shows general commercial activity, while the swelling of the post-office receipts by $450,000 and the telegraph revenue by $75,000 points the same way. All told, English recovery from the world-wide depression of two years ago is marked. Business is better all round, and the investment markets are buoyant. Why have we not, as almost invariably in other years, felt the stimulus and shared in the better times? Why, except that our standard of value has been shaking in the wind, our currency vicious, our Congress and parties a prey to demagogues? No standard of value can guarantee prosperity without honest and intelligent business methods, but the wisest and best methods are powerless if the standard is uncertain. That is the hard lesson which American business men have been taught by their own crippled trade and lessened profits, and the spectacle of English revival and confidence, beside our continued depression, is all that is needed to confirm the teaching.

The International Socialist Workers' and Trade-Union Congress is to convene, with all the linked sweetness long drawn out of its name, in London on July 27. From the programme put out by the organizing committee, it is evident that there is much work and trouble ahead. One great question will be whether the word Anarchist shall not be added to the title. At the Zurich congress, the Anarchists were expelled, though it took two days to do it, but they are coming to London just the same, and the Dutch Socialists, together with the Independent Tailors and Machinists' Union, are in favor of admitting them. The General Union of Dutch Carpenters would like the congress to confine itself to the discussion of economic questions only, and the Spanish delegates, as if getting wind of this, and dreading the possibilities wrapped up in it, are in favor of suppressing all oral discussion, economic or otherwise, and having everything submitted in writing. The Dutch Socialists want the congress to define "political action," but the French Central Revolutionary Committee, without caring about definitions, are in favor of "the conquest of political power by the proletariat." The Independent Labor party will ask the congress to "declare emphatically against the useless and dangerous illusion known as the general strike"; but the Dutch Socialists call upon workers to follow a declaration of war by any government by this same general strike. Female suffrage, a universal language, and a socialization of the means of production, distribution, and exchange, are among the minor topics to engage the attention of the congress, which evidently believes that knowledge is its forte and omniscience its foible.

A result, long awaited, of the unification of the German Empire is the adoption by the Reichstag of the new civil code. Even before the unification of the Empire the need was felt of putting an end to the conflicts and vexations which arose out of radically different codes and statutes in adjoining States. In Prussia, where the provincial law of 1794 obtains, it is stated that there are more than twenty local codes which in some cases take precedence of the Prussian system. The Roman law, modified by use and wont, applies in the largest legal area. Particularly variant and perplexing are the laws relating to marriage and divorce, and to the inheritance of property. One authority refers to a town in Bavaria where, if three persons die in different rooms of the same house, their estates may have to be administered according to three different systems. All this legal chaos is swept away by the new code, which represents the labors of various commissions for fully twenty-six years. The final form was given by practical lawyers and judges from all parts of Germany, whose work was approved, with only slight modifications, by the German Parliament. Speaking generally, the new code is said to represent the triumph of German over Roman law, and to introduce a larger application of the principles of equity than has been known in any German code. Compulsory civil marriage is one of its leading features, and that this should have been accepted even by the Catholic members of the Reichstag shows how firm a hold the institution has already acquired in Germany. On the other hand, divorce is made much more difficult to obtain than under the prevailing practice. The new code is to go into effect with the beginning of the twentieth century.

THE CHICAGO NOMINEE.

THE body of repudiators that has been holding a convention at Chicago during the past week and calling itself the Democratic party, has nominated William J. Bryan of Nebraska for President. The result is somewhat surprising, since Mr. Bryan is a new and untried man, only thirty-six years of age. Only a small fraction of the people of the United States have ever heard of him. All of our Presidents heretofore have been men of experience, sufficiently tested in public life to enable people to form some idea of their capacity and moral fibre. This is not the case with Mr. Bryan. Yet his nomination was not accidental. It was due to the speech which he made on Thursday and to his previous record as a Populist-Democrat in Nebraska. He was found to be precisely of the stamp of Tillman and Altgeld, and of a more attractive personality than either of them. Of all the men voted for in the convention he comes nearest to satisfying the Populists. So say Senator Peffer and ex-Gov. Lewelling of Kansas. It is safe to assume that the Populist convention at St. Louis on the 22d inst. will endorse Bryan, although they might not have endorsed Bland, or Boies, or Blackburn. He will be somewhat less satisfactory to the silver Republicans of the mining States, because they have no intention of joining the greenbackers, yet they will probably cast their votes for him.

Mr. Bryan was not a delegate to the convention. He came there leading a contesting delegation. The regular delegates were unseated by the silverite majority and their places were given to Bryan and his crowd. The cheers that greeted him were the measure of his wind power, which is immense. The measure of his specific gravity is to be found in his political career at home. He was carried into Congress on the Democratic tidal wave of 1890, was reëlected in 1892, and took a position on the silver question so extreme that he split the Democratic party in his State and lost his seat in Congress. In 1895 the two wings of the party in Nebraska ran separate tickets for Judge of the Supreme Court, and the anti-silver faction polled 8,000 more votes than the Bryan faction. The regular organization of the party remained in their hands, and it was this organization that was cast out by the silverite majority at Chicago in favor of the bolters. His speech to the convention was an appeal to one of the worst instincts of the human heart—that of getting possession of other people's property without the owners' consent. That is what is meant by free coinage at 16 to 1. All business and all obligations rest to-day, have rested for nearly a quarter of a century, on the gold dollar as the unit of value. It is proposed now to substitute a silver dollar for it worth about half as much, and to make this depreciated coin applicable to all existing bargains and contracts. This is not all. It has been alleged over and over again that the programme of the silver propagandists was much more extensive than free silver; that it looked forward to free greenbacks, which are far more attractive to the repudiating tribe. Mr. Bryan gave warning of what is to follow when he said: "The right to coin money and *issue* money is a function of the Government. It is a part of sovereignty, and can no more be delegated with safety to individuals than we could afford to delegate to private individuals the power to make penal statutes or to levy taxes." If the business community supposed that there were any real danger of this dishonest policy being put into practical operation, there would be a panic and crash the like of which has never been seen in this or any other country. The fact that business remains in a state of quiescence is the best evidence that the proceedings of the roaring mob at Chicago are not taken seriously by the American people.

The nomination of Bryan for President of the United States and the adoption of a platform of repudiation make a pitiful climax for the Democratic party — the party of Jackson, Benton, Seymour, Tilden, Cleveland—the party whose boast has been that it always stood for sound money and never put a depreciated dollar into the hand of labor. The decadence of the party in the past few years, since the Tillmans, Altgelds, Bryans, and Blackburns came to the front and took the leadership, has been melancholy in the extreme. There are signs in plenty that nearly all the men who give character to the party to-day, successors of the great men whose names honor their country's history, will repudiate this ticket and this platform as they would the pest. From all parts of the East and from many in the West and South we hear, not protest merely, but the indignant declaration of Democratic leaders and business men that they will vote the Republican ticket. They consider their honor and their means of livelihood alike involved in this battle. They find something of higher and more immediate concern to their families and to the State than party ties or tariff schedules. They will vote not so much for McKinley and Hobart as against Bryan and repudiation, but their votes will count and their influence will tell from hour to hour and from day to day till the election.

Whether the dissenting Democrats will or ought to nominate a ticket of their own is a question for themselves to decide. Of course the main thing is to beat the ticket of the Repudiators. Everything else is insignificant in comparison, yet opinions may differ as to the best way of accomplishing this result. Our opinion is that the sound-money Democrats, by which term we mean those of intelligence and substance in all parts of the country (in South Carolina and Texas as well as in New York and Massachusetts), will vote for McKinley and Hobart whether there is a sound-money Democratic ticket in the field or not. But the question is not free from difficulty.

THE CHICAGO PLATFORM.

OUR anticipations of the kind of platform that the convention would adopt at Chicago were very low, but the actual product is worse than we had expected. In point of morals it is baser than anything ever avowed heretofore by a political party in this country outside of the slavery question. The free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 is endorsed, and the platform declares that the dollars so coined shall be legal tender for debts previously contracted on the basis of the gold standard. This is equivalent to the repudiation of nearly one-half of all debts which are made payable in dollars without the mention of the specific kind of dollars. All debts incurred since 1873, when the gold dollar was made the unit of value, have been contracted in the single gold standard. That is exactly what was meant by the demonetization of silver. It meant that every contract made and every debt incurred should be legally payable in a particular kind of dollars consisting of 25 8-10 grains of gold, nine-tenths fine. We will omit for a moment the question whether Congress ought to have passed such a law. It will not be disputed that Congress had the constitutional power to pass it. It will not be denied that it was the law of the land immediately after it was signed by the President. It will not be denied that it has been the law every day and hour since that time. Consequently, every obligation to pay money made since 1873 has been an obligation to pay dollars each worth 100 cents in gold.

Now the Democratic party proposes that every one of these obligations (those made yesterday as well as those made twenty-three years ago) may be paid in dollars worth 53 cents each in gold. This is repudiation of the other 47 cents. The resolution then says: "We favor such legislation as will prevent for the future the demonetization of any kind of legal-tender money by private contract." This aims to prevent the making of contracts payable in gold—a right which the Supreme Court has upheld in frequent decisions. The right to make a contract for gold is as clear and undoubted as the right to make a contract for cloth, for building materials, or for labor. To deprive people of that right would be practically depriving them of the power to borrow at all, since in many cases the lender will not part with his money on any other terms. If capitalists at home and abroad supposed that this plank of the platform would be ratified at the coming election, they would call in every loan that is now due and refuse to make new ones on any terms.

With a view to hiding the taint of re-

pudiation and the assault made upon the right of private contract, the platform-makers endeavor to make it appear that the silver is money by virtue of the Constitution, one of the preliminary planks being in these words:

"Recognizing that the money question is paramount to all others at this time, we invite attention to the fact that the federal Constitution names silver and gold together as the money metals of the United States, and that the first coinage law passed by Congress under the Constitution made the silver dollar the unit of value, and admitted gold to free coinage at a ratio measured by the silver-dollar unit."

The only foundation for this is in article i., section 10, which says:

"No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; *make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts;* pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility."

Neither the word gold nor the word silver occurs in the Constitution in any other place. What does it say here? Simply that no State shall make anything else than those metals legal tender. At the time when the Constitution was adopted, several States had made their own bills of credit legal tender. Such paper was in actual circulation. It had a definite time to run, and the Constitution provided that when the time expired no more should be issued, and that nothing should be made legal tender by them but gold and silver coin. This was a clause dealing with the States only. It had no reference to the powers or duties of the federal Government. It did not confer any powers. It merely prohibited the exercise of powers. To say that we must have both gold and silver as money because the States are prohibited from making anything else legal tender, is as absurd as to say that we must have letters of marque and reprisal, bills of attainder, and ex-post-facto laws because the States are prohibited from having these also. Even if the Constitution had said that we must have both gold and silver as money, nobody pretends that it said or implied that we should have a coinage ratio different from the market ratio, which would result in giving us only one.

The second clause in the paragraph quoted from the platform, which affirms that silver was made the unit of our coinage in the first coinage law under the Constitution, is false. This is one of the exposed lies of 'Coin's Financial School.' It finds an appropriate place in a platform which advocates repudiation of both public and private debts. A unit means one thing, not two things. The first coinage law provided for two kinds of legal-tender money, which would have been impossible if one of them had been declared the unit. Even if it had made the silver dollar the unit, that fact would not have impaired the right of subsequent Congresses to change it.

Other parts of the platform are equally mendacious. The clause in reference to banks says that "Congress alone has the power to coin and issue money, and President Jackson declared that this power could not be delegated to corporations or individuals." President Jackson never said anything of the kind, never thought or imagined anything of the kind. His contention was exactly the opposite. He maintained that *Congress* had no power to charter a bank. He never denied that the States had that power. The power to issue circulating notes was the very thing that was understood and implied by "banking powers" in his time, and he never questioned it. When he drew the Government deposits out of the Bank of the United States, which had been chartered by Congress, he caused them to be put in State banks, which were then issuing circulating notes. All the implications that are to be drawn from Jackson's acts are exactly the reverse of what are ascribed to him in the platform. What, we beg to ask, has become of the plank in the party platform of 1892 which calls for the repeal of the federal tax on State banknotes? Where does Jackson stand on that question?

These are trivialities, however, in comparison with the bold and wicked scheme of repudiation which is presented without a blush in the platform. Upon this question the campaign must be fought. If the party of repudiators cannot be put down, the republic cannot be preserved and is not worth preserving.

"A SECTIONAL ISSUE."

SENATOR TILLMAN of South Carolina, in his diatribe on Thursday, declared that "the financial question is a sectional issue," and when the declaration evoked vigorous hisses, he reasserted his position as follows:

"The truth is mighty and will prevail. Facts can neither be sneered out of existence nor obliterated by hisses. I say that the question is sectional, in so far as it is sectional, as between the Eastern bosses, and not between the people of the East, and the West and the South. We of the South have burned our bridges as far as the Northeastern Democracy is concerned, as now organized. We have turned our faces to the West, asking our brethren of those States to unite with us in restoring the government, the liberty of our fathers, which our fathers left us."

Senator Jones of Arkansas contradicted Tillman's declaration that the silver question is sectional, and cited one free-coinage delegate from Maine and another from Massachusetts as evidence that the cause is a national one. Nevertheless, it is true, as the South Carolina demagogue said, that the Democratic party has made itself a sectional organization in this campaign by the platform which it adopted in national convention on Thursday. The free-coinage issue deprives it at the very start of all chance of carrying any State in the northeastern part of the country.

The Democracy since the war has carried the country in two Presidential elections when its candidate was installed in office, while in a third its nominee would have been inaugurated if the vote of Louisiana in 1876 had been counted by the Electoral Commission as it was cast. In each of these three elections the party carried the three Eastern States of New York, Connecticut, and New Jersey. In each case except 1892 the candidate would have been hopelessly beaten without these three States. The loss of New York defeated Cleveland in 1888, even though New Jersey and Connecticut were saved. The issue which the Tillmans have imposed upon Democracy deprives the party of the great State without which it has never carried the country since 1856, except when the "tidal wave" of 1892 swept Republican barriers before it in Western States that had previously gone against the Democrats ever since the ante-bellum period. It also loses the Chicago candidate New Jersey and Connecticut as surely as New York.

There are now 447 electoral votes, and 224 are required to make a majority. New York has 36, New Jersey 10, and Connecticut 6. Thus 52, or nearly one-fourth of a majority, are in three States that went Democratic in 1876, 1884, 1888 (except New York), and 1892. The new sectional issue throws away, and its champions declare that they rejoice to throw away, the whole Northeast. How do they expect to make up for this loss? By a union of "the South" and "the West," they say. The expression "the South" has come to mean the sixteen States in which slavery formerly existed, and which have gone solidly Democratic in every Presidential election for twenty years. But these sixteen States can no longer be counted upon as solid. Delaware (with 3 electoral votes) and Maryland (8) will stand with New Jersey, New York, and the rest of the East, with which their interests are most closely allied. West Virginia (with 6 electoral votes) has been growing towards Republicanism for many years; it gave Cleveland but 506 plurality in 1888, and only 4,183 in 1892; it elected four Republican Congressmen, and a Legislature more than two-thirds Republican, in 1894; its Republicans are confident of success this year, and have good reason for their faith. Kentucky (with 13 electoral votes) went Republican by nearly 9,000 on the silver issue, with the largest vote ever cast, last year, and sound-money Democratic newspapers predict a worse defeat for the party on the Chicago platform this year. Missouri (with 17 electoral votes) went Republican in 1894, and must be ranked as doubtful in 1896.

Tillman talks of a union between "the South" and "the West" on the silver issue. The only possibility of such a union, so far as the latter section is concerned, is when "the West" is restricted to a few States far beyond the Mississippi. Ohio (with 23 electoral votes), Indiana (15), Illinois (24), and Michigan (14)

are no longer really Western States, but central; the same is true of Wisconsin (12), Minnesota (9), and Iowa (13). The only one of these seven States that the Democratic party ever carried between 1856 and 1892 is Indiana; in 1892 Cleveland was supported by Illinois and Wisconsin. Even with the free-coinage craze raging about them this year, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota sent sound-money delegations to the Chicago convention. Nobody familiar with their political history can imagine for a moment that the candidate who stands on the platform adopted last week can carry a single one of these seven central States except Indiana, and the Republicans of Indiana welcome a contest on the free-coinage issue.

What remains of Tillman's "West"? Only Kansas (with 10 electoral votes), Nebraska (8), North Dakota (3), South Dakota (4), Montana (3), Wyoming (3), Colorado (4), Utah (3), Nevada (3), Idaho (3), Washington (4), Oregon (4), and California (9). The whole thirteen have only 61 electoral votes, if they were unanimous for the Chicago nominee. In Nebraska the sound-money Democrats ran their own ticket last year, and polled nearly twice as many votes as the soft-money crowd; and they will keep up the fight this year. The Republicans carried North Dakota with a sweep in 1894, and in South Dakota they cast 5,000 more votes for their ticket than the Democrats and Populists together; while in Wyoming their total exceeded by 1,000 the combined opposition. Kansas went for Weaver in 1892, the Democrats supporting the Populist electors, but in 1894 the Republicans polled 3,500 more votes for Governor than the Democrats and Populists together.

We do not need to carry the analysis further to show that the new sectionalism involves the certain defeat of the party which precipitates it. It presents the Republicans at the start with 52 electoral votes which were Democratic in 1876, 1884, and 1892, and, except for New York, in 1888; it breaks the "solid South" by threatening the loss of the 30 of its 159 electoral votes cast by Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, and Kentucky; it throws away the Central States, leaving Indiana as the only one in that part of the country that can be considered as in any sense debatable; and it pares down the West to a baker's dozen of thinly settled States which have only 61 votes in all, and which cannot be carried in a block. As a political move this free-coinage campaign is therefore stark madness.

A FREE-COINAGE CATECHISM.

Q. WHAT is money? A. Any common medium of exchange which is accepted as payment in itself.

Q. What is representative money? A. Any common medium of exchange which promises to pay money.

Q. What is meant by primary money? A. This is a new phrase introduced to confuse people by suggesting that there is also secondary money.

Q. What is money of final redemption? A. This is another late addition to the American language implying that there are several different kinds of money. There is only one kind of money in this country. There are several different kinds of representative money.

Q. Give examples of each. A. Gold coin is money. Everything else that circulates, whether of metal or of paper, is representative money.

Q. Is silver coin representative money? A. It is.

Q. In what way does the Government promise to redeem its silver coins? A. By the act of Congress of June 9, 1879, it promises to redeem all coins smaller than one dollar when presented in sums not less than $20. By the act of February 28, 1878, the Government promises to receive silver dollars at par in all payments to itself. By the act of July 14, 1890, it declares it to be the policy of the Government to keep the two metals at a parity with each other. By two different acts the Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to purchase coin and to issue the obligations of the United States therefor.

Q. What is the indispensable quality and first requisite of money? A. That it should be universally acceptable.

Q. Is there any kind of money universally acceptable but gold? A. There is not.

Q. Would not silver be equally acceptable if it were equally legal tender? A. Silver dollars are legal tender. Give any man the option of taking one hundred of these pieces or ten gold pieces of $10 each and he will choose the latter. Therefore they are not equally acceptable.

Q. Is the difference in weight the only reason why gold is more acceptable than silver? A. That is not the only reason now, but it was the main if not the only reason when civilized nations made their choice between the two.

Q. What reasons exist now that did not exist then? A. A variation of 50 per cent. has taken place in the value of the two metals. In addition to being sixteen times as heavy, silver has lost one-half of its value during the interval.

Q. Are there any other reasons why silver is not equally acceptable with gold? A. Yes; although a limited amount of silver (and also of nickel and copper) is used as a medium of exchange, it is now a commodity in the markets of the world subject to the same fluctuations as other commodities. People do not like to use a fluctuating commodity as money, and will not if they can get anything better.

Q. Have you mentioned all the reasons why gold is acceptable as money and silver is not? A. The most decisive reason is that the civilized world has adjusted itself to the gold standard during a long period of time. All business is bottomed on it. It is an accomplished fact coextensive with the commercial world. To change to another standard would be literally turning the commercial world upside down.

Q. Can such a change be produced? A. It is absolutely impossible. In a conceivable case one country may turn itself upside down, but that feat would not make gold less acceptable or silver more so, even in that country. Acceptableness is a state of the human mind which laws cannot change.

Q. Is the preference for gold universal? A. It is universal among civilized men. Even the silver advocates in the United States prefer gold in their business affairs—that is, everywhere except on the stump. Senator Stewart of Nevada makes his mortgages payable in gold. When he was reproved for this bad example, he said that he merely followed the universal custom on the Pacific Coast, where he lives. So we have his authority for the statement that in the section of the Union where the demand for silver is most vociferous, everybody prefers gold in his private business.

Q. Can you give any other examples? A. The Territory of Arizona brought a bill before Congress two or three years ago, asking authority to issue bonds payable specifically in gold, on the ground that the money would be borrowed at a considerably lower rate of interest than if they were payable in dollars without specifying the kind of dollars. The State of Utah is negotiating a specific gold loan now for the same reason. Yet both Arizona and Utah are politically for silver.

Q. What do these acts signify? A. Two things: First, that gold is preferable to silver in the general estimation of mankind; second, that payment in gold is an advantage to borrowers.

SOUTH AFRICAN DEVELOPMENTS.

THE irritation caused at first in England by the request, almost amounting to a demand, of the Transvaal Government that steps be taken to try Cecil Rhodes for complicity in the Jameson raid, seems now to have passed away. The ministry are slowly feeling their way towards measures intended to satisfy the Boers that English justice is something more than a name. Mr. Rhodes's resignation from the Chartered Company has at last been accepted, doubtless under the advice or pressure of Secretary Chamberlain. It is now intimated that a royal commission will soon be appointed to investigate the whole question. The reason formerly given for delayed official action—namely, that the Government must await the result of Jameson's trial—has now lost most of its force. Jameson has had only a preliminary hearing, but the evidence of his guilt brought out at that was so over

whelming that it is absurd for Mr. Chamberlain to say any longer that he must wait to see what the courts will decide. The time is now ripe for a comprehensive and conciliatory inquiry into the whole affair, and the indications are that it will speedily be begun.

A good precedent (and a great advantage) for the English Government lies in their own action in 1881 in then restoring the independence of the Transvaal. That was an act of conspicuous justice and magnanimity, for which Mr. Gladstone was at the time, and has been since, roundly abused by the Tories and Jingoes, but the memory of which will stand the English negotiators in good stead in the present situation. In a speech some days ago at the South African dinner in London, Mr. Chamberlain read from an autograph letter, before unpublished, of the late Sir John Brand, written in 1881. Sir John was one of the ablest statesmen that South Africa ever knew, and, speaking of the restoration of independence to the Transvaal, he said that it was "a noble act which only a great and powerful nation could have performed." He added that it would surely have its reward, as it would secure for England the affection of the whole of South Africa. Something of this must have been in the mind of President Krüger when he lately declared that "mutual trust must be the basis of our political principles, and that trust the Republic on its side will never put to shame."

It cannot be denied that the first and inevitable effect of the events of last December was to arouse intense suspicion of English policy. The Transvaal and the Orange Free State were at once drawn together as if for common defence. They increased their armament. They redoubled their watchfulness on the frontier. Native and anti-English sentiment rose to a great height, and the election as President in the Free State of a man of strong Dutch-Afrikander feelings was a direct consequence. Even in Cape Colony much jealousy of English interference in South Africa was displayed, and the Afrikanders in the Cape Parliament had many bitter things to say of English greed and broken promises. In short, English prestige seemed seriously checked, and the project of South African federation hopelessly put back.

But time and discussion and a spirit of concession on both sides have much eased the situation. In the Transvaal a serious effort has been made to redress the just grievances of the Uitlanders in respect of educational opportunities, citizenship, the suffrage, and taxation. At the same time a clearer idea has been given of the exaggerated nature of some of the demands of the Johannesburgers. Like the Americans in Hawaii, they were too much disposed to insist upon the privileges without the responsibilities of citizenship; they wanted to vote without renouncing their allegiance to foreign powers, or being compelled to bear arms in defence of the Republic; they wanted to be citizens in respect of local immunities and favors, while at the same time aliens in respect of the right to demand the protection of a foreign flag. On the other hand, a much quieter tone marks the late discussions in the Cape Parliament and at Westminster. Mr. Schreiner is not alone, at the Cape or in London, in affirming: "It is conspicuously the part of any man who loves his country to feel that the methods to be employed must be those of the most soothing argument, and impressed with the one watchword for South Africa—patience." The English Government has now before it a great opportunity for constructive statesmanship in healing by wise and conciliatory measures the soreness caused by the rash folly of Rhodes and Jameson. It will be interesting to see if it rises to it.

For American readers the series of articles on South Africa by Mr. Bryce in the *Century* Magazine have been most timely and instructive. With dispassionate and philosophic mind and ample knowledge, he traces the racial and industrial and political development of South Africa, and puts in clearest light the essential elements of the problem confronting peoples and governments. Most valuable of all, perhaps, is his last instalment, treating of social conditions, particularly of the negro question, in South Africa. His intimate acquaintance with our own similar difficulties enables him to put the case before the American public with singular aptness and force. South Africa has been an unknown land to most Americans, and it will be hard for them to realize that governmental and social questions such as have long vexed us are acute also in those rapidly risen commonwealths in the south of the dark continent. For compact and impartial information, and for helpful discussion of the whole matter, they cannot do better than to turn to Mr. Bryce's articles.

MARSHAL CASTELLANE.

PARIS, July 2, 1896.

FOUR octavo volumes, even in our time of detailed memoirs—it seems as if the family of Marshal Castellane might have been content with a less ponderous homage to the member of their house who attained the highest dignity in the French Army. Shall I say that I have had the courage to read these four volumes? The enterprise, I confess, seemed hard at first, and I did not expect to be well rewarded; but by degrees I became accustomed to the manner of Marshal Castellane, and I took some pleasure in his defects as well as in his qualities. He was essentially what is called a martinet, a fanatical worshipper of discipline, a strict observer of all the army regulations, even the oldest and most obsolete. People, it seems, who knew, would recognize at once the regiments which had been formed under his own direction; and, after all, so long as there are standing armies, such men as he was will be necessary. He had the strictest sense of duty; the army was to him the alpha and omega of life, of patriotism, of honor, of ambition. Born before the Revolution, he never adopted the ideas of the old régime; he was neither a monarchist nor an imperialist. To him the army was France, its greatness the greatness of the country, whatever the government might be.

He was born on March 21, 1788, in Paris; his mother was a Rohan-Chabot, his father Boniface, Marquis of Castellane. At the age of sixteen, on December 2, 1804, the day of the coronation of the Emperor Napoleon, he was incorporated as a private in the Fifth Regiment of Light Infantry. "My taste for the profession of arms," he says, "never ceased from that time." He became rapidly a corporal, a sergeant, and received a brevet of sub-lieutenant in the Twenty-fourth Dragoons. Castellane had to join his regiment in Modena; from that place we follow him to Milan, to Pau, where he joined the corps of General Junot. He enters Spain on the staff of General Mouton, occupying Madrid, and taking part in the principal events which occurred when Joseph became King of Spain.

Castellane's father was Prefect of the Basses-Pyrénées at the time of the reunion of a Junta at Bayonne for the framing of a constitution. "He had the privilege of saying whatever he would to Napoleon, who liked to talk with him and even sometimes to chaff with him. One day he said: 'Castellane, you are a pasha here; the prefects, a hundred leagues distant from Paris, have more power than I have.' 'Yes, Sire, the prefects see that the taxes are paid, they give you men for making war. They are the caterers of your glory; they prepare the dishes, your generals eat them.' My father often told me that people could say anything to the Emperor, especially in tête-à-tête. He would listen and allow people to talk, which is not the case with all sovereigns."

Young Castellane showed so much bravery in various affairs that, at the review of his division at Burgos, General Mouton asked of the Emperor the rank of captain for him. "His Majesty refused, finding me too young. The General then asked for the cross of the Legion of Honor for me, adding, 'He is the son of the Prefect of the Basses-Pyrénées.' 'You spoil my young men, Monsieur Mouton,' said the Emperor. The General was obstinate, and became red with rage. His Majesty ended by saying: 'Well, after the first engagement.' I was twenty years old, but looked much younger. If the Emperor had not held the review in person, the proposition in my favor would have been accepted with the rest. I received the cross later, but it was really on that occasion that I can say that I deserved it best."

Castellane was often near the Emperor during this Spanish campaign; he accompanied him on horseback to Guadarrama, and tells how Napoleon would cross the mountains in the snow and over the icy road, how he fell with his horse without hurting himself, how Napoleon liked to gallop with the vanguard, and often far away from the vanguard. One day, when Napoleon was trying to find the English Army, he went so far away with a single squadron that Marshal Ney said to him: "I thank your Majesty for having been willing to do the business of my vanguard." On another occasion Castellane accompanied him, with only twenty-five soldiers. "People were surprised, in a country like this, to see his Majesty with such a weak escort. A book fell out of his pocket. I picked it up and read its title before giving it to the officer on duty; it was entitled 'Entre Chien et Loup.' His

Majesty read a good many novels; they sent to him from Paris everything that was new in this line." Such passages are interesting, as they make us acquainted with the Emperor's habits. Napoleon was a man of imagination as well as a man of action. He had to feed his imagination at all times, even in his dangerous and fatiguing campaign in Spain.

Castellane joined the Emperor at Abensberg, in the midst of a battle, at the beginning of the Austrian campaign of 1809. His style cannot be held up as a model for military writers. "On the 22d we gained the battle of Eckmühl." This has the merit of being very laconic, but the writer becomes sometimes very prolix when he comes to speak of himself and his own experience. I confess that I have been interested by this personal account of the greatest events in history; it is war painted in its reality. It seems as if you were making a campaign by proxy, while feeling none of the hardships of it. Castellane's lot was not of the hardest, as he was on the staff. After the battle of Wagram he received the red ribbon which he had coveted so eagerly since Burgos. When he was allowed to thank the Emperor, Napoleon answered his thanks in these words: "Brave young man, wait an instant," and he handed him an order written in his own hand. I translate it, to give an idea of the conciseness of Napoleon:

"Aide-de camp Castellan [*sic*] will go to Linz, where he will give the accompanying letter to the Duke of Dantzig; from there he will go to Bayreuth, to take a letter to the Duke of Abrantès. At Bayreuth he will note the name of the troops which compose the corps of the Austrian general Kienmayer, and the positions they occupy. He will bring me back also the situation of the corps of the Duc d'Abrantès—infantry, cavalry, artillery. On his return, he will visit the fortifications of Passau Linz, and Malk. He will take on his way the dispatches of General Bourcier.—Signed, NAPOLEON."

On the occasion of the 15th of August, the day chosen by Napoleon for his feast-day, Castellane was named Chevalier de l'Empire, with an allowance of 2,000 francs. This allowance, first established at Bayreuth, was afterwards successively transferred to Hamburg, Piedmont, Rome; and at the Restoration transformed into a public pension of 500 francs. On the same day, Masséna was made Prince of Essling, Davout Prince of Eckmühl, Berthier Prince of Wagram, each with a yearly allowance of 600,000 francs. A number of officers received pensions, titles, and majorats.

During the intervals of the campaign, Castellane lived in Paris, and he gives some curious details about the court and the society of the time. He used to go almost every day to the house of the Duchess of Bassano.

"I met there," he says, "the beautiful Mrs. Gazzani. The Emperor had discovered at Genoa this Mrs. Gazzani, remarkable for her loveliness and not less for her goodness. His Majesty made her come to Paris, appointed her reader to the Empress, and gave a receiver-generalship to her husband. She was for a time in the highest favor. The Emperor quickly lost his liking for her. At the time of his repudiation of the Empress Josephine, he refused to attach her to the Empress Marie Louise. . . . I was never in love with her, but remained devoted to her till the time of her death. I made the acquaintance at her house of the Prince of Saxe-Coburg, who was then a companion in our amusements, and little thought that he would one day be the husband of the Princess Charlotte of England."

The Empress Josephine had with her two relations of Castellane's, viz., Miss Virginia and Miss Louise de Castellane, one of whom married later Count Fritz de Pourtalès, an equerry of the Empress. This circumstance partly explains how Castellane always remained on the staff during his campaigns.

Here and there, among many indifferent details, we find an interesting story:

"Dupont de Nemours told me how Barrère saved the life of the sculptor Houdon during the Terror. David had had Houdon arrested, and wished to have him guillotined, as he had declared war against all the artists, his colleagues. Mrs. Houdon came to solicit Barrère and urge him to save her husband. Barrère said to her: 'I see no way; but tell me, for which of his works has he been imprisoned?' 'For a statue of Saint Scolastica,' said Mrs. Houdon. 'What does she look like?' 'A fine woman, with a scrap of paper in her hand.' At the very moment when Mrs. Houdon was finishing her phrase, entered Collot-d'Herbois. Barrère said to him: 'Houdon has made a statue of Philosophy meditating on the Revolution; you must have it bought by the Assembly and placed in the room in front of the Assembly room, and declare that Houdon has deserved well of the country.' This was done and Houdon was saved."

In 1812 Castellane left Paris for the campaign in Russia. He tells us all about Napoleon's stay in Dresden and the famous "parterre de rois." He was only twenty-four years old, and took life gaily. He served near the Emperor in Poland, and everything seemed rose-colored to him when Napoleon greeted him: "Good-morning, Castellane, how do you do?" His journal of the campaign in Russia is interesting for its simplicity and the exactness and minuteness of its details. The notes on this campaign were written from day to day in a small note-book, which Castellane was fortunate enough to save in the retreat from Moscow; they are sometimes terribly eloquent in their simplicity. One day, he writes, during the retreat, "Horrible day; 27 degrees. An immense number of soldiers remained dead on the road. We saw many corpses of the Neapolitan division. The soldiers fall; a little blood comes to their lips, and all is over. When they see this sign of an approaching death, their comrades often give them a push, throw them on the ground, and take their clothes before they are quite dead." Castellane says that he saw no sign of irritation in the army when the Emperor left it to return by post to Paris. It has sometimes been alleged that his departure caused much exasperation among the troops.

"I saw nothing of the sort," says Castellane, "Our position was horrible; the army suffered most cruelly; our only hope was in the Emperor. Notwithstanding our disasters, our confidence in him was intact. We feared only that he might be made a prisoner on the road. Our warmest wish was to learn that he had arrived safe in France, knowing well that his return alone could stop a revolt of Germany, and that his presence was necessary for the reorganization of an army which should be in condition to come to our rescue and to save the remains of ours."

Castellane tells us that he lost seventeen horses in the Russian campaign; this number will give an idea of the hardship to which he was subjected, and we must remember that he was on the staff of the Emperor. He confesses that he always had something to eat, but that he did not eat with appetite. All his furs were lost or stolen, and he had nothing to protect himself with at the end of the campaign but a little lady's mantle which he had found. He covered with it one of his hands which had been frozen, and which he nearly lost. "In the midst of my sufferings," he records, "I could not help saying: We have the spectacle of great horrors; such things will never be seen again." He has at times very unexpected remarks, such as these written on his return to Paris:

"I have seen Ferreri with his wooden leg. Last winter he was courting Mrs. L. The Prince of Neuchâtel, to save the honor of General L., sent him to the Seventh Hussars, where he left his leg. M. de Septeuil, another aide-de-camp of the Prince of Neuchâtel, sent two years ago to Spain because he would not pay court to Princess Pauline and remained faithful to his mistress, Mrs. de B., lost a leg. M. de Carronville, sent to the Seventh Chasseurs on account of his liaison with Princess Pauline, has been killed. Truly the love-affairs of the aides de-camp of the Prince of Neuchâtel end very badly.

Correspondence.

THE CRIME AND THE PANIC OF 1873.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are certain features of the literature of the present monetary battle that will tend to preserve it, in part at least, to generations that will long have forgotten the subject-matter of the controversy in which it served. Future writers upon logic will, I believe, discern in the pamphlets and editorials of the day a most bountiful storehouse of precedents wherewith to illustrate the fallacies incident to reasoning. What strata and trilobites are to the geologist, what the pyramids and papyri are to the historian, the utterances of the silver advocates will be to those who, in times to come, shall, for the warning of their cotemporaries, record and classify and analyze the errors of induction into which their ancestors have fallen.

But it is not my present purpose to give comfort to those who are full of despair at the vagaries of their countrymen, by showing that what appears to them to be entirely useless and silly, will come to be a blessing for which posterity will be grateful. I merely desire to record, that it may be preserved from oblivion, something which is being passed from mouth to mouth here in Montana to show the reckless disregard of consequences which the gold-bugs were guilty of when they obtained the demonetization of silver. The "crime of 1873" is charged with being the cause of the panic of that year. This view of the matter is naturally extremely popular here, where everybody is a "friend of silver." Creatures who, in order to attain their fell purpose of contraction of the currency, would not hesitate to deliver their country over to financial and industrial destruction, must be heartless and cruel beyond comprehension; and it is always comforting to feel that one's adversaries are bad and selfish, because it makes one doubly enthusiastic to be convinced that one's own side is the side of virtue and light. Far from me be it to pose as apologist of the "crime of '73." I cannot refrain, however, from calling attention to one reason why the panic must not be laid to the "crime"; and I do this, not as a carping and unfriendly critic, but in the sincere hope that the discrepancy may be explained.

I take it that it will not be disputed that, in the class of cases to which the circumstance under consideration belongs, it is an absolute necessity that phenomenon A, which is to be established as the cause of phenomenon B, must precede phenomenon B in time. Now, it

is unfortunate that the panic did not come after its alleged cause, but preceded it several years; for, while it is true that the "crime" was committed in the early spring and the panic did not begin until late in summer, yet, as a panic is a condition of acute general distrust occasioned by a fear of impending disaster—as an event which is said to have produced alarm, must not only have occurred, but must also have been widely known—and as we have it upon the unimpeachable authority of Coin's handbook and similar learned works that the "crime" was not revealed and did not become generally known until several years after its perpetration, it certainly could not have frightened anybody. It is quite impossible to believe that an act of Congress, no matter how treasonable and hideous, could have produced financial frenzy among business men in '73 when they were not informed of its existence until '76 or '77.

MALCOLM MACLEOD.

BUTTE, MONTANA, July 3, 1896.

OUR SCHOOLS AND OUR CHAUVINISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If Mr. Plimsoll, the Englishman who has been investigating English school histories for unkind allusions to America, and who proposes to do the same by American school histories regarding views on England, could hear a few recitations in American public schools, his investigations would doubtless be of more profit. The average school history in use in American schools is not distinctly hostile to England, but an utterly unreasonable amount of space is devoted to war and to military campaigns. History is taught in the grammar grades, and generally by women of limited intellectual attainments. Military operations are generally pretty thoroughly gone over. A friend of mine, inquiring for work in history in a "crack" Chicago school, was regaled with the spectacle of a girl of thirteen years who went to the board and drew an elaborate plan of the fortifications of Vicksburg, and rattled off a lot of statistics and dates of men killed and wounded. Inquiry of the class as to financial, economic, and social events elicited no response; the teacher, a woman, gazed at the questioner with a puzzled and pained expression. It really wasn't fair to ask about tariffs, suffrage, inventions, foreign relations, and currency. It is doubtful if one teacher in ten admits to her class—if indeed she knows it herself—that many reputable Americans regard our war with Mexico as a national disgrace.

Few pupils leave the grammar school with the idea that there are any flaws in our machinery of government—even in our cities—or that our elected masters are ever anything but wise, uncorrupt, and far-sighted. Everything in America is perfect, and as a nation we have always been exactly right. This may help to account for the almost incredible conceit and blindness of the masses of America. Our conceit we dignify with the name of Patriotism (spelled with a large P), and our own blindness we cannot of course see. However, we bark our shins ever and anon on a few economic and financial stumps, and some of us wonder what's wrong. But political economy and finance are not taught in our public schools—that is, in the grammar schools—and the average voter never goes further than the grammar school.

Our little *pasear* into Mexico seems to have left no hostile feeling in us against the Mexicans, while our war and threatened war with France seem to have been forgotten. Tripoli is too weak and too distant to be hated; but with England the case is different. To the average school-teacher there is much in history that is intangible, much that requires pains and study to teach, but in war she finds firm ground. The child can be given a definite task; dates to commit, maps to draw, names to memorize, and pictures to look at. Of our foreign wars, those with England have been the easiest to teach, and have been consequently most thoroughly taught. Without any express instruction on that point, a child would imbibe hatred towards the country with which his ancestors had quarrels. Still, it seems queer that there should be such a lack of hostility towards France with us. Perhaps it is the strangeness of the language; perhaps it is an exaggerated sense of the importance of the services of Lafayette.

Now, I apprehend that in addition to the dislike imbibed in school towards England, the American voter dislikes that country from sympathy with the Irish and from the harpings of the protectionist press of America. The average unthinking man of the middle classes in this country is a Republican, and of a mental calibre to be influenced by the quadrennial mendacious suggestions of papers like the New York *Tribune* and its namesake in Chicago. In the lower classes, barring the Irish of all classes, there is little, if any, hostility towards England; in the upper classes, there is hardly any. It is confined chiefly to the middle, trading, commercial, small professional classes who read one rancid Republican paper, with occasional Sunday afternoon excursions in "literature" as far as *Munsey's* or *McClure's Magazine*—or the *Ladies' Home Journal*—or the *Review of Reviews*—or the *Chautauquan*. Mr. Plimsoll, I fancy, would find that the hostility to his country in America is confined to the half-educated whose ideals (and pronunciation) are those of the eighteenth century, and who, barring the Irish, are largely influenced by our shameless public press.

M.

July 4, 1896.

THE BYRON SCANDAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of July 9 there appears a review of the life of Mrs. Stowe. Commenting on the Byron matter the writer says: "That Mrs. Stowe fully believed her own theory of Lord Byron is unquestionable; but the motive of the exposure still remains unexplained." Mrs. Stowe's explanation of her motive was as follows: "A shameless attack on my friend's memory had appeared in the *Blackwood* of 1869, branding Lady Byron as the vilest of criminals, and recommending the Guiccioli book to a Christian public as interesting from the very fact that it was the avowed production of Lord Byron's mistress. . . . When time passed on and no voice was raised, I spoke."

That an excitable, emotional, and utterly unworldly person should have done what Mrs. Stowe did under the circumstances, can be a matter of surprise only to those who are so radically different from her in character as to be incapable of forming any adequate conception either of her motives or the deeds which flowed from them.

C. E. STOWE.

SHREWSBURY, July 10, 1896.

Notes.

A TRANSLATION, by Mary J. Safford, of the poems of Johanna Ambrosius, the German peasant poetess, will be brought out by Roberts Brothers.

Macmillan & Co. have in hand 'The Geographical History of Mammals' in the Cambridge Geographical Series.

Dodd, Mead & Co. expect to have ready for subscribers 'American Book-Prices Current,' covering the auction sales at New York, Boston, and Philadelphia from September 1, 1895, to September 1, 1896, by the last of September. There will be a departure for the better from the English model followed last year.

T. Fisher Unwin, London, announces 'Monomotapa (Rhodesia),' by the Hon. A. Wilmot, researches respecting the Ophir of King Solomon; 'Tales of the Transvaal,' by Liscombe Searelle; and 'History and Criticism,' essays on the French Revolution and on "Faust," by H. Schütz Wilson.

A 'Geschichte der Isländischen Dichtung der Neuzeit,' by Dr. Karl Küchler, is announced by Hacke of Leipzig. The introduction, which has just appeared, gives a general survey of Icelandic literature from the middle of the twelfth to the beginning of the nineteenth century. The first number of the body of the book will treat of modern Icelandic novels.

'The Histoire Générale, du iv^e^ siècle à nos jours,' edited by MM. Lavisse and Rambaud (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), continues to appear regularly, and always with the excellent attributes that have marked it in the past, and are to be expected from these editors. It gives sound history, not without vivacity, and with a good apparatus of references to sources and other works. The typography makes it one of the easiest large works to consult. The three volumes now before us deal with the following epochs: The Religious Wars (1559-1648); Louis XIV. (1643-1715); The Eighteenth Century (1715-1789). M. Foucin writes the political history of France for the last period, and M. Lavasseur describes the economic condition of France between 1720 and 1788. The history of the United States is done by M. Moireau. The opportunity tempted us to ascertain the division of space in these three volumes, covering 230 years and containing 2,962 pages. We find that, out of this number, 512 pages are devoted to ecclesiastical history and the condition of religion; 541 pages are devoted to the history of France; 504 to Europe east of the Adriatic and Baltic; 375 to general European affairs, while 230 pages are given to Great Britain, 207 to Germany, 166 to Asia, and 120 to America.

A book of literary appreciations by Gaston Paris, 'Penseurs et Poètes' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), will be apt to surprise those who think of him as a philologist exclusively, and one of those philologists who, if they do not actually deny the existence of literature, at least condemn it. But M. Paris is far from belonging to that class, and the most cursory perusal of his admirable books on mediæval literature suffices to reveal his keen perception and enjoyment of literary beauties. The two longest articles are on Mistral and Sully-Prudhomme, and both are well worth reading. An excellent notice of James Darmesteter, a few souvenirs of Bida, and the funeral oration on Renan, form the remaining parts of the book, an account of Albert Sorel's reception at the French Academy closing the volume.

The two most interesting studies in Gustave Larroumet's fourth series of 'Études de Littérature et d'Art' (Paris: Hachette) are those entitled "Le Monde et les Romanciers," and "L'Art Réaliste et la Critique." Others, on Edmond de Goncourt, Alphonse Daudet, and Pierre Loti, contain nothing very new or striking.

Paul Arène's 'Contes Choisis' (Paris: Charpentier & Fasquelle) is a collection of short tales which may be characterized as "a mixed lot." There are some admirable stories, some very strong ones, some exceedingly amusing, and too many commonplace ones. Taken altogether, there is in them plenty of genuine literary and artistic merit, no lack of dry humor or sparkling wit, and occasional pathos which stops short of sentimentality. "Les Haricots de Pitalugue," "Le Marchand de Marrons," "Mon Ami Naz," "Les Chats," and "La Clef de l'Oncle" deserve special mention.

Mme. Hector Malot's novel 'La Beauté' (Paris: Flammarion) is, in some respects, a curious production. The sculptor who has, deep down within him, some real genius, and is starving because he has neither found himself out nor sold any of his work, is of course a conceivable character; but the way in which his genius suddenly reveals itself, to suddenly vanish and as suddenly reappear in a new direction, is decidedly odd. Mme. Malot seems to have had another purpose besides the telling of her story, but if so she has failed to make it clear, and the book must pass for what it is—a fairly entertaining mediocre novel.

Paul Margueritte's "L'Eau qui dort" (Paris: Colin & Cie.) is scarcely worthy of publication. It is nothing more than a collection of rough sketches, *croquis*, notes, and observations; material for tales, but not possessing sufficient interest to warrant its production in permanent form.

Bibliographers and bibliophiles will be interested in a neat volume entitled 'Die Bücherliebhaberei am Ende des 19. Jahrhunderts,' by Otto Mühlbrecht (Berlin: Puttkammer & Mühlbrecht). After some general remarks on bibliophilism, the author gives brief sketches of Gutenberg, Fust, Aldus Manutius, Caxton, Anton Koburger, Elzevir, and other famous printers to the end of the last century, followed by chapters on special bibliophilism, bibliomania, bibliophilism in England (based upon W. Roberts's 'The Book-Hunter in London' and 'Rare Books and their Prices'), bibliophilism in France (based upon G. Brunet's 'Du Prix des Livres Rares'), and bibliophilism in Holland. The bibliography contains titles of works on the invention of printing, books for and against Gutenberg as the inventor of the art, incunabula, curiosities and rarities, prohibited books, pseudonyms and anonyms, private prints, book-marks, ex-libris, and bindings. There are lists of printers before 1500 and of imprints or places of printing from 1457 to 1830, and a good index.

Part 2 of volume i. of the Massachusetts Census for 1895 has just been issued under the direction of the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor, Horace G. Wadlin. It shows a total population of 2,500,183, or an increase of 261,240 over the Federal Census of 1890. This is most clearly and intelligently displayed in detail, and in comparison with all previous censuses, Provincial, Federal, and State from 1765 down. An account is given of the founding, incorporation, partition, or annexation of each town and city so far as the records permit.

We have received the first number of a "Cumulative Index to a Selected List of Periodicals," dated June, 1896, that issues from the Cleveland (O.) Public Library as its individual enterprise. If supported, it will appear monthly, and the novelty of the scheme lies in the fact that each number, after the first, will embrace all the preceding numbers of the year; the last number thus superseding the rest, and becoming an annual volume. This is made feasible by the use of the linotype process. The subscription price will be determined by the support received, and probably at best will be not less than five dollars (reckoning 400 subscribers). The new Index, of course, competes with Poole's, and one would be sorry to see the latter imperilled. It differs in cataloguing, not only subjects, but authors. The form is quarto.

Whittier's descent from Christopher Hussey of Hampton is circumstantially denied by the Rev. Alonzo H. Quint in the July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. The true ancestor was Robert Hussey of Dover, between whom and Christopher no relationship has as yet been demonstrated. Mr. Henry F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" deal chiefly with the Sherman connection, and no better example could be given of this searcher's mode of throwing a flood of light upon family kinships. Announcement is made that the arrangement under which Mr. Waters has hitherto prosecuted his researches terminates this year unless funds are forthcoming to sustain him, as is greatly to be desired, for a successor is hardly likely ever to be found possessing his rare qualifications. Subscriptions in any amount may be sent to Mr. John Ward Dean, editor of the *Register*, 18 Somerset St., Boston.

History more than art is the theme of Dr. Garnett's monograph on "Richmond" (Richmond of the Thames and not of the James) in the June *Portfolio* (Macmillan). This favorite suburb of London furnishes ample material for agreeable discourse such as Dr. Garnett habitually indulges in, supplementing it here with a profusion of illustrations from old prints and recent sketches, with here and there an etching.

With the current issue, the *Savoy* (London: Leonard Smithers) turns monthly from quarterly, and will now lend itself to serial stories, beginning with one by Mr. George Moore. Mr. Aubrey Beardsley will continue to determine the character of the original illustrations. Noteworthy in the table of contents are Havelock Ellis's second article on Nietzsche (there will be a third), and W. B. Yeats's first of three articles on "William Blake and his Illustrations to the Divine Comedy." Four facsimiles of these strange inventions accompany the article, and one may now compare with Ary Scheffer's and Doré's Francesca da Rimini Blake's feverish vision, whose weakest portion is precisely that which gives pretext and a name to the whole design. As the older illustrators used to show Leander, for instance, swimming the Hellespont and also cast ashore in the same picture, so Blake presents, in a kind of sun, the lovers kissing, that day they read no more, beside their expiatory endless flitting through the shades.

The seventh session of the International Geological Congress will be held at St. Petersburg about the end of August, 1897, early notice of it being now given in the hope of inducing geologists in all parts of the world to arrange their plans so as to embrace its great advantages. Extended excursions are announced, the most important being to the Ural Mountains before, and to the Caucasus after, the meeting at St. Petersburg; the Emperor of Russia having, on the favorable report of the Minister of Public Ways, granted to all geologists duly enrolled for the meeting free first-class railway tickets, good during their sojourn in Russia. In view of so munificent a hospitality, our geologists can hardly afford to stay at home next summer.

The Third International Psychological Congress will be held at Munich, Bavaria, from the 4th to the 7th of August in the halls of the University. The first of these congresses met in Paris during the International Exposition of 1889, under the direction of Prof. Charles Richet, and was devoted to "physiological psychology," and especially to the investigation of the phenomena of hypnotism. The second, known as "The Congress for Experimental Psychology," was held at London in 1892, and, after listening to and discussing forty addresses and papers, adjourned for four years and selected Munich as the next place of meeting. The committee of organization appointed at that time has greatly enlarged the scope of the congress, which will comprise five independent sections: (1.) The physical basis of psychical phenomena, the anatomy of the brain and the province of psychophysics in general (thirty-four papers). (2.) Phenomena of consciousness in the strict sense of the term, psychology of the normal individual, including laws of association, activity of the imagination, doctrines of the emotions and of the will, the evolution of the personality, facts of ethics, etc. (thirty-seven papers). (3.) Psychopathology, genius and insanity, illusions of the senses, fixed ideas, suggestion, psychology and criminology (twenty-seven papers). (4.) Psychology of sleep, dreaming, hypnotism in its application to the healing art, telepathy, mind-reading, etc. (thirty-two papers). (5.) Comparative psychology, mental capacities, and moral conceptions of the lower races of mankind, graphology, the relation of psychology to pedagogy, the instruction of backward children through suggestion, and kindred topics (twenty-four papers). Americans, English, Frenchmen, Germans, and Italians will address the congress each in his own language; Russians will use French. One of the papers read will be by the wife of Prof. Sidgwick of Cambridge, England. The price of membership is fifteen marks, and men and women are admitted on an equal footing in every respect. In the Physical Institute of the University there will be at the same time an exhibition of psychophysical apparatus.

—The first part of the 'English Dialect Dictionary,' edited by Dr. Joseph Wright, printed at the Clarendon Press, and published in London by Henry Frowde, in New York by Messrs. Putnam, extends from A to Ballot, and ends with p. 144. This gives a fair measure of the ultimate bulk of the work, and shows that its completion will be reasonably prompt. The same tract requires 1,014 pages of a larger quarto in the 'New English Dictionary.' The typography of the Dialect Dictionary is in a high degree beautiful and agreeable to the eye, in two broad columns, with full-face titles, and a generous sprinkling of large letter. The pronunciation is indicated by a special, not difficult, phonetic alphabet. Etymologies come last in order, in company with illustrative quotations from standard authors or from early dictionaries—Chaucer, Gower, Spenser, Shakspere, Jonson, Milton,

Bunyan, Butler, Pepys, Addison, down to Tennyson in his dialect verse, Crockett, and Ian Maclaren. Cross-references help us through the maze of variant spellings. The quotations are very liberal in amount, and are drawn from the great store of published glossaries produced by the English Dialect Society, as well as from some in manuscript and the readings of numerous volunteers. The localities of each locution are systematically indicated. Dr. Wright reserves his introduction proper for the close of the work, but stakes out the scope as embracing "the complete vocabulary of all English dialect words which are still in use or are known to have been in use at any time during the last two hundred years in England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales. It will also include American and Colonial dialect words which are still in use in Great Britain and Ireland, or which are to be found in early printed dialect books and glossaries." This demarcation should stimulate American curiosity regarding the Dictionary, seeing that dialectic words and meanings may well survive among us which have become obsolete in the mother country. We can do little more than thus describe an enterprise which has our hearty good wishes, and which is less a novel revelation (though it is that, too) than a skilful arrangement in one alphabet of the lore amassed for a quarter of a century. It is one more feather in the cap of English philology directed upon the English language.

—We are glad to note the official contradiction of a rumor that the Oxford University Press would not push to completion the Oxford Dictionary upon the same lines as heretofore. That were a calamity the thought of which can hardly be entertained. The work as conceived and thus far carried on nearly to the letter G is a monument of which no other language can boast or is likely soon to boast —both of erudition and of disinterested cooperation; a foundation on which all our future English etymologizing must rest, and which is worthy of a large pecuniary sacrifice. On the heels of this contradiction it is particularly gratifying to record the fact that the University of Freiburg, which at present numbers among its professors Dr. F. Kluge, author of the Etymological Dictionary of the German Language, and several other distinguished philologists, has just been giving public expression to the high appreciation in which the 'New English Dictionary' is held by German scholars. In conferring the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, *honoris causa*, upon Dr. Murray, they use the following language, which American scholars with one accord will echo:

"In offering you this degree, our Faculty has been as much determined by the grandeur of your lexicographical performance as by the wish that German science should, in academical form, bear public testimony to its admiration for your life-work. The unrivalled and unique organization, the profound grasp of the individual problems of word history, and the comprehensive mastery of the history of the English language, as a great whole, will be, in the future, a model to us Germans, if we one day, after the completion of Grimm's 'Wörterbuch,' turn our eyes to the plan of a 'New German Dictionary.' The Faculty cherishes the wish that it may be granted to you to conduct your great undertaking to a happy conclusion, that the grand programme which you have elaborated and carried through in the early letters will be continued on the same admirable scale in succeeding parts. If the concurrent voice of German science gives you an assurance that you have hitherto realized your programme with a completeness beyond all anticipation, we would fain address to you a hearty godspeed for the continuation of your labors. We know what exertions, physical and mental, you devote to the *magnum opus*, and we earnestly wish that courage, and strength, and cheerfulness may remain with you undiminished for the work that still lies before you."

—Dr. C. W. Larison's 'Reminissensez ov Scul Lif' (Ringoes, N. J.: Fonic Publishing House), though tediously minute and spun out, are graphic and impressive. They are mainly devoted to the District School, of which they give a vivid picture, portraying every teacher and almost every fellow-pupil of the author. The historical value of this representation of a crude and barbarous relation between teacher and taught—the pranks, the floggings, and the barrings-out—is by no means inconsiderable. The author was never instructed by women, and makes no reflections on the cause of the great amelioration in the manners of the district school since the employment of women has grown to be all but universal. Another chapter, scarcely less suggestive and even more grewsome, is that on manners at one of Philadelphia's leading medical schools on the eve of the civil war, before the formal secession of the Southern students. Dr. Larison's exceptional difficulty in learning to spell, which early made him a radical phonetic reformer, has resulted in his clothing his narrative in a special phonetic type, which offers a decided impediment to those who read with their eyes and not with their ears. He has needlessly enhanced this difficulty by enforcing another hobby, viz., the conversion of strong verbs into weak, writing *nod* for knew and known, *sited* for sat, etc.; and by introducing an epicene pronoun *thone* for his or her, and even for they, those, and "one." In all this he illustrates his own observation, that boys initiated by hazing at school were prompt to torment "every verdant new-comer."

—There have been few more important exhibitions in Paris recently than the Exposition du Livre, held some eighteen months since in the Palais de l'Industrie. It had, however, a retrospective rather than a contemporary interest. Now, serving as a sequel to it, an international exhibition of the modern book has been opened at the Salon de l'Art Nouveau. This private gallery, decorated within by M. Besnard, without by Mr. Brangwyn, has become known chiefly as the headquarters of all that is—in latter-day cant —most advanced and revolutionary in modern art, domestic or foreign. As a showroom it has attempted to do much the same thing that the German *Pan* would accomplish as an illustrated periodical. But in the new exhibition a more liberal standard has been set, though in one or two sections, especially in the array of foreign books, there is no mistaking the ruling prejudices and tendencies of its Directors. The collection is arranged in several separate departments. There is a fine series of manuscript and printed books, illustrated with original drawings, though only French collectors have been borrowed from. Then there are books entirely engraved on wood, Pissarro's 'Queen of the Fishes,' for instance; or else with text and drawings alike lithographed or etched. Then follow books produced in the ordinary way, classified according to the method of illustration used, whether wood-engraving or lithography, whether etching or process; and in this division is found, among English specimens, a preponderance of the work of men who pose as decadents, or mystics, or symbolists. United States publishers make so poor a showing that the American section really is not worth notice; it could not well be more unrepresentative. For many people nothing in the gallery will have greater fascination than the authors' manuscripts, including as they do the work of Balzac and Baudelaire, of Gautier and Dumas *père*, of Hugo and Renan, and, indeed, of such a multitude of distinguished men that to mention them all would be to write another catalogue. None of the materials used in the manufacture of books has been omitted: paper, ink, type, all have received due attention. Nor have book-bindings and original designs for covers been neglected, even if here, more perhaps than in other sections, French designers alone have had justice done to them. The truth is, it would have been wiser not to give the collection the ambitious title of international. Book-plates are shown, of course, but fortunately not in such immoderate numbers as to satisfy the irrepressible collector. And, not least important, there is a well-made catalogue, printed on good paper, and decorated by Vallotton with designs, more pleasing in themselves than appropriate to its pages; but it abounds with inexcusable misprints.

—The first International Congress of Publishers met in Paris on June 16, under the patronage of MM. Hanotaux, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Rambaud, Minister of Public Instruction, and under the presidency of M. Henry Boucher. About two hundred persons, representing the chief publishing-houses of Europe, were present. During the sessions of the Congress, M. Georges Masson, the newly elected president, occupied the chair. Much of the work of the Congress was done in committee, and the debates in the public sessions were smooth, for the most part, and perhaps a little dull. Nothing, in fact, was reported which could be called contentious. The first question concerned what is called the *dépôt légal*—that is, the deposit of two copies of each book that is published in the national collection. This was made obligatory in France as long ago as the time of Francis I., and is required in other countries, though not universally. It was decided by the Congress that this deposit ought to be made by the publisher, or, failing him, by the author, and not by the printer, as is now customary. Another important question concerned the publication of extracts from a book, whether for mere temporary use in newspapers or magazines, or in the more permanent form of a volume of selections. The reproduction of a literary work by means of public lectures was also considered at the same time. It was held that, in principle, every reproduction ought to depend on the authorization of the owner of the copyright. Still, from an international point of view, brief extracts in books for school use might be reciprocally permitted, as well as passages quoted for criticism, or in literary theses. The reproduction of any book by means of public lectures without the consent of its owner was condemned. The Congress also passed resolutions urging adhesions to the convention of Berne, and demanding that in catalogues there should be added to the description of *formats* now in use a statement of the dimensions of each book in centimetres. The protection of photographs was also discussed, but was passed over without action. A report from M. Ferdinand Brunetière on the reproduction of newspaper articles was also passed over, owing to the absence of its writer. Towards the end of the Congress its calm was broken by a proposition

made from the floor by a publisher whose name is not given in any of the half-dozen newspaper reports that we have seen. He raised brusquely the scandalous question of "editions." Both the public and the authors, he said, were cheated by a use of that word which is far too common. To divide a thousand copies of a book into five editions, or to use the word "thousand" on a title-page to designate an actual five hundred, was a cheat that justly called for the intervention of the State. This outspoken declaration threw a coolness over the meeting. The question was handled very gingerly by the Congress, which voted finally to take no action whatever in the matter, "comme ne présentant pas d'intérêt international." The Congress ended on the 19th with the usual banquet and speeches.

STEVENSON'S VAILIMA LETTERS.

Vailima Letters: Being Correspondence addressed by Robert Louis Stevenson to Sidney Colvin. In two volumes. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

THE personal affection with which Stevenson inspired so many of his contemporaries was due as much, perhaps, to his amiable egotism as to the fascination of his finished work. For this wide congregation of readers, Stevenson's letters, of which these from Samoa are a first instalment, will have something of the charm of a new romance. They unite the exotic interest of a book of travels with the record of a literary life, and in both these phases present the self-painted portrait of a man of genius, who for a brief space exercised a larger personal sway than any other literary worker of his generation. In this frank and genial presence the critical attitude may be relaxed. By reason of our closeness of range we are precluded from assigning to a writer of our own language and time his abiding place in literature, but of the man's personality no future age can be so competent a judge as our own. Stevenson's works belong to the future; Stevenson himself was ours.

The Vailima Letters extend from November, 1890, to October, 1894. They were written to Mr. Sidney Colvin in pursuance of a plan, not always punctually adhered to, of furnishing Stevenson's friends in England with a monthly account of his Samoan life. They occupy a place apart. Stevenson had never before maintained a regular correspondence; he was subject, like Scott and most men of his genus, to attacks of epistolary paralysis. Already in the first monthly budget, however, he has a glimpse of the trick: "I begin to see," he says, "the whole scheme of letter-writing: you sit down every day and pour out an equable stream of twaddle." The letters were begun without a thought of publicity. It is not until June, 1892, that it occurs to him: "This diary of mine to you would make good pickings after I am dead, and a man could make some kind of a book out of it without much trouble." Upon this hint Mr. Colvin has acted—wisely, however, allowing the book to make itself; nor is there, from this point on, any alteration in the easy undress of Stevenson's manner to indicate that he had the wider audience in view.

To all who have felt personally drawn to Stevenson, the chief charm of his letters will be, of course, the underlying one: the winning character they unconsciously reveal of the writer—the indefatigable energy of the invalid, his wide sympathies constantly enlisted in behalf of others, the persistent cheerfulness of the homesick exile, and the resolute will to maintain, in spite of the unsound body, a sound and active mind. His industry was remarkable. "The ancient earth summoned him to a daily birth." He fought his way through tropical forests and endured the arduous outdoor labors of a planter, in an athletic effort to wrest health from an unwilling destiny. At home, page after page passed painfully from his correcting pen to the distant printer. And his lively sympathy with the "distracted archipelago of children" in whose midst he lived, led him to take an active part in the complicated island politics, until Tusitala had become an important factor, to be reckoned with at every political crisis. This was the range of his activity—broken often by illness—which these letters cover. "It is a hard and interesting and beautiful life," he writes; and over his narrative of its difficulties, its interests, and its beauties he has spread that charm which is peculiarly his own.

To a certain class of readers, which, Mr. Lang believes, will constitute the majority, the ample record of Stevenson's literary work will be the most valuable portion of these volumes. References to these labors are full and frequent. He drove four-in-hand, a practice which has left us to regret so many fragments among his literary remains. Many an instructive paragraph bears witness to the scrupulous care with which he made what Kipling calls "the most delicate inlay work in black and white." Although he sometimes devoted six and even eight hours a day to composition, his books grew slowly. "I break down at every paragraph," he writes of 'The Ebb Tide,' which of all his works cost him the most labor, "and lie here and sweat till I can get one sentence wrung out after another." We can understand, after that, the heartfelt "Deo gratias" with which the manuscript of that tale is signed. Financial needs added their irksome pressure. "If literature were only a pastime!" he exclaimed; and again, in a fit of more general disgust, he cried: "The devil fly away with literature for the basest sport in creation." But there is also ample evidence of the high reverence he felt for the more essential qualities of his art, around which he had thrown the well-fitting garment of his style. Appreciative criticisms of the work of his fellow-craftsmen abound, and, in judging of his own creations, he is singularly free from the fatuity which usually attends the self-estimates of authors. 'The Beach of Falesá' he regards as in some ways his best work, and "ill to equal." "I'm not shining by modesty, but I do just love the color and movement of that piece," and in this judgment the public has followed him. It is the perfection of story-telling. Of 'The Master of Ballantrae' he writes: "That lacked all pleasurableness, and hence was imperfect in essence"—the defect which all thoughtful readers have felt; for, strong as the story is, it contains not one sympathetic character. 'David Balfour' is a "pretty piece of workmanship"; "I am far from displeased with the tailie." And it is a satisfaction to find him denouncing his unpardonable 'Body-Snatcher' as "beastly."

Stevenson enjoyed a full measure of popularity during his lifetime, but it is pathetic to observe towards the end his haunting fear lest that popularity be on the wane. "If only the public will continue to support me!" is his cry in 1892. "I lost my chance not dying; there seems blooming little fear of it now." In his last sad letter, he states his position gloomily: "I am a fictitious article and have long known it. I am read by journalists, by my fellow-novelists, and by boys; with these, *incipit et explicit* my vogue." The vigor of 'Weir of Hermiston' shows how groundless were these fears, but Stevenson in his last years had joined the old philosophers in proclaiming the futility of struggling for a recompense: "The world must return some day to the word duty, and be done with the word reward. There are no rewards, and plenty duties. And the sooner a man sees that and acts upon it like a gentleman or a fine old barbarian, the better for himself." "And yet," he writes two years later, "and yet—one would like to leave an image for a few years upon men's minds—for fun."

These letters are not "composed," but Stevenson's literary art is spontaneously apparent in the passages which describe natural phenomena in the tropics. He went "crazy over out-door life," and labored until he was "in such a state that Carolina Wilhelmina Skeggs could scarce have found a name for it." The weird power of the tropical forest appealed to him:

> "My long, silent contests in the forest have had a strange effect on me. The unconcealed vitality of these vegetables, their exuberant number and strength, the attempts—I can use no other word—of lianas to enwrap and capture the intruder, the awful silence, the knowledge that all my efforts are only like the performance of an actor, the thing of a moment, and the wood will silently and swiftly heal them up with fresh effervescence; . . . the whole silent battle, murder, and slow death of the contending forest weigh upon the imagination."

At another time he catches a glimpse of the weirdness which for the Samoan filled all nature with poetry and awe: "In the forest, the dead wood is phosphorescent; some nights the whole ground is strewn with it, so that it seems like a grating over a pale hell." It is "rather bogey even." Occasionally is revealed the hand that wrote the 'Travels with a Donkey,' as when he is telling of his struggles with the sensitive plant: "Rome had virtue and knowledge; Rome perished. The sensitive plant has indigestible seeds—so they say—and it will flourish forever. I give my advice thus to a young plant—have a strong root, a weak stem, and an indigestible seed; so you will outlast the eternal city, and your progeny will clothe mountains, and the irascible planter will blaspheme in vain."

Into the details of island politics it is unnecessary to enter here. Stevenson's ringing letters to the *Times*, and the direct influence he exerted, are a well-known chapter in the history of the Samoan troubles. The work was not a meddler's pleasure, but a hard and irksome duty which his generous nature imposed upon him. "Politics is a vile and bungling business," he writes; "I used to think meanly of the plumber, but how he shines beside the politician!" We confess that to us these accounts, by a keen and sympathetic observer, of foreign intrigue and native war are intensely interesting reading. If Mr. Colvin grew tired of the "blacks and chocolates," it is evident from his footnote and epilogue that he regretted having said so. Stevenson took the rebuff to heart. "Please remember that my life passes among 'my blacks and chocolates.' If I were to do as you propose in a bit of a tiff, it would cut me off entirely from my life. . . . I think you are truly a little too cockney with me." Mr. Colvin's literary criticisms, too, however salutary, seem to have been scarcely soothing. But the interests of the islanders were vital to Steven-

son. His duty to them was the duty that lay nearest to him, and in this conscientious spirit his 'Footnote to History' was conceived. In his eagerness that its publication should be timely, he even did violence to his nature and forebore to polish. The "Road of Loving Hearts" is a testimonial of the love the natives bore him, the more impressive since it came from men averse to manual labor and still unconvinced of the utility of roads. The descriptions of Samoan manners, their feasts, their sports, the solemn preparation of kava, are the best we have. The passage deserves quotation in which the European draws a contrast between himself and the Samoan whom he is instructing:

"The Polynesian loves gaiety—I feed him with decimals, the mariner's compass, derivations, grammar, and the like; delecting myself, after the manner of my race, *moult tristement*. I suck my paws; I live for my dexterities and by my accomplishments; even my clumsinesses are my joy—my woodcuts, my stumbling on the pipe, this surveying even—and even weeding sensitive; anything to do with the mind, with the eye, with the hand—with a part of *me;* diversion flows in these ways for the dreary man. But gaiety is what these children want; to sit in a crowd, tell stories and pass jests, to hear one another laugh and scamper with the girls. It's good fun, too, I believe, but not for R. L. S. *ætat.* 40. Which I am now past forty, Custodian, and not one penny the worse that I can see; as amusable as ever. . . . Only, if ever I was gay, which I misremember, I am gay no more. And here is poor Henry passing his evenings on my intellectual husks, which the professors masticated."

But Stevenson had his moments of outward gaiety at least, and these volumes record his revels, now as the merry host, now doing "the affable celebrity life-size" in Apia, now as the chief guest at the feasts of the native king. Cheerfulness was his rôle. "I believe in the ultimate decency of things," he wrote; "ay, and if I woke in hell, should still believe it!" And yet, though without bitterness, his life was essentially a sad one. "I was only happy once; that was at Hyères; it came to an end from a variety of reasons, decline of health, change of place, increase of money, age with his stealing steps; since then, as before then, I know not what it means. But I know pleasure still; pleasure with a thousand faces, and none perfect, a thousand tongues all broken, a thousand hands, and all of them with scratching nails." To a man of his ardent and athletic temperament, the restraints which his frailty of body imposed upon him were humiliating. And then, through all the years of his wanderings in the South Seas, ran the sorrow of the exile, haunted by "old memories of the wet moorland." When he read in the 'Stickit Minister' the dedication to himself, 'Where about the graves of the martyrs the whaups are crying, *his* heart remembers now,' "Ah, by God, it does!" he wrote. "Singular that I should fulfil the Scot's destiny throughout, and live a voluntary exile, and have my head filled with the blessed, beastly place all the time!" He wished that he might be buried among the hills under the heather, but he knew that Vaea Mountain was to be his tomb, and that was beautiful, too. He died as he had hoped to die, and not in the Land of Counterpane.

The beauty of these letters lies, as we have said, in the character of the noble fellow—Stevenson would have liked the word—that speaks from their pages. There is no harsh judgment, no false or bitter note. The cheerful benevolence of the man kept his sweet qualities on top. But he was unwilling to pose as anything like a saint, and is reported to have said so with somewhat profane emphasis; as a man among men, he wished to have it known that he was subject to the frailties of his fellows. "Vital—that's what I am at first—wholly vital, with a buoyancy of life"; and although he spoke these words of his writings, they apply to himself as well. Herein we have the clue to that personal affection which he inspired and which these letters can only serve to deepen.

THE MAID OF ORLEANS.

Joan of Arc. By Francis C. Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

Jeanne d'Arc: Her Life and Death. By Mrs. Oliphant. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

Personal Recollections of Joan of Arc. By the Sieur Louis de Conte, Her Page and Secretary (Mark Twain). Harper & Bros. 1896.

ONE finds it hard to avoid the use of swelling words when he writes about the Maid of Orleans. Even if we believed with Cauchon and the court at Rouen that she was a witch, we could not class her with the commonplace witches of Suffolk and Salem. If we discard the witch theory, nothing is left but to honor the heroine and martyr. Revering her thus, one ventures to say that the perennial interest in her career and character is a credit to human nature. Her patriotism has been most praised, but enthusiasm, unselfishness, and devotion are her elementary and permanent qualities. Just now the sentiment of nationality holds the field. In some later age another political ideal may fill the same place. Enthusiasm, unselfishness, and devotion can never be out of date.

The simultaneous appearance of three English books on Joan of Arc shows that the race she turned back from the Loire is willing to contribute to the growth of her fame. Perhaps Mrs. Oliphant should be exempted from ancestral complicity in the Hundred Years' War. As a Scot she formally wipes her hands of it and of Joan's execution. "Scotland is entirely guiltless of this crime. The Scots were fighting on the side of France through all these wars, a little, perhaps, for love of France, but much more out of hostility to the English." The two American authors lack Mrs. Oliphant's loophole, and must acknowledge the sins of their ancestors. They do their best, however, to make the *amende honorable*. Fervid admiration shines through the sound and exhaustive narrative of Mr. Lowell. Mark Twain equals Michelet in the sincerity and volume of his praise. We feel sure that if they, with Mrs. Oliphant, were established a court to decide upon Joan's right to canonization, she would soon be exalted from her present low state of "Venerable" to full and unquestioned saintship.

The nature of each of these three volumes can best be indicated by a cross-reference to the nature of the other two. Mr. Lowell writes a learned and compact biography. Mark Twain writes a romantic character-sketch. Mrs. Oliphant, with only moderate success, strives to combine the merits of both biography and romance; strives to combine fact with picturesqueness, history with rhetoric. None of them makes a stumbling-block of the psychological problem presented by Joan's obedience to her Voices. They trace her, step by step, from Domremy to the stake in the light of her deeds, rather than in the light of her mysterious connection with the spiritual world. Mr. Lowell is particularly clear in his attitude towards the extra-human promptings by which she was stirred. He accepts her own statements at the trial concerning them.

"Joan had subjective sensations of light and sound . . . without external cause sufficient to produce like sensations in others. Precisely what these sensations were, we do not know. The sensations of sounds sometimes, at least, were those of particular words; the sensations of sight were less definite, but apparently they were sometimes visions of definite forms in human similitude. The sensations of sound were usually accompanied by a somewhat indefinite sensation of light. Apart from these abnormal sensations, Joan seems to have been a girl perfectly healthy and well developed, both physically and mentally. . . . It seems to follow, then, that our opinion concerning Joan's insanity or inspiration is likely to depend not much on our beliefs concerning Joan, but principally upon our beliefs concerning insanity and inspiration."

This is a clear attitude for a historian to adopt towards a psychological problem, but it is too short a cut to be wholly satisfactory. Our writers alike neglect to consider the influence of folk-lore on the girl's mind. The prophecy of Merlin in its Champagnard form foretold the salvation of France by a virgin after its betrayal by a woman. Isabella, the Dauphin's mother, might well, in 1423, have seemed to be the traitor. The local version of the prophecy made the virgin come out of the forest of Domremy—a pretty direct prompting to sensitively patriotic minds in that region. We do not pretend that folk-lore offers a complete solution of the difficulty, but it deserves to be noticed before the riddle is handed over in its nakedness to pathologists and metaphysicians. Comparing our three authors in the important matter of knowledge, it may be said that Mr. Lowell alone has mastered the sources and literature of the subject. Erudition is hardly to be expected in Mark Twain's romantic portrayal of one whose charm is independent of minute lore. But Mrs. Oliphant, even while writing for a hero-worship series, might have fortified herself with more material without detriment to the strictly heroic aspects of her theme. Let us now proceed to a separate examination of the volumes.

In the case of Joan, *Aberglaube* began early. Mr. Lowell's design is to exclude the legendary element by stating just what is known of her actual life and achievements. He treats her contemporaries in the same way. For instance, he rejects the romantic story, so long accepted by English historians, of the influence of Agnes Sorel upon Charles VII. in the years 1442-43. There is hardly a shadow of doubt that Charles was weak beyond redemption. On the other hand, Cauchon receives partial rehabilitation. For the world he has long been "that bastard of Satan, Pierre Cauchon, Bishop of Beauvais." Mr. Lowell does not praise him but gives him his due. "It needs no argument to prove that his belief in her possession by the Devil was sincere; and his tireless energy and eminent respectability made him a most suitable agent to treat for her surrender to the English." Joan herself stands the test of Mr. Lowell's winnowing process better than any of her enemies or of her friends. Her personality is so strong and pure and simple that the fiercest light of comparative criticism fails to disclose a serious blot. We now see a different character from Voltaire's "La Pucelle," the distorted victim of the most disgraceful poem

ever written by a man of European influence. Quicherat's Joan of Arc—for of course Mr. Lowell, with all others, must follow Quicherat—is unsmirched. She is a militant girl-prophetess, merciful, guileless, and with but one aim. Her mission accomplished, she would fain go home to her mother. Believing in herself, she wins the trust of a people cowed by fourteen years of defeat and treachery. She succeeds in everything for a time; then for a time fails in almost everything. Only sixteen months after her appearance to Robert de Baudricourt at Vaucouleurs, she is taken prisoner at Compiègne. In confinement and under trial she shows a steady confidence in her inspiration, and dies at the stake with *Jesus* on her lips. Such is the nature of a life that closed before its twentieth year. The evidence is full and certain and points to one conclusion. The Maid of Orleans is raised above cavil or innuendo. She is the supreme triumph of the French peasantry. The payment of the five milliards was much, but it was less than the production of such a paragon.

Joan's active life falls into three periods. The first extends from the beginning of her mission to the coronation at Rheims; the second comprises her operations in northern France; the third covers the year between her capture at Compiègne and her execution at Rouen. The first period is her time of triumph, the second her time of misfortune, the third her time of trial. Mr. Lowell, though he does not make this formal distinction, seems to bear it in mind. The first and third periods are treated at considerably greater length than the second. The relief of Orleans, the campaign of the Loire, the capture of Troyes, and the coronation are the coruscating incidents of Joan's first period. They are the justification of her mission and the cause of modern French allegiance to her memory. Mr. Lowell describes carefully the stages of her progress towards the command of the Dauphin's army—the conviction carried by her sincerity, the first interview at Chinon, the examination at Poitiers. The strong impression left by a scrutiny of these events is that the great used her to impress the masses. On the march to Orleans she was deceived by the false topographical information of her own staff, who distrusted her plan of attacking the enemy at sight. The people of Orleans believed where the politicians and generals doubted or wavered. The moment she came within their walls the citizens felt that they were delivered, or, as the Journal of the Siege puts it, "already unsieged." "Now all felt greatly comforted, and, as it were, already unsieged, through the divine virtue of which they had heard in this simple maid; whom they regarded right lovingly, both men and women and likewise the little children." By the inspiration of confidence like this the victories of the first period were won.

During the second period the Maid was baffled and thwarted by the intrigues of French and Burgundian politicians, and her prestige suffered decline. When she offered up her arms in the Church of St. Denis, her work was done. The retreat from before Paris was her final disappointment. "Before that time she had met with many obstacles, but had overcome them; thereafter her efforts generally failed." Even her immediate contemporaries could see the difference. "Thus," says Cagny, "was broken the will of the Maid and of the King's army." Mr. Lowell gives a good account of Joan's captivity and the negotiations for her purchase. We are disposed to palliate her attempt at suicide in Beaurevoir Castle on the ground of her defenceless position. The circumstances of her jump from the tower were not precisely those of Rebecca's threat to Bois Guilbert, but they might have become so at any moment. Kipling's advice to the young British soldier will plead for the distracted Maid:

> "When you're wounded and left on Afghanistan's plains,
> And the women come out to cut up what remains,
> Jest roll to your rifle and blow out your brains
> An' go to your Gawd like a soldier."

Joan's plight seemed to her equally desperate. We also lay little stress on her recantation. Mr. Lowell is most intelligible here. The Maid was illiterate. It was represented to her that if she changed her dress and submitted to the Church's authority her life would be spared. She must have been ignorant of what she was signing. The skill she displayed in her oral defence was inapplicable to a written document. In the sense that she denied her Voices and abandoned her self-respect under pressure of fear, she made no recantation.

We offer but two criticisms of Mr. Lowell's work which can be construed as adverse. Though clear, the merits of his style hardly come up to the merits of his research and reflection. In the second place, we think that he should have insisted more fully on the failure of the French to lift a finger in Joan's behalf during her captivity. He, of course, calls attention to their remissness, but a fuller analysis of motive should accompany the statement of such scandalous ingratitude. After her failures, did her own people regard her as a witch? Or had she become inconvenient? Or was neglect to act due to mere supineness? It seems to us that a complete life of Joan ought to discuss at length the matter of her desertion.

Mrs. Oliphant's 'Jeanne d'Arc' is somewhat unfortunate in the moment of its appearance. Had it been published either earlier or later it might have escaped comparison with Mr. Lowell's careful study. The mere fact of juxtaposition renders comparison inevitable, and the result is wholly in Mr. Lowell's favor. Mrs. Oliphant is an experienced and skilful bookmaker, but her facility of style has led in this instance to an imperfect study of the period and person treated. Bits of rhetorical writing (*e. g.*, pp. 12-19, 140-143) fail to compensate for lack of thorough research. The author's personality is obtruded between the subject and the reader. There are few traces of the sifting process; and though graphic passages sometimes occur, the general effect is one of haste and crudeness. We could easily make a long list of Mrs. Oliphant's shortcomings, but their general nature will be seen from half-a-dozen instances.

We are told that France in the fifteenth century had ceased to be the centralized kingdom it once was. "A strong and splendid kingdom to which, in early ages, one great man had given the force and supremacy of a united nation, had fallen into disintegration," etc. Does Mrs. Oliphant refer here to Charlemagne, and was Charlemagne a Frenchman? Chapter II. opens: "In the year 1424, the year in which, after the battle of Agincourt, France was delivered over to Henry V., an extraordinary event occurred in the life of this little French peasant." How could one who knew anything about the period be betrayed into such chronology? Henry V. was already in his grave in 1424. Again, in translating the letter addressed by Joan to the English just prior to the relief of Orleans, Mrs. Oliphant renders William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, William de la Poule, Count of Sulford. She styles Normandy "the most securely English of all French provinces," whereas the district of Bordeaux was more English than England. She amusingly misstates the amount of Joan's purchase money, putting it at 6,000 instead of at 10,000 livres. Six thousand was the first offer, but it was refused. The division of the purchase money is also a source of error. It went to John of Luxemburg and to Lionel of Wandonne. None of it reached Joan's original captor, the Picard archer.

Mrs. Oliphant is frank enough to admit the derived character of her book. Her recognitions to Mr. Andrew Lang are frequent, and her debt to Michelet is probably of equal magnitude. Once when she has to choose between them she follows Michelet. "Shortly after her return to Vaucouleurs (I again follow Michelet, who ought to be well informed) a messenger from Chinon arrived to take her to the King." And at the foot of the page: "Mr. Andrew Lang will not hear of this. He thinks," etc. Accuracy in noting down the results of the best recent historians is all we expect from the writer of an introductory sketch. Where accuracy is lacking we begin to feel the hollowness of the second-hand production. Mrs. Oliphant does not atone, by the liberal smattering of French phrases over a page, for the want of care which mars her narrative.

Mark Twain, in his 'Personal Recollections of Joan of Arc,' essays what we may call the prose epic rather than the historical novel. The historical novel has plot and intrigue. When it has a great historical figure for its centrepiece, either he is made a *deus ex machina*, or else he consorts familiarly with minor personages to the detriment of his historical dignity. Mark Twain has released Joan of Arc from the disadvantages of both these rôles by hitting upon the biographical form, and excluding all action which does not relate to the heroine's life. The story is put into the mouth of an actual fifteenth-century knight, the Sieur de Conte, Joan's page. It was he who, at the Rehabilitation trial, told the story of Joan's kindness to the English soldier on the battlefield of Patay. Mark Twain makes him her companion from childhood to the end. He was by her side in the wars, and when she was taken to Rouen for trial, he entered the city in disguise and became a secretary in the court. The fiction is ingenious, and Dumas's talent might have made it the basis of a masterpiece. The trouble with Mark Twain's treatment is that, while purporting to be archaic, it is extremely modern. The fifteenth-century diction is but indifferently caught, the style is much too vigorous for a man of eighty-two, and the sentiment—even the sentimentality—is far from being mediæval. In these respects let the concluding words of the Sieur de Conte speak for themselves: "Love, Mercy, Charity, Fortitude, War, Peace, Poetry, Music—these may be symbolized as any shall prefer: by figures of either sex and of any age; but a slender girl in her first young bloom, with the martyr's crown upon her head, and in her hands the sword that severed her country's bonds—shall not this, and no other, stand for Patriotism through all the ages until time shall end?"

The substance of the Sieur de Conte's "Recollections" is better than their form. Mark Twain has limitless funds of energy; and energy, even vehemence, is needed in the description of these old skirmishes and battles,

He clearly grasps the quality of *élan* in Joan's nature, subdued though it was by tenderness. Humor is excluded somewhat too rigorously, for a proper admixture of it would enliven the long stretches of De Conte's devotion. Devotion running into idolatry is the burden of his song. "I came to comprehend and recognize her at last for what she was—the most noble life that was ever born into this world save only One." Mark Twain would even have us see in Joan a great general. We need an occasional bretzel of humor to give us thirst for so much sweet sack of praise. Joan's dialogue is good and full of shrewdness. It includes the bulk of the imaginative part—for the general sequence of the story rests on a foundation of fact—and it proves that Mark Twain can write in serious strain and with power. We hope that if he makes another excursion into this field of historical idealism, he will add incident and keep panegyric within artistic bounds. The merit of the present volume is that it seizes the undying charm of Joan's character, and presents her in living flesh and blood to thousands for whom she would otherwise be a mere name.

ISRAEL AMONG THE NATIONS.

Israel among the Nations: A Study of the Jews and Anti-Semitism. By Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu. Translated by Frances Hellman. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895.

A MERE presentation of facts is far within the limits of this writer's clear intent. He is trying to make others see and feel as he does concerning a great moral question. But it would be a mistake to suppose, because the book is brilliant and fascinating and everywhere "touched with emotion," that its underlying substance is not of the strongest. No one can have M. Leroy-Beaulieu's gift and passion for epigram without sometimes abusing his skill, but the excesses of this sort do not affect his general soundness and sobriety, and his book should be read carefully and conscientiously by every one who desires to be written as one who loves his fellow-men.

There will not be many readers who will find omitted here any aspects of the Jewish question which they think important, and the majority will find a great many vividly presented of which they have never thought. Mr. Goldwin Smith's vigorous article, "The Jewish Question," in his 'Essays on Questions of the Day,' is very comprehensive; but those who may turn to it for a correction of M. Leroy-Beaulieu's possible humanitarian excess, will find that the French author has touched all Mr. Smith's points, allowing many of his allegations to be just, but seeing things much more in their true relations, covering a far wider ground, and considering carefully important matters to which Mr. Smith has paid no attention, such as the comparative morality of Jews and Christians, the supposed singularity of certain Jewish traits, and especially the responsibility for some of these inhering in the historical fortunes of the Jews among Christian peoples. M. Leroy-Beaulieu is very far from Mr. Smith's persuasion that Christianity has no "particular interest" in Judaism nor "any particular duty concerning it." A very particular interest would seem to be involved in the fact that the God of Christianity was born a Jew and wore the outward semblance of a Jew; and a particular duty in the centuries of Christian hatred and abuse which have done more than his race or his religion to make the Jew whatever he is to day. It is an interesting fact that the teachings of Jesus were, in the opinion of many eminent scholars, much nearer to the Judaism of his time than to our Christian orthodoxy. A minor difference between Mr. Smith and M. Leroy-Beaulieu is that Mr. Smith's Jews are all millionaires, and a great many of M. Leroy-Beaulieu's are miserably poor.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu does not endeavor to ingratiate himself with his American readers in the introduction, which is particularly addressed to them. He anticipates a position taken in one of the later chapters, namely, that what is called the Judaizing of modern society ought to be called its Americanizing. It is the subjection of society to the typical characteristics of democratic industrial society—"the ascendancy of material interests, the greed for money, the frantic race for wealth." These characteristics are now becoming dominant in all parts of the Old World, but they were first revealed in the United States quite unmistakably, and they have been developed there upon the largest scale. In subsequent editions M. Leroy-Beaulieu may feel obliged to revise this passage, in view of the willingness which thousands of Americans have recently shown to exchange the sordid triumphs of industrial prosperity for the bloody laurels of a fratricidal war. His contention is not that anti-Semitism represents no healthy tendencies whatsoever. "It is within its rightful province when it assails the worship of money, the scandalous barter of political influence," etc. But as he assures us that these things are not peculiarly Semitic, it does not appear why opposition to them should be regarded as in any proper sense anti-Semitic. At this point rhetorical artifice seems to have got the better of the simple truth.

The arrangement of the book is symmetrical and progressive, and sets out with certain estimates of the number and distribution of the Jews. Of some eight millions, six or seven are in Europe, four to five in Russia, seventeen hundred thousand in Austria-Hungary, in Germany six hundred thousand; in England one hundred, in France eighty, in Italy fifty, and in North America about five hundred thousand. The Jews were never so widely scattered as at present, the centre of density being in Poland; and the tendency, for a long time from west to east, is now strikingly from east to west. "The old European and especially the young American states run the risk of being swept by a long tidal wave of Jewish emigration."

We pass in the second chapter to a study of "the oldest grievance" against the Jews, "the religious." This is no longer the principal grievance, and, in so far as it is one at all, it is largely of Talmudic origin. M. Leroy-Beaulieu writes of the different strata in the Talmud with a satisfying clearness which, since the brilliant essay of Emanuel Deutsch, has not been often realized. But the Talmud is gradually relaxing its hold upon the Jewish mind. Its reign is perpetuated only by Christian exclusiveness. When, however, M. Leroy-Beaulieu says of its final abdication, "Perhaps not more than one or two centuries will be needful to bring this about," it is evident that he is not unduly optimistic. A dozen or twenty years would be long enough for many prophet souls, "brooding on things to come." The fantastic character of the Jew in folk-lore furnishes some interesting pages, and the fable of ritualistic murder others. What is no fable is the Christian stealing and violent baptism of thousands of Jewish children—a fate their parents dreaded for them more than death.

The discussion turns in the third chapter on the relation of the Jews to modern ideas, and here the contention is that the Jew has been much more of a passive recipient or industrious middleman than an original manufacturer. The Jew is naturally conservative, but the modern spirit has been too powerful even for his hard material. "In this respect, as in almost all others, and in regard to modern as well as mediæval times, the Jew is only the agent of transmission, a broker. The intellectual commodities which he offers and retails to us are generally not of his own making; they do not originate with him; he took them from us, from our workshops and our laboratories." If the writer is wrong in this persuasion his whole book is wrong, for nothing is more central to it than its insistence upon the Jew's lack of originality, combined with a surprising negative plasticity, a marked susceptibility to the impressions of his environment. The race question is next considered, and the treatment sympathizes with the ideas of Renan and Darmesteter as to the unreality of the antithesis of Aryan and Semite. The Aryans are not pure Aryans and the Semites are not pure Semites. They are very far from being so. It is not their race, but Christian law and clergy and government, that have made the Jew what he is—"the result of a penning in, of all that is comprised in the word Ghetto." This conception is developed in a chapter that deserves the carefullest attention, seeing that its corollary is, Let the Jew cease to isolate himself and the Christian cease to isolate him, and he will soon be as much like other people as can be desired. His passion for ritual cleanness has been one of his most isolating traits, but it has not been inconsistent with a reckless disregard of the most ordinary personal cleanliness and indifference to practical hygiene. Of late he has been de-Talmudizing and de-rabbinizing himself at a rate which threatens to leave as little of his religious as of his more questionable peculiarities.

The study of the Jew's physiology and psychology is extremely penetrating, and abounds in interesting facts and inferences. According to our American census, the Jew's "expectation of life" is fifty-seven years, the Christian's only forty-one. Though he has fewer children, he multiplies more rapidly than the Christian, because he loses fewer by death. "His longevity, his resistance to disease, and his immunity from certain disorders, are a legacy from his ancestors, and are due to his laws, his customs, and his sobriety. On the other hand, his feebleness and the defects of his physical constitution are due to our laws, our Ghettos, and our system of confinement." He is remarkably free from tuberculosis and dipsomania, but extremely subject to insanity and all kinds of nervous disorders.

The history of the Jew has determined his psychological as well as his physiological traits. It has made him mentally quick, both in the way of business and of science, for he is descended at once from the bankers and the hucksters and from the rabbis. "The two Darmesteters, for example, the sons of a modest bookbinder, number thirty rabbis among their forefathers." Morally the Jew has fallen away from his own ideals of conscience, and the feudal ideals of honor were never presented to him in a way to make them appeal to him. Centuries of petty trading have blunted his moral sense. Centuries of isolation have made him a parvenu. But it is something to have deserved the praise the village epitaphs so carelessly bestow—to have been a good husband, father, son.

A chapter upon "Jewish Genius," without parading its examples, quietly and almost

casually indicates some of the most conspicuous, and shows how relatively large has been the number of Jews who have distinguished themselves in science, literature, and art. But here again, with whatever inclination to certain special qualities, we find that what is most peculiar is the lack of peculiarity, the flexibility which adapts itself to new conditions, a readiness to understand and assimilate whatever is most striking in the various nationalities in which the race is immersed. Even the irony of the Jew is a contribution of his persecutors and destroyers. It is the natural language of the "despised and rejected of men." The same line of thought is continued in a discussion of "the Jewish Spirit"; and in successive chapters on Jewish particularism, the nationalization of the Jew—that is, his absorption by this or that nation—his cosmopolitanism and fraternization, the argument of the book receives its final illustrations. This argument is such a striking paradox that in advance the majority of readers would reject it as violent and absurd. But when they have read to the end they will be profoundly impressed by its development, if they do not find themselves perfectly convinced. It is that the Jew, instead of being one of the most unassimilable of human beings, is one of the most assimilable. Facts that suggest a different interpretation are not structural. Talmudism and ritualism and Christian exclusion and repression have endowed him with a second nature which is mistaken for his fundamental character. Wherever these bonds are relaxed he is quick to lose himself in the wide stream of modern life. Even that form of patriotism which is called chauvinism is easily within his reach. A return to Palestine is considered with more seriousness than it deserves. Never at a loss for a story to clinch his argument, M. Leroy-Beaulieu has at this point one of his best. A Jew of the Vistula said to him, "If Israel ever again becomes a people [in Palestine] I shall ask for the consulship of Palestine at Warsaw."

Geological Biology: An Introduction to the Geological History of Organisms. By Henry Shaler Williams, Silliman Professor of Geology in Yale College. Henry Holt & Co.

THE history of the shell life of this continent has naturally engaged the attention of some of our ablest scientists, owing to the fact that the fossils are so numerous and close at hand, the geological succession so apparent, and the problems so fascinating. James Hall early gave distinction to invertebrate palæontology, as we term the science, by his comprehensive work. Many others followed, notably Hyatt with his exact and philosophical studies of the ammonoids and nautiloids, Walcott among the oldest Cambrian rocks, Beecher among the brachiopods, and the present author among several groups. The descent theory put new life into the science at a time when it was threatened with systematic dry rot. The ancestral lines began to be investigated with extraordinary success, along with much speculation as to the modes and causes of evolution, chiefly by Hyatt and Dall. Prof. Williams's volume aims to show how much biology (or philosophy of the eternal changes of living things) has come out of all this labor, or what the fossil shells appear, at the present time, to tell us of natural selection and other factors of evolution. Since it has grown out of lectures originally delivered at Cornell, little ledge is assumed, and the author ap- his main theme gradually through thirteen chapters, treating very clearly, if somewhat too discursively, of geological time, of classification, and of a multitude of matters of literature, zoölogy, and geology, thus preparing the reader for an approach to the more serious discussions in the last eight chapters. The subject has become such a vast one, and includes such a multitude of details and wealth of great principles, that this part of the work is evidently designed to assist the student to keep sight of the forest among the trees.

The noble race of brachiopods—their rise, expansion, and decline—introduces the causes of evolution, and we must read slowly to master Prof. Williams's trend of thought. We soon find that he is not a Darwinian, for he gives natural selection a subordinate function; neither does he share the Lamarckism of his fellow invertebrate specialists, Hyatt and Dall, for there is hardly a word in the book for the inherited mechanical effect of use and effort, but, to our great surprise, in the broadest sense he is an Aristotelian. This position is unmistakably maintained, and it is the more interesting for two reasons—first, because the author is apparently unconscious of his support of the great Greek philosopher; second, because this position resembles very closely that reached independently of late by several workers, especially by Driesch, one of the younger German biologists, from very different data. The fact that one is an agnostic and the other a thorough theist does not separate their teleological conception of living nature.

According to this conception, evolution is an ultimate process, beyond analysis; it is a part of the unfolding of the original energy of life; there is an innate adaptability to new conditions which we cannot explain—all we can explain is the visible modes and processes. With Prof. Williams, the internal adjustment, development, or "intrinsic" evolution is the unfolding of the original life energy (p. 270), independent and advancing at a different rate from the "extrinsic" evolution, which represents the adjustment to external conditions. Every character has these two aspects. The great lines of division between the larger groups of animals and plants have been the expression of this "intrinsic" evolutional force working from within (p. 274), little affected by external conditions and developing far too rapidly to be reasonably explained by the slow operation of natural selection. On the other hand, specific characters evolve slowly by selection and by the inheritance of "extrinsic" adjustments. A species such as *Atrypa reticularis*, which enjoyed a marvellous extension in time and space, exhibited no "extrinsic" evolution, for, while excessively variable in response to environment, not a single variation became fixed by heredity. Mutability and variability are the normal expression of this "intrinsic" force (p. 297). Instead of causing variability, "extrinsic" evolution checks and limits it by selection and ultimately causes permanency (p. 312). This exactly reverses the commonly accepted view (Spencer-Weismann) that all variation arises "extrinsically," or by response to changed environment. According to the author there is abundant evidence that, in its first bloom, a group displays its widest range of specific variation. As soon as it is found breeding perfectly true, we can conceive it to have reached the end of its life period or "intrinsic" resources, and to be destined soon to become extinct. Evolution upon the "intrinsic" side is a definite and continuous law of expansion (p. 355). It is the greater ability to adjust, not the closer adjustment of structure to environment, which constitutes the higher fitness to survive; not because it has less to oppose it, or less to overcome—not because the conditions of life are easier or more congenial to its particular condition—but because it has more of *the essence of evolution in it* (p. 380).

Such an internal evolving principle is closely akin to the internal perfecting principle of Aristotle. As we have seen, the author is by no means alone at this time in reaching a conclusion so opposed to Weismann's notions of the powers of the survival of the fittest, nor can we accuse him of reasoning in a circle from a theistic premise, because a substantially similar conclusion may be and has been reached from agnostic premises. If we meet the author upon his own field of well-arranged evidence we find it difficult if not impossible to refute him. The chief comment we would make is that of Helmholtz: *ignoramus, non ignorabimus*. The proof of an orderly and purposive succession, which may put Darwin's and other factors out of court and leave us in the dark for a while, is merely the stimulus to the earlier or later discovery of a still unknown factor. Natural cause there must be, and finding it is a mere matter of time and genius.

The minor defects in this work are not numerous, but should be remedied in a later edition. There is a certain amount of unnecessary repetition of statement and theory. The treatment of the vertebrates in the early part of chapter XX. is so brief and inaccurate as not to strengthen the book. These blemishes are of small moment compared with clearness and fulness, the general accuracy and deep insight displayed throughout the entire treatment of the brachiopods and ammonites. The work will prove invaluable to the student in a field where the temptations to exclusively systematic work are very strong. Yale University is fortunate in securing as a successor to James D. Dana an old pupil who shares so much of his master's spirit.

The History of the Paris Commune of 1871. By Thomas March. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1896. Pp. viii, 372.

AMONG the various object lessons in politics which France has given to Europe, the most striking and least understood of recent times has been the movement of the Commune of Paris in 1871. The mere facts of the history of the Government of the Commune are pretty accurately known; there is no lack of documentary material on which to work; many survivors of the rulers and the ruled during the period have recorded their recollections; and historians of the rank and intelligence of Maxime Du Camp and Ernest Daudet have compiled excellent volumes on the subject. But never yet has there arisen a writer to explain the ideas of the Communards, to make manifest the reasons that induced Paris to submit to the government of the Red Republic, or to develop the true political significance of the events which occurred in Paris after the conclusion of the Franco-German war of 1870-1871. The problems which confront the inquirer at every turn in investigating the history of the Commune are of immense importance. Was the movement the outcome of the socialism preached by the International? Was it a conscious imitation of the ideas expressed by the Hébertist leaders of the Paris Commune of 1793 and repressed with bloodshed by the Great Committee of Public Safety? Was it a spasm of reaction against the imperial and

centralising idea which had been fostered by Napoleon III., and seemed likely to be adopted by the Republic which had risen upon the ruins of the Second Empire? Was it a natural expression of the wrath of the national capital at the fearful disasters which had befallen France at the hands of the invading Germans? Or was it the result of fortuitous circumstances which allowed a band of theorists, young and old, to possess themselves of civic power in the moment of a nation's and a city's despair? These are questions which will puzzle thinkers and writers of future generations, just as the problems of the French Revolution of 1789 exercise the intellects of thinkers to-day. The generation which witnessed the events of the Commune has not yet passed away; some of its leaders are at the present time conspicuous figures in French politics; a general amnesty has blotted out the offences of the past, and French politicians of all grades are wary of alluding to the last great struggle between the capital of France and the provinces of France.

But before speculation can be freely indulged in upon the nature of the movement which drenched Paris with blood in 1871, the facts of the period need to be carefully examined and coördinated. The work of the historian must precede the work of the philosopher, or the philosopher will draw his conclusions from false premises. It has already been said that more than one French writer of eminence has dealt with the history of the Commune, but it must be remembered that these Frenchmen are naturally swayed by the passions of their generation, and that they can hardly be expected to deal fairly with the actions of men who destroyed some of the most famous monuments of Paris, who showed no hesitation in shedding blood, and who at the close of a disastrous foreign war plunged France into the greater horrors of civil war. A time will undoubtedly come when the events of the movement of the Commune may be impartially investigated by French historians, but it has not yet arrived. Even Maxime Du Camp shows the influence of political animosity in his excellent history, and still more is this the case, for instance, in the work of Lissagaray. It is possible that a foreign writer might to some extent be expected to anticipate the work of posterity, and, being without national or party prejudice, calmly to examine and narrate this episode of contemporary history in a spirit that should be fair to both sides.

Mr. Thomas March had a great opportunity, for he is the first foreigner, to our knowledge, who has endeavored to write an account of the Commune from the documents. But unfortunately he has not satisfied the expectations which the news of the publication of his book naturally raised. He has neither the temperament nor the training of a historian; he has not learned how to appreciate the value of documents; he shows as much animosity against the leaders of the Commune as any French provincial partisan, and he does not hesitate to accept every statement of their enemies against the character and motives of the men whose deeds he endeavors to narrate. To his credit it may be said that he has tried to build upon primary authorities, but he has failed to deal with them in a critical spirit. He shows his animus in his treatment of previous writers upon his subject, notably in his note on Lissagaray's book, which, on p. 171, he declares he "deemed it unnecessary to finish reading." These strictures are not meant to imply that Mr. March's book is entirely worthless—on the contrary, it is, with all its faults, a useful compilation. Its style, however, is detestable. The influence of Carlyle's 'French Revolution' is over it whenever the author attempts, as he too often does, to moralize. The historical present is constantly abused, and slangy phrases are not infrequent. Here is a typical passage, taken at random, which may be held to justify our censure: "Better a slow advance and sure than a brilliant onset and run even a slight risk of disaster. We will not take this Communal bull by the horns—we will attack him first in the flanks and wound him there, then his head will be less dangerous and easier vanquished" (p. 257).

Ice-Work, Past and Present. By T. G. Bonney. [International Scientific Series.] Appletons. 1896.

THE appearance of a work under the above title by Professor Bonney of University College, London, naturally calls to mind the recent third edition of Prof. J. Geikie's 'Great Ice Age,' and invites a comparison between the two books. The first is intended for the general reader, the second for the glacial geologist; but while the latter is admirably successful in nearly all respects, the former leaves much to be desired. Geikie's work is thorough, critical, and probably as nearly impartial as a strongly convinced author can make a book; Bonney's work is attractive and interesting, of about the proper weight for the general reader, yet not successful in giving a vivid and accurate picture of the facts of glacial geology as they are known to-day.

The characteristic of the third edition of the 'Great Ice Age' is the greatly increased evidence from various parts of the world indicating a complex subdivision of the glacial period into several glacial epochs, separated by important non-glacial intervals. A general belief in two glacial epochs was warranted when the second edition of the book was written (1877), but now five glacial epochs of greater or less importance and distinctness are recognized for northwestern Europe, and probably three for northeastern America. Of the European epochs, the second appears to have produced the most extensive ice-fields, while the third and fourth piled up the great moraines around the southern side of the Baltic. The considerable duration of milder intervals between epochs of ice advance is indicated not only by fossiliferous deposits, but also by the amount of valley cutting or filling associated with interglacial times. In view of the numerous observations on which these conclusions are based, it may be fairly said that next to the great fact of widespread ice-action in post-tertiary time, the subject that holds the attention of the glacial geologist to-day is the evidence pointing to the complexity of the record of ice action. Yet this feature of the subject is very scantily treated by Bonney, and the little emphasis given to it is one of the unsatisfactory features of the book. No reader of the chapter on Alpine glaciers, past and present, would understand that the till on the top of the Uetliberg and the well-preserved moraine on which part of the city of Zurich is built in the neighboring valley were formed at widely separated times, or that the till on the mountain was but a remnant of a widespread deposit. It is not to be supposed that Bonney is uninformed of the well-proved subdivision of the glacial period advocated by Swiss geologists; so we have to conclude that, in simplifying and popularizing the subject, he has omitted matters without which no just account of the glacial period can to-day be given.

The two authors stand on opposite sides of the controversy regarding the origin of lake basins. This problem has been associated with glaciology for the thirty-odd years since Ramsay attempted to solve it by the erosive action of ice. On this subject, Geikie gives insufficient credit to the studies of many Swiss observers who do not go so far as most British geologists in believing that ice, working in large streams or sheets, can excavate hollows or basins of considerable size, such as that of Lake Geneva. It is disappointing to read in his book: "The notion that the lakes of the Alpine lands owe their origin to flexures crossing the lower ends of the mountain valleys is a mere pious opinion—frequently expressed, but never supported by any proofs that will bear critical examination" (p. 225). On the contrary, the careful work of many observers has given increasing reason for accepting precisely the view that Geikie here treats so unfairly and contemptuously. These studies, recently summarized by Aeppli for the case of Lake Zurich, show that this lake is associated in its origin with a series of peculiar and highly specialized warpings, both in place and time, and take its excavation out of reach of ice action.

Bonney is less attached to the glacial origin of lake basins than most British writers, yet here, as in other chapters of his book, there is a lack of sharp selection of the best material for his arguments, nor is the reader put in possession of the best conclusions on this interesting subject. An altogether undue proportion is given to so subordinate a feature as the parallel roads of Glen Roy in Scotland. The reader is referred for fuller description of the driftless region of Wisconsin to Wright's 'Man in the Glacial Period,' instead of to Chamberlain and Salisbury's essay in the sixth annual report of our Geological Survey. The heavy moraines of North Germany are passed over with few words, from which the reader can gather no adequate idea of their great importance. The looped moraines of our Northern States, which certainly are prominent among the many remarkable products of ice-work, are nowhere duly treated. The space allotted to ice-work in Great Britain and Ireland is almost four times as great as that given to other parts of the world.

The Union of England and Scotland. By James Mackinnon, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Pp. 524.

THE slow and silent growth of a cordial feeling between England and Scotland is one of the capital facts of modern history. Because the Life Guards and the Black Watch fight shoulder to shoulder now, we forget Bannockburn and Flodden and Pinkie. The trick once done is simple enough, especially when no showy legerdemain is required. Yet the attainment of full political union between the countries was far from being a matter of course. The Scandinavian and Iberian peninsulas have both failed where Great Britain has been successful. Norway is rebellious, Portugal is independent and poverty-stricken; Scotland, on the other hand, would be described by any one except a Socialist or a temperance reformer as rich and happy. Had the northern and southern parts of the island been in constant feud during the last two centuries the British Empire would not exist. *Conjuncti valeant.* And even in themselves the means by which peace and union were gained are well worth examining. Graciousness of demeanor did not contribute much to the happy result.

The Scotch of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries had the manners of "Swiss educated in Holland"—to repeat an anti-republican libel—and Englishmen are never notable for tact. Had not the arguments for the establishment of an alliance been overwhelmingly strong, the cause of union must have been lost. The convergence of large interests, first religious, then economic, carried the day in spite of race enmity and individual selfishness.

Mr. Mackinnon writes about the Union of 1707 from the standpoint of a subdued and chastened patriot. "Englishmen ought to know that they cannot obliterate Scotch nationality by perpetually harping on that of England, and by attempting to dazzle Scotch eyes with the glamour of English greatness as such. . . . A people that can claim the national continuity of a long series of great men, whose deeds might make any people proud of its national inheritance, will never consent to part with the symbol of so much that is inspiring and ennobling in its history—a symbol imprinted in the records of a hoary past and inscribed on its national monuments." Patriotism of this sort overlays many passages in the book. When we say that it is chastened we mean that it does not savor of particularism. Beside Mr. Dalziel or Dr. Hunter, Mr. Mackinnon is a mild champion of Scottish claims. We gather from his last chapter, "Nationality and the Union," that he takes a keen interest in modern affairs, and perhaps this extensive study is due to the bearing of the subject on the present relations of England and Scotland. One must take care, however, to distinguish between Mr. Mackinnon and the pamphleteers of the Scotch Home Rule Association. While he tolerates with difficulty the use of "England" in contexts which properly demand Great Britain, he is a fair-minded student of the reigns of William and Mary and Anne.

Mr. Mackinnon devotes only four pages to the relations of the two countries prior to the accession of James VI. to the English throne, and he has little to say about the union of the crowns. With his eye fixed on legislative union he can easily avoid mention of one or two little incidents which the Scotch are willing to forget—for instance, the sale of Charles I. by his northern subjects. He explains lucidly the effect of the Reformation in alienating Scotland from France and ranging her in the same European camp with England, touches upon Cromwell as a prophet of union, and begins to grow to a point with the Revolution. This event, immediately beneficial to England alone, involved the realms in unpleasant complications. Within three years from the landing of William, Glencoe made him, among the Scotch, the most unpopular king of the century. Then followed the Darien expedition and commercial hostility between Edinburgh and London. To offset these causes of friction, the French war and the speedy collapse of Paterson's colony were motives for conciliation. A mixed case becomes kaleidoscopic as Presbyterian and Episcopalian, Jacobite and Orange, Queensberry and Hamilton considerations from time to time thrust themselves to the front. In spite of William's dying injunction to the English peers in favor of a "firm and entire union," the prospect of a satisfactory settlement was almost as remote at the accession of Anne as an Anglo-Hibernian settlement now is.

Our author's solid piece of investigation begins with 1702, and his narrative of plot and counter-plot runs into 376 pages before it reaches the death of Anne. We could not wish it shorter, for it is careful, impartial, and well written. The constitutional aspects of the twelve years are set out prominently, but there is also an abundance of picturesque detail. Simon Fraser, the more versatile Le Caron of his age, vies in prominence with the leading politicians of the House of Assembly, and Col. Hooke runs through a whole chapter. It is not Mr. Mackinnon's fault that he lacks a distinguished statesman for his hero. The movement is weak on the personal side. Queensberry is the prominent figure among the Scotch, but he cannot be described as a political enthusiast of high and disinterested aims. Viewed in comparison with the magnitude of the results, he is distinctly overparted. Nor do we find any politician about the court of Queen Anne who is ready to go through fire and water to unite the kingdoms. The treaty owes much to the lucid mind of Somers, but he was not its originator. What Englishman championed the Union out of love for the Scotch? It was all very well for Bishop Compton to say in his sermon on the Union (May-day, 1707, after the treaty had been signed), "At no time were Scotsmen more acceptable to Englishmen than on this day." A long time elapsed before they were generally acceptable to Englishmen save on grounds of political expediency.

Mr. Mackinnon's account of 1706-7 shows real skill in historical disquisition. After describing the circumstances under which the Act of Security was passed, and illustrating English resentment at the measure, he presents an excellent analysis of the events preceding and attending the Union Commission. The Duke of Hamilton's volte-face of September 1, 1705—even more rapidly executed than Sir Robert Peel's conversion in 1846—paralyzed the Scotch Nationalists, and the appointment of Harley, Somers, Devonshire, and Sunderland to the Commission was an earnest of English readiness to entertain Scotch claims. Even with these preliminary advantages the Unionists had a hard task. "The temper of both nations was bellicose enough. The Commissioners were conscious that unanimity could alone obviate a fierce international struggle." Economically Scotland then stood towards England about as Newfoundland stands towards Canada to-day. Disaster had overtaken her, incorporation with a far richer neighbor was offered, and pride of country raised the same kind of obstacles. Defoe, with true discernment, might prophesy that a wave of prosperity would sweep over Scotland when the barriers were removed. Fletcher of Saltoun replied that union would only make a poor country poorer. While the pamphleteers raged without, the Commissioners, with the wisdom usually displayed by such congresses, arranged terms which secured the main advantages of incorporation without depriving Scotland of her courts or of her established church.

Mr. Mackinnon's concluding chapters on Jacobite activity, the industrial progress of Scotland during the last century, and the nature of modern Scotch nationalism round off his minute description of the legislative union. He marks the congratulatory tone of English travellers in Scotland during the last quarter of the eighteenth century, to show the death of the old jealousy. International intercourse was indeed making strides when a Londoner with the strong anti-Scotch prejudices of Dr. Johnson set about exploring the Hebrides. Industrial progress was slow at the start, but after Culloden the triumphal career of the Scotch at home and abroad begins. During the long period of political lethargy, 1745-1825, Scotland was occupied in becoming rich and learned. Since the first Reform Bill she has steadily sent Liberal delegations to Westminster. Southern England is not more regularly Conservative. As for Scotch activity, perseverance, and success, who can say where or when the colophon will be placed?

We must not attempt to follow Mr. Mackinnon through his wealth of original material. He is firm-grounded in the sources, and errs only in regarding the Union movement too exclusively from the Scottish side. For all that Scotland has done, England is by head and shoulders the predominant partner, and in a book with such a title deserves more attention than she gets.

London City Churches. By A. E. Daniell. With numerous illustrations by Leonard Martin. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896. Square 8vo, pp. x, 394.

THE old churches of London have excited a great deal of interest of late among English archæologists. The passage of a law, not many years ago, for the union of city benefices has caused the destruction of many of these, including eleven that were built by Sir Christopher Wren. More of them are threatened with destruction for the obvious reason that the land which they occupy would be valuable to commerce, and is a temptation to speculators. An evidence of the renewed interest in the old churches is seen in the numerous articles about them which have appeared in technical periodicals and in several books, of each of which the chief or important part is devoted to a somewhat exaggerated statement of the architectural value of the buildings in question. The present work deals with the churches of the City of London alone, excluding the rest of the metropolitan district, or what might be called Greater London.

The introduction gives most of the needed statistics. It is pointed out that eighty-six parish churches were destroyed, or nearly so, by the fire of 1666; that, of these, thirty-five were never rebuilt, thirty-three of the new buildings serving for two parishes each, and one, Bow Church, for three. Forty-nine churches were rebuilt by Wren; and it may be said here that the fact of this almost exclusive employment of one architect for the rebuilding of London after the fire, and the assumption that St. Paul's Cathedral and the numerous minor buildings designed by that architect were parts of one general scheme for the beautifying of the capital, have created a kind of legend for a very attractive personality. The city churches built by Wren are not comparable for cost and extent with similar and contemporary monuments on the Continent, and it is easy to exaggerate their importance in the way of architectural design.

The introduction goes on to state that twenty-two churches escaped the fire, but that one of these, St. Andrew's Holborn, was ruined in Wren's time and was rebuilt by him, and others were remodelled at later dates, so that eight churches only remain in the city belonging to the time before the conflagration. Even this is a surprise to those who have studied the maps of London, before and after the fire. Such a "barn-door-fowl flight of learning" as that leads the small antiquary to suppose that nothing was left within the line of the old walls. The church of St. Bartholomew the Great is, however, well known for the valuable remains of a very early building which

are to be found there, only recently regained (if they are regained) from the uses of mechanical trade to which the building had been put. St. Andrews's Undershaft is a late perpendicular church of some interest in spite of restoration; and its curious name recalls the great maypole which once stood in Leadenhall Street. St. Giles Cripplegate is another perpendicular church, dating from the sixteenth century, but it was much restored in the seventeenth century. Here is the tomb of Milton, and a cenotaph of Sir Martin Frobisher erected in modern times. St. Catherine Cree was built not long before the great fire, and is one of those very curious structures in which classic and late Gothic details are freely mingled; not, however, in the production of an attempted new architectural style, but in the frank contrasting of one set of details with the other. St. Helen's Bishopsgate is the most interesting of all, architecturally speaking; it is a conventual church of which parts date from the thirteenth century and others from the fourteenth, while details of the interior are undoubtedly the work of Inigo Jones. St. Olave's Hart Street and All Hallows Barking are perpendicular churches well worthy of study, in spite of their frequent restoration. Finally, we remark that St. Ethelburga's, with its narrow alley opening on Bishopsgate Street between two shops, contains some vestiges of good early Gothic work; but the church is very diminutive and almost wholly modernized.

The book under consideration gives a careful and well-considered notice of each of these old churches, of the churches built by Wren, and those of later time, but not recent. It is one of the class which has so few representatives, that of studious and careful books; of books the material for which has been gathered in abundance and well sifted for publication. It seems that all the important discoveries made during recent years, whether about the buildings themselves or in the way of written documents, are presented in these notices. The book is as interesting as any such record can be, and an index of the churches and another of proper names make it available for serious study. The illustrations by Mr. Martin are generally small heads of chapters, very well drawn, and giving views of the churches from well-chosen points. Besides these there are fourteen half-tones which give views on a larger scale, generally of the interiors of the interesting churches under examination. There are half a-dozen additional, undescribed alike by legend on the page and by mention in the table. These the reader is left to puzzle over, the interesting problem being given to him to name each of them from the description contained in the adjacent pages.

Greek Oligarchies: Their Character and Organization. By Leonard Whibley. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Putnams.

Mr. Andrew Lang has recently censured Oxford and Cambridge for not producing volumes of classical studies and doctors' dissertations like those which every self-respecting American university issues from time to time. But our English cousins achieve much the same end by their own characteristic method of competition for prizes. Mr. Leonard Whibley, already favorably known to students of Greek history for his Prince Consort dissertation on 'Political Parties at Athens during the Peloponnesian War,' now publishes a "Hare Prize" dissertation on 'Greek Oligarchies,' as above. The little book presents a useful collection of the somewhat scattered and fragmentary material, together with a convenient résumé of the speculations and definitions of the ancients and the conjectures of the moderns. The author draws very largely on Gilbert's 'Handbuch,' Mr. Newman's 'Introduction to the Politics of Aristotle,' and Sandys's notes on the recently discovered Aristotelian Constitution of Athens. But he has grouped under appropriate heads a quantity of facts which the student would not easily find elsewhere, and has enlivened his discussion of them by occasional apt quotations from such modern writers on the science of politics as Maine, Bagehot, Sir J. F. Stephen, Austin, Freeman, Fustel de Coulanges, and J. S. Mill.

The earlier chapters, on the origins of popular political terminology and the classifications of forms of government by Plato and Aristotle, on the "Causes of Constitutional Change," and on "The Development of Constitutions," are perhaps more readable than the more solid concluding studies of the varieties of oligarchy and the organization of oligarchical government. No important lesson seems to detach itself from this marshalling of more or less conjectural details; and unless the reader's zeal is sustained by the controversial interest of some private theory, he is tempted to blaspheme against the excessive conscientiousness of modern science, and take refuge in Plato's comfortable saying that if you are curious to look beyond the conspicuous types, you can readily find countless dynasties and purchased principalities and other intermediate and nondescript forms of government, both among Greeks and barbarians.

A few minor points may be noted in conclusion. Mr. Whibley suggests that the terms Eupatridæ, Geomori, and Demiurgi were artificial designations introduced at the time of the συνοικισμός of Attica to denote the classes *de facto* existing in the separate communities and recognized in the new state. For πατρόθεν in Aristotle's Constitution of Athens (21, sec. 4) he would read πάτραθεν. Men continued to be called by their fathers' names after the institution of the demes. Cleisthenes's aim must have been to put the new citizens on an equal footing with the members of the old clans by abolishing the custom of calling a man by the clan or gentile name (πάτραθεν). The point had already been made by Gilbert, who, however, contents himself with taking πατρόθεν in the required sense. It is not quite accurate to say that in 'Laws,' 693 D, Plato ranks monarchy and democracy as mother forms above other constitutions. He merely treats them as the two great historic types from which all others may be derived. In the passage in which he is said to have changed his mind and reversed the relative preference assigned to oligarchy over democracy in the republic, he is careful to qualify his statement by the words "a certain kind of democracy." The vagueness caused by the etymological and ethical associations of the word aristocracy might have been more aptly illustrated by the rhetorical application of the term to the Athenian democracy in the 'Menexenus.' The discussion of Aristotle's ambiguous use of the word "Polity" would have been made clearer by a reference to 'Laws,' 712 E, where Plato, commending the mixed constitutions of Crete and Sparta, declares that they are really "Polities," while the partisan oligarchies and democracies of Greece do not deserve the name. In the quotation from Athenæus, p. 182, n. 3, ἐξάγουσιν is an oversight for ἐξάξουσιν.

The Trent Affair, including a Review of English and American Relations at the Beginning of the Civil War. By Thomas L. Harris. Indianapolis and Kansas City: The Bowen-Merrill Co. 1896.

Mr. Harris's account of the Trent affair, which covers also an account of the facts connected with England's recognition of Confederate belligerency, rehearses an old story without throwing any new light upon it. He has collected a mass of evidence showing that the behavior of the English Government towards us was dictated by an unfriendly spirit; but it is not new evidence. The publishers make the singular statement that the importance of the case of the *Trent* "seems, in large measure, to have escaped the notice of historians," and that "a careful study of the whole matter will be certain to make Americans appreciate more fully than ever that it is their duty to prevent by force of arms, if necessary, any insult or indignity which may be offered to their national honor."

The lesson which most Americans derived from the *Trent* case at the time was that it is a great pity to get up a tremendous excitement over a national act of very questionable legality, exciting passionate resentment abroad, unless the country is fully prepared to back it up with the army and navy, because the only alternative of war is a humiliating retreat. The other question—what was *settled* by the *Trent* case—Mr. Harris leaves as much in the air as most people who take it up. He draws seven different conclusions from it as "warranted"; but the matter had been already put in a nutshell by Mr. R. H. Dana, who, in his edition of Wheaton, laid it down thirty years ago that the point disposed of was that a belligerent cannot take persons out of a neutral vessel at sea, on any pretext. Mr. Seward restored Mason and Slidell on the ground that, if a captor relinquishes his prize without necessity, he cannot take prisoner or cargo out of her as contraband; but what was involved was substantially the right of searching neutral vessels on the high seas, and with the *Trent* case the assertion of this right probably disappeared for ever. When we think of the principle on which the duties of neutrals towards belligerents rest, it is not difficult to see that the claim in any aspect was a preposterous one. What a neutral is bound to do is to refrain from helping a belligerent carry on war; hence arms and munitions of war are contraband and may be seized under proper circumstances, as when captured by a blockading squadron. But that this principle involves the right to stop a neutral vessel on the high seas between two neutral ports (the *Trent* sailed from Havana) and take passengers off because they are messengers from a belligerent to a neutral, is a mediæval notion which in modern times is out of place. If Europe becomes involved again in a great war, we shall yet have reason to be glad that England insisted on Mason and Slidell being given up.

Spring Notes from Tennessee. By Bradford Torrey. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. Small 8vo, pp. 223.

Lookout Mountain, Missionary Ridge, Orchard Knob, Chickamauga, and Chattanooga were familiar names thirty-odd years ago. War was then making history at a rapid rate, and important events were numerous in Eastern Tennessee. A year ago Mr. Torrey found interest in these localities much heightened because of reminiscences, but his presence there was only in an indirect way due to the

terrible memories of battle. His mission was bird-hunting; he was there to meet the migrants on their way to the North, to fix a station in their journey, to trace a portion of the story of their lives. That he had a month of successful hunting is evident enough from the list of the birds he "got"—ninety-three species, and all without murdering a single bird. He hunted with ears and eyes and opera-glasses; he heard the song, found and identified the singer, and noted what he learned. As he did not startle the singers, the notes he caught were free, light-hearted notes of joy, and he left the songsters alive to utter thousands more, and to teach their fledglings songs that will cheer the hearts of future generations of birds and of men. No slaughter, no butchery, no dead, no wounded, no starving nestlings moaning out their innocent lives for murdered parents, no cries of pain or terror—such a story of a hunting trip is not often told. Only once have we a glimpse of the savage among his ancestors—when he threw the first stone to aid the minister, a man of God, in a frenzy to crush the head of a poor little harmless snake. The example of this author is a splendid one for young ornithologists:

"Hast thou named all the birds without a gun?"

He has studied the birds to such purpose that he knows them at sight or recognizes them by their voices. He had no need of slaying hundreds to make up his lists.

Though the principal interest pertains to the birds, there is something in the book besides what relates to them. It is worth reading by any one with vitality enough in him to appreciate an enjoyable outing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andreae, Percy. The Vanished Emperor. Rand, McNally & Co.
Besant, Sir Walter. The Master Craftsman. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Burnham, S. M. Pleasant Memories of Foreign Travel. Boston: Bradlee Whidden.
Cahan, A. Yekl: A Tale of the New York Ghetto. Appletons.
Cambridge, Ada. A Humble Enterprise. Appletons.
Cocke, Dr. J. M. Blind Leaders of the Blind. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Coubertin, Pierre de. L'Évolution Française sous la troisième République. Paris: Plon.
Dyde, Prof. S. W. Hegel's Philosophy of Right. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.90.
Fairbanks, Arthur. Introduction to Sociology. Scribners. $3.
Follett, Miss M. P. The Speaker of the House of Representatives. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Gordon, E. B. Adoniram Judson Gordon: A Biography. F. H. Revell Co. $1 50.
Gordon, Gen. Sir T. E. Persia Revisited. Edward Arnold. $3.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. VII. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Haskell, Miss Ellen M. Child Observations. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.50.
Klepert, H., and Hülsen, Ch. Formae Vrbis Romae Antiquae. Accedit Nomenciator Topographicus. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Kittell, Prof. R. A History of the Hebrews. Vol. II. London: Williams & Norgate: New York; Putnams. $4.20.
Knight, William. The Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. Vol. V. Macmillan. $1.50.
Littell's Living Age. April–June, 1896. Boston: Littell & Co.
Luqueer, F. L. Hegel as Educator. Macmillan. $1.
Miller, M. A. Gold or Silver? F. T. Neely.
Mize, W. H. Gold, Grace, and Glory. G. W. Dillingham. $1.50.
O'Grady, Standish. In the Wake of King James. London: Dent; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Pemberton, Max. The Iron Pirate. Rand, McNally & Co.
Phillips, Prof. A. W., and Fisher, Prof. Irving. Elements of Geometry. Harpers. $1.75.
Qualtrough, Lieut. E. F. The Boat-Sailer's Manual. Revised ed. Scribners. $1 50.
Richardson, G. A. King Mammon and the Heir Apparent. Boston: Arena Publishing Co.
Russell, E. E. The Reason Why. New York: The Author.
Select American Classics. American Book Co. 60c.
Setoun, Gabriel. Robert Burns. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Sihler, E. E. Riehl's Vierzehn Nothelfer. American Book Co. 30c
Spanhoofd, A. W. Krambambuli, and Memoiren eines Offizierburschen. American Book Co. 25c.
The American Conference on International Arbitration. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Traill, H. D. From Cairo to the Soudan Frontier. London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.
Troths, Capt. Thilo von. Tactical Studies on the Battles around Plevna. Kansas City, Mo.: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.
Two Queens: A Historical Novel. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Wakeling, G. H. King and Parliament (1603–1714). Scribners. 50c.
Walker, F. A. International Bimetallism. Henry Holt & Co. $1 25.
Warden, Gertrude. The Sentimental Sex. Appletons.
Wilcox, Ella W. An Ambitious Man. Chicago: E. A. Weeks & Co.
Wright, Prof. Joseph. The English Dialect Dictionary. Part I., A to Ballot. London: Henry Frowde; New York: Putnams.

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GENEALOGIES for sale by A. S. CLARK, Bookseller, 174 Fulton St., New York.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 23, 1896.

The Week.

THE general and spontaneous tribute to ex-Gov. William E. Russell, whose sudden death on Thursday reads us, as Burke said, "an awful lesson against being too much troubled about any of the objects of ordinary ambition," has a significance much more than personal. Personal qualities of the most engaging and commanding kind Gov. Russell had in fuller measure than falls to the lot of any but the most favored of men. He drew hearts and enthusiasm to himself as easily and inevitably as the moon draws the tides. There was that in his winning frankness and manly bearing which disarmed opponents no less surely than it bound friends to him by links of steel. To those who knew the charm of his presence, its passing into the shadow will mean first of all a poignant sense of personal loss. But there is more in it than that. Thousands who never looked into his eyes share the feeling of public loss in his disappearance. What has gone from our civic life is not simply a fascinating personality, but a leader of men, a genius for politics in the noblest sense of that word, one to whom the hopes of many had turned for the reclaiming of party and political contests from ignoble men and ignoble methods. The feeling is universal that Massachusetts has lost a son who was one of the strongest forces for good that the commonwealth has known in recent times. His last public service emphasized his sincerity and his consistent loyalty to the highest ideals. The fight that he made for sound money at Chicago commanded the admiration of right-minded men in the Republican party as much as in his own, and everybody in Massachusetts felt proud of him. There can be no doubt that it was this unselfish work which precipitated the end of his life. He taxed his vital energies to the utmost, day and night for a week, in a desperate effort to restrain his party from plunging into the abyss of dishonor, and his soul flamed with righteous indignation as he saw the reckless majority sweeping it to ruin. But he would not have shirked the duty if he had realized the risk, for he had the highest conception of what the public man owes those who have come to trust him.

A few weeks before his death, Gov. Russell went to Monticello, Va., and preached the gospel of sound money in the heart of a State which was given over to the silver delusion. The history of this trip is of peculiar interest now. He received an invitation to deliver an address at Jefferson's old home on Jefferson's birthday. He replied that he doubted if he were the proper orator for the occasion, as he should consider it his duty to discuss the financial question and to express his own views, which would not be congenial to a large proportion of his auditors. The politician in charge of the arrangements wrote back suggesting that he should avoid a controverted question like that of the finances, and devote himself to a general exposition of the principles of Democracy. Gov. Russell immediately telegraphed that he could not come with any such understanding, and that the managers had better look up somebody else. But his robust independence had won their admiration, and he speedily received a dispatch begging him to come, and giving him *carte blanche* as to what he should say. He went, and he talked as plainly to that hostile audience as he would have talked to a body of Massachusetts citizens who fully agreed with him.

The queer people who, as we go to press, are assembling at St. Louis to nominate a Presidential ticket, are as much divided as any of those who preceded them, and it would not be at all surprising if a bolt should take place if Bryan is nominated. The Populists have been at work several years building up a national organization. Indeed, they are a continuation of the old greenback party of the seventies. Free coinage of silver is only one of their aims. Back of that comes fiat paper money, which they are more fond of than they are of silver, because it costs nothing to produce the paper dollar, while it costs 53 cents to produce the silver one. In order to preserve their party organization and to keep the greenback banner waving, the genuine Populists are determined to fight Bryan to the end. They may succeed in preventing the endorsement of the Chicago ticket, but if a majority endorse it, there will probably be a secession of the very stubborn minority. The leaders of the latter faction predict that Bryan will not get over 60 per cent. of the Populist vote in the election, even if nominated by this convention. The other gathering at St. Louis, the so-called silver convention, has no constituency. It is has been brought together merely to act the part of a scarecrow to the Populists.

Whether open endorsement by the Populists will help or hurt Bryan is a question which his shifty intellect must be deeply revolving. On the one hand, votes are votes, whatever their source, and he is probably aware that he will need every one he can in any way pick up. The outspoken declaration against him of leading Democrats all over the country suggests huge losses which it will be necessary to make good if he is to come anywhere near election. But on the other side looms up the possibility that frank adoption of the Chicago platform and nominee by the Populist convention at St. Louis may dislodge new masses of Democratic votes. Many Democrats who have been saying little, but have been keeping up a tremendous thinking, would see in the absorption of the Populists the last proof that the old Democratic party was a thing of the past, and that names and the fetish of "regularity" need no longer restrain them from voting their convictions. Bryan has, in fact, almost as good reason to fear the very support which his candidacy and principles attract, as to dread the revolt which they have provoked. The more warmly uneasy and ignorant agitators endorse him, the more sharply will conservative citizens repudiate him.

Mr. Bryan's speech at Centralia was a more careful effort than any other that he has made since his nomination. The demagogue level was well maintained in it, as it always is in his deliverances. There was the usual tribute to the people as the supreme rulers and final embodiment of all wisdom, and after that he turned his attention to the money question as the dominating issue of the campaign. His treatment of this gives an admirable illustration of his method, which is not lacking in adroitness. Four years ago, he said, the Democratic and Republican parties took almost identical positions on the money question. "The Republican party said the American people are in favor of bimetallism, and the Democratic party were holding to the use of gold and silver as a standard money for the country and to the coinage of both for money. Thus you see that both parties declared in favor of gold and silver as the money of our country." This was only half true. Mr. Bryan omitted to say that both platforms insisted that the two metals should be kept at a parity. He did not say this, because he wished to say next that both parties had made a new departure this year, the Republicans abandoning bimetallism for the single gold standard, and the Democrats abandoning it for the single silver standard. He asserted that the Republicans now favor the gold standard only until they can get a double standard by international agreement, and that in this respect they admit that there is something better than the gold standard. Having reached this point, he is in position to say that the issue is one between a European financial system and an American financial system, or, as he puts it: "The issue is drawn, and we have our choice in this campaign between an American financial system for the American people and an

English financial system for the English aristocracy."

That is the Bryan issue of the campaign which he brings to the front in every speech, and which is usually put in some such order as this: "We are the greatest nation on earth. I am a candidate for the greatest office on earth. You are the people of the greatest nation on earth. Your President is merely your hired man. Your wisdom is inexhaustible and infallible. You alone are capable of deciding all questions, economic, moral, and other, in the best manner. The Republicans say that you cannot solve the financial question without the aid of the rest of the world. I tell you that you are so great that you can ignore the rest of the world. The issue is drawn. Shall we have an American financial system for the American people, or an English financial system for the English aristocracy?" That is to be his speech with variations during the campaign. "Those who believe in running this government on the European plan," he said at Centralia, "should go and legislate with the Republican party." And again: "If the gold standard is a good thing, why should we try to get rid of it? And if the gold standard is a bad thing, why should we wait until some other nations are willing to help us let go?" There is food for thought for the bimetallists in this tricky presentation of the issue, for they have made it possible for Mr. Bryan to give this twist to it.

The historian who shall look carefully into the causes of the strength of the silver movement in the United States in the year 1896 will find that one of its most potent elements was the jealousy and hatred felt by Democratic leaders for President Cleveland. A great many reasons can be supplied for this hostility. It began in his first term, when he refused to consider that one of his chief duties as a Democratic President was to satisfy Democratic hunger for office. It was augmented by the irritation which old political bosses like the mossback Senators felt at seeing a new man in the party compel its obedience to sound doctrine against the opinions expressed by themselves and by many of their constituents, as Mr. Cleveland did in securing a renomination in the face of his denunciation of free silver, and in compelling the repeal of the Sherman act against the personal wishes of so many Senators. It is only natural, in view of all this, to find all the Senators who have sought occasion to oppose the President (as on the tariff question) drifting one by one into the Bryan camp. Gorman logically belongs where he has gone; Faulkner marches with his captain, and Smith of New Jersey practically places his banner on the Bryan wall as he hurries off to Europe. It need surprise no one if other anti-Cleveland Senators very speedily join in the same procession.

The fact that Gov. Altgeld, the chief of the free-silver movement in Illinois, is a gold man in his private business was asserted while the Chicago convention was in session. It was affirmed that although he was for silver in politics, he had taken care to protect himself against the consequences of the silver standard by making his rents payable in gold. It appears that he is the President and largest stockholder of the Unity Building in Chicago, and that all leases contain the "gold clause"—that clause which the Chicago platform proposes to abolish "for the future." The *Herald* has procured a copy of one of those beautiful gold leases and publishes it in facsimile. It reads as follows:

This is to certify, That the Unity Company, a corporation, etc., of the City of Chicago, County of Cook, and State of Illinois, have demised and leased, and do hereby demise and lease unto W. K. Carlisle and W. J. Strong of the City of Chicago, Rooms Nos. 1,544-48 on the fifteenth story of the Unity Block, situated on Dearborn Street in the City of Chicago, State of Illinois, to be used and occupied by said W. K. Carlisle and W. J. Strong as a law office and for no other purpose, for the term of two years and six months from the first day of November, 1893, to the thirtieth day of April, 1896, at the rent of twenty-five hundred (2,500.00) dollars, *payable in standard gold coin of the United States* in equal instalments of $33 34 monthly in advance, on the first day of each and every month during and for the said term, at the office of said company, in Chicago, or such other place in Chicago as the lessor may direct.

[Here follow the usual provisions and conditions as to heating, lighting, subletting, etc.]

In witness whereof, said corporation has caused its name to be signed, and its corporate seal affixed hereto, this sixteenth day of October, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-three. THE UNITY COMPANY,
per Elmer Allen Kendall, Sec'y. Seal.

So it appears that, when it comes to business, Altgeld stands on the same gold platform as Stewart of Nevada. They are all alike as to this. They propose that the laboring man's wages and his savings deposits shall be paid to him in silver, but their precious income shall be protected by a stiff gold clause.

There appears to be no doubt that a majority of the members of the Democratic machine organization of this State are in favor of approving the Chicago ticket. They are "regular" above all things else, their whole political training having taught them that the first duty of a true Democrat is to stand by his party through thick and thin. The main question with them is, Was Bryan's nomination regular? That being answered, as it must be, in the affirmative, leaves them no course to follow except to support him. At heart, also, many of them are in favor of silver, and many more of them have no convictions of any kind upon the subject. That they represent accurately the sentiment of their party is not for a moment to be imagined. Why should they represent it any better on this question than they did when they nominated Maynard? They have been so completely out of touch with their party during the past four years that they have twice lost the State by majorities exceeding 100,000. Many of them admit now that there is a revolt against the Chicago ticket sufficiently large at this time to take away from 10 to 25 per cent. of their vote.

Mr. Sheehan, the Buffalo defaulter, announces that he is no longer able to restrain Tammany from coming out for the ticket of repudiation. The district leaders, who have been out among "the people," tell him that it will be dangerous to wait till after the State convention. The people are so determined to endorse Bryan and Sewall that not even a defaulter can restrain them. In other words, the Tammany machine is going to get every "regular" campaign dollar (silver or other) that is to be spent in this city. It is going to be in a position to take charge of the Bryan ratification meeting in Madison Square Garden. Repudiators might get a doubtful welcome in New York city were a defaulter not on hand to introduce them and certify to their character. Of course, any party or policy that is dishonest and disreputable has an overpowering fascination for Tammany. It could not be expected to withstand the peculiar attractions of the Chicago platform and ticket. Add the natural drift of machine politicians, as we have remarked, towards whatever has the brand of "regularity." This is observable all over the country.

The question whether the sound-money Democrats ought to nominate a third ticket is still agitated in many quarters. Ex-Congressman Everett of Massachusetts has written a letter to the Boston *Herald* strongly recommending that policy; so, likewise, has Col. Higginson. Senator Vilas and Gen. Bragg of Wisconsin urge the same course, and on the whole it seems likely that the movement will succeed. So far as New York is concerned, there is no option left to the State Democracy since Tammany has decided to support Bryan. Without a third ticket the sound-money Democrats will cease to have a separate existence at the end of the present campaign. The free-silver element will have control of the organization in every State. At the recent Chicago convention the sound-money element represented more than one-third of the party strength. This third will be simply wiped out if they do not nominate a ticket of their own. Some will join the Republican party, but most of them will drift to the support of Bryan before the end of this campaign, and after the campaign they will be merged in the Populistic mass that now supports Bryan. An idea prevails on the Stock Exchange that a third ticket will divide

the McKinley vote and put his election in jeopardy. This proceeds from the wholly erroneous assumption that the masses of the Democratic party understand the money question and have the same convictions as the bankers and brokers down town, and that these convictions will prompt them to vote for McKinley if there is no third Democratic ticket in the field, thus counting double against Bryan. The truth is that not one in a thousand of them understands the question at all or has any convictions on the subject. They are open to conviction from their own party associates and leaders, but, if left to natural forces and ordinary influences, will gravitate to Bryan as surely as water runs down hill.

The stock market is now in the same condition of chills and fever that it had reached in 1893 when the Treasury gold reserve dropped below $100,000,000, but the reasons for the condition are now somewhat different. Then we had a monthly purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver going on, and a corresponding outpour of fiat money. We were within a measurable distance of a suspension of gold payments, which could be prevented by nothing but a repeal of the silver-purchasing act. Now we are threatened with suspension as the deliberate purpose of one of the great political parties of the country, and it is inevitable that the chills and fever should increase or diminish in proportion as the public mind is more or less alarmed by the prospect of that party's success at the polls. The supporters of Bryan and the Populist crowd at St. Louis will deride it as a mere stock panic and call it a Wall Street conspiracy. The fact is, however, that Wall Street is only the pulse of trade and industry throughout the nation. Wall Street is agitated only when it feels electric shocks coming in from other places. You will find no farms, no stores, no factories, not even railways, in Wall Street; but when farms, stores, factories, and railways are troubled, when their business is slackening or is menaced, Wall Street tells the story, because here people who have securities must sell them in order to fortify themselves for bad times. The Bryan ticket is the menace of bad times, and we cannot expect anything but chills and fever while it darkens the horizon.

The *World* published on Thursday some very interesting facts about the results of free silver coinage in Colombia, as set forth by the American Minister to that republic. The experiment which Mr. Bryan and his followers wish to make here of lifting 53 cents' worth of silver by legislative fiat to the value of 100 cents, was made in Colombia a few years ago. The advocates of the experiment were working, as Mr. Bryan says he is, to "restore the parity between money and property." They passed a law making it optional for the Government to meet its obligations in either gold or silver. When the law was passed, gold, which had been at 20 per cent. premium, disappeared at once from the country, and is now at a premium of 190. Wages have advanced about 50 per cent., but provisions have advanced 200 per cent., house rents from 100 to 200 per cent., and clothing has become so dear that only the poorest quality can be bought at all. Mr. Bryan says he is seeking to get for the laboring men of this country a "dollar which is as kind to the man who produces wealth as it is to the man who holds it in investment," and he believes a silver dollar is possessed of those humane and thoughtful attributes; but is there any reason to believe that silver will behave any better when embodied in a cheap American dollar than it has done in a cheap Colombian dollar or a cheap Mexican dollar? It has not in either of these cases been at all "kind" to the producer of wealth or the man who has held it in investment, but has acted like a heartless fiend towards both. It has not, it is true, run away in the cowardly manner of the gold dollar; it has stayed with the people, but the people do not seem to have enjoyed its company.

The Venezuelan case has been "stated" again, with the usual dire results (according to the newspaper headlines) to the English contention. Mr. Storrow, the counsel employed by Venezuela to put her case into legal shape, has certainly earned his fee, however fat it may be. A lawyer who will boldly stand up and tell Lord Salisbury that the Schomburgk line is nothing but "a forgery perpetrated by the English Government twenty years after Schomburgk's death," ought to command his own terms. After this it is not surprising to find that "all Prof. Pollock's arguments of law" are really fatal to his own case. It is a little unfortunate that Mr. Storrow's assertion that Great Britain will not arbitrate as to any territory within the Schomburgk line should have been given out almost at the same time with Salisbury's explicit offer to Mr. Olney to submit large tracts within that line to arbitration; but such minor defects do not count in what is professedly a "ringing" argument, designed not to convince the Britishers, but to put them to open shame. Really, despite all the preliminary rumblings about the tremendous sensation to be exploded in this statement, we find in it little or nothing that is new or important. Mr. Storrow has touched off his "bomb," but we uspect that the Venezuelan Commission and Lord Salisbury and Mr. Olney will go on with their serious work without so much as looking out of the window to see what all the racket is about.

While the English Conservatives are a good deal in the dumps over their poor showing as a party, the Liberals are not altogether happy. The Tory troubles spring from a somewhat unwieldy majority, from their having failed in two capital undertakings of the session—the Education bill and the Irish Land bill—and from uncertainties and rebuffs in foreign affairs. What rends the Liberal bosom is distraction over the question of leadership. The greater the Tory embarrassments and the likelihood that the Liberals will be recalled to power in the course of a few years, the keener the contest for the honor of leading the Liberals when they do come in again. Lord Rosebery is still the titular leader, but his supremacy is sharply questioned. Sir William Harcourt ate humble pie in 1894, but does not propose to do so again. He and Rosebery are at daggers drawn, never allude to each other in public, and plan each to override and humiliate the other. Latterly a third candidate for the leadership has come forward in the person of Mr. John Morley. Mr. Morley's rise as a political leader, especially his development into a remarkably effective speaker on the hustings and in Parliament, has been extraordinarily rapid. Turning at a mature age from letters to politics, he soon conquered the somewhat pedantic tendency of his beginnings, and now rivals Sir William Harcourt himself as a rough-and-ready, hard-hitting debater and stump-speaker, while a master, at times, of a nicety of pungent phrase and epigram to which Sir William cannot pretend. Mr. Morley's recent speech at Manchester was a fine specimen of off-hand oratory designed for popular effect, and it was followed by a powerful speech in Parliament on the payment of the Indian troops at Suakim, which exposed mercilessly the particularly shabby nature of that Government measure, and had the practical effect of cutting down the normal Government majority of 146 to 85.

Some of Mr. Morley's Liberal followers and admirers conceived the idea of offering him a dinner. The affair was in full train, when suddenly Lord Carrington, who was to preside, wrote to the committee that he would have to be excused. Everybody recognized the significance of this; the hand was Carrington's, but the voice was Harcourt's. That baronet includes Mr. Morley in the number of his dearest foes. It is believed, and is doubtless true, that it was owing to Mr. Morley's advice that Rosebery was chosen instead of Harcourt to succeed Mr. Gladstone. Sir William is not the man to forget this, much less to sit quietly by and see the man who prevented him from being Prime Minister of England himself aspire to that post. So he proceeded to bring about so many withdrawals from the Morley dinner that the whole thing had to be given up. Meantime the rank and file of the Liberals are much depressed and discouraged over these squabbles of their leaders and would-be leaders.

THE PLATFORM OF REVOLUTION.

ATTENTION has been so largely directed upon the financial plank of the Chicago platform that its other revolutionary deliverances have been partly overlooked. It is well, however, and it will be necessary many times in the course of the campaign, to set them forth in their true light. The public should be taught that lawless dealing with the currency goes naturally hand in hand with proposals to defy the courts, to break down the rights of private contract, to encourage riot, and to debauch and degrade the public service. All these proposals are in the Chicago platform, and they were put there deliberately. They are clothed in circumspect language, but their intent and effect are unmistakable. The Altgelds and Tillmans who insisted upon the adoption of these revolutionary planks as the price of their support, did not care much for the form so long as they got the substance.

The assault upon the authority and integrity of the courts, particularly of the Supreme Court, is thinly veiled. In condemning that court for its decision in the income-tax case, which it affirms was against both precedent and law, the platform has a phrase about a reversal by "the court as it may hereafter be constituted." This has been explained as only an innocent expression, referring merely to normal changes in the court through death or resignation or superannuation. But the Chicago revolutionists were not holding out vague hopes of that kind. What they undoubtedly meant, and intended their followers to understand, by their language was a threat to pack the Supreme Court, or else reorganize it, so as to secure a reversal of the income-tax decision. We admit that they have a precedent for the former course in the appointments made by President Grant to secure the reversal of the greenback decision. But the evils which have flowed from that event ought to put us on our guard against another experiment of the kind. Moreover, another plank of the Chicago platform, declaring against "life tenure in the public service," of course includes judges, and embodies the threat to break up the whole organization of our federal courts, and to add the election of federal judges to the upheavals of Presidential years.

This blow at the courts shows how true are the instincts of the revolutionaries. They know their most formidable enemies. Judicial decisions have again and again drawn the fangs of confiscatory and revolutionary legislation, and the courts have come more and more to stand as the great bulwarks of property and personal right. It is perfectly natural, then, that men planning confiscation and revolution should strike hard at the chief obstacle in their way. We can conceive of voters prepared honestly to accept or "chance" free silver; but what citizen who ever thinks at all can approve the proposition to break down and pervert the federal courts?

Closely connected with this attack upon judges is the attack upon a great legal and constitutional principle. The platform declares for "such legislation as will prevent for the future the demonetization of any kind of legal-tender money by private contract." This is a quiet proposal to undo one of the most important parts of the work of the framers of the Constitution. What the revolutionists are aiming at is the prohibition or invalidation of gold contracts. But if they succeed in that, they will break down the inviolability of private contracts all round. No State can pass "such legislation"—it is explicitely forbidden by the Constitution; but Congress undoubtedly may, and that is what the Chicago platform means. The Constitution did not forbid Congress to pass laws impairing the obligation of contracts, mainly because, we suppose, nobody dreamed that Congress would ever do such a thing. The danger was on the side of the States, and precisely in the line of debtors' confiscating legislation such as the Chicago revolutionists have in mind. Against that danger the Constitution erected an insurmountable barrier. As Judge Story says: "The great object of the framers of the Constitution undoubtedly was to secure the inviolability of contracts." Could they have contemplated for a moment that Congress would commit a monstrous injustice which they effectually debarred the States from doing? However that may be, this new revolutionary attack on the right of private contract in kinds of money, carries with it a clear threat to private contracts of all kinds, and proposes to put all property at the mercy of the caprice or passion of legislators.

The chief Altgeld plank is the one denouncing the "interference by federal authorities in local affairs." We cannot follow the twists and windings of this deliverance, but everybody knows what it means. It is a surrender to rioters. It is a promise to them that the strong arm of the central Government shall not again be stretched out against them as it was in 1894 in Illinois. It implies that if such a crisis shall again occur, with an anarchist Governor in control of the local authorities, no step shall be taken to protect, from the fury of the mob, life or property or laborers in their right to work. Such action by the federal authorities the platform is pleased to declare "a violation of the Constitution of the United States," despite the fact that the whole case, in all its bearings, was elaborately argued before the Supreme Court, which decided that there had been no violation of the Constitution whatever. This lends the needed air of burlesque to the preliminary protest of the platform that it is devoted to the "faithful observance of constitutional limitations."

The civil-service plank, besides threatening the stability of the courts, undoubtedly proposes to undo all that has been done in rescuing the public service from the spoils system. Nothing else can be intended by affirming opposition to "life tenure," and favoring "fixed terms of office, and such an administration of the civil-service laws as will afford equal opportunities to all citizens of ascertained fitness." Thus we have a complete and harmonious scheme of revolution, all the way from the destruction of private property up to the debauching of the public service. The platform is truly all of a piece in its innovating planks. Repudiation goes well with attacks on the courts and contracts, advocacy of riots, and the reënthronement of the spoils system. Free silver is alone enough to call for the defeat of the Chicago ticket and platform; with lawlessness, anarchy, and the mob in office added, its defeat becomes the paramount duty of every citizen who wishes life and property still to be secure in this country.

ENGLAND AND THE GOLD STANDARD.

THE opinion undoubtedly prevails, among the more ardent advocates of the silver standard, that Great Britain is somehow greatly interested in having this country, if not all others, adopt and adhere to gold as the measure of values. Perhaps this opinion is not very clearly thought out, and some of those who profess it would say that it is the British Government that feels this interest, while others would attribute it only to a combination of great bankers. All would of course acquit the common people of England of the charge. It may seem incredible to those outside of the exciting influence of the silver propaganda that any one should really think that a number of wealthy bankers had entered into a conspiracy to lend money with the purpose of forcing general prices down so that their debtors might be ruined and unable to pay them back. This belief, however, is openly professed by many, and sincerely held by not a few.

It is undoubtedly true that Englishmen who have lent money in this country, expecting to be repaid in money of the same value, object to the adoption of the silver standard. But the number of our own citizens who have so lent money is immeasurably greater than the number of Englishmen, and the sums that they have lent are incomparably larger. Were it not for the existence of this class, the Englishmen would not have lent much of their money here in the first place, and, as compared with the influence of this class, the influence of Englishmen on our policy is inappreciable. Doubtless English investors would have the laws in this country protect their investments, but they elect no representatives to Congress, and if it be seriously believed that Congressmen have been bribed to maintain the gold standard, it is obviously proba-

ble that by far the greater part of the money employed must have been furnished by those most interested, the American investors.

Looking to the future, the advocates of the silver standard are committed to the view that Englishmen will henceforth not lend their money in this country. On the supposition that they lend by the gold standard, and wish to be repaid by the same standard, it may be granted that Englishmen who have money to lend would be glad to be assured that if they lent it here they would get it back again. From a material point of view, this country offers incomparable opportunities for the investment of capital. But material conditions are not the only ones that appeal to investors: the honesty of borrowers and the orderly administration of just laws are the first consideration. The policy of our silver advocates is not regarded as honest by English investors, nor do they expect from the silver party a satisfactory administration of justice. We may admit, therefore, that English investors would be glad to see what they regard as integrity manifested by our people; but it is absurd to suppose that any Englishmen are actively engaged in creating a high sense of honor among American voters. They would be glad to have it exist, and they might promote its existence if they could, but they are quite helpless in the matter. They can simply look on and decide that if what they regard as a dishonest policy prevails here they will invest their money elsewhere. They will forego a profit possible under favorable conditions because those conditions do not exist. They may thus be compelled to invest elsewhere, and in that way lose some profit that they might have obtained here under different circumstances. On the other hand, this country will lose the profit that might have been obtained from the use of cheap foreign capital. Opinions may differ as to the amount of this loss, but it is certainly reasonable to suppose that we shall lose as much as the Englishmen. The maintenance of the gold standard is therefore quite as much for the interest of the American borrowers as for that of the English lender. Borrowers here will either have to get along without borrowing, or will have to content themselves with borrowing less money and paying higher rates of interest for it.

What is true of the English investor is true to a less extent of the English merchant. Undoubtedly we shall continue to trade with foreign countries if we adopt the silver standard. English merchants will continue to sell us their wares, and we shall continue to sell them our products. But the business will continue to be done on a gold basis, just as it was under the régime of irredeemable paper. The English merchant will get the pay for his goods in gold, or in such quantity of our silver or paper money as he can sell for a satisfactory equivalent in gold, just as he did during the civil war. He will pay for American products in gold, or in its equivalent in our currency. On the whole, it does not appear that the interests of English traders are very much concerned in the matter. They will practically get their pay in gold just as they have done, and pay for what they buy in gold just as they have done.

If we turn to the interests of the British nation, as represented by the British Government, it does not appear that they will be particularly promoted by our maintaining the gold standard. On the other hand, they would be in some important respects promoted by our adopting the silver standard. By so doing we should put ourselves at some disadvantage in competing for the world's commerce, in which our great rival is England. But, disregarding this, we must remember that the welfare of her Indian empire is a matter of the last importance to England. If we were to adopt the free coinage of silver, it would undoubtedly result in some advance of the price of that metal. The Indian Government would thus be benefited by our policy. They would sell their silver in this market instead of in London, and their profits might be in the first instance enormous. They might conceivably be able to "unload" on us to such an extent as to be able to adopt the gold standard. It may be added, parenthetically, that several other governments have large accumulations of silver which they would gladly dispose of to such an accommodating purchaser.

There is a capital story, which is believed to have a basis of fact, to the effect that a Dublin mob once burned all the notes of a detested English banker that they could get hold of. The amount of such notes in the possession of an Irish mob was not perhaps very large; but if we were to adopt the silver standard, we should be following the Irish precedent on a colossal scale. There is a certain irony in the spectacle of the astute Yankees contemplating such a measure of hostility towards their old enemies, the British, and campaign orators on the sound-money side may do well to make this appeal to the sense of humor which must still exist in the mental constitution of the most ardent believer in silver coinage. No one can say positively that the loss to England from our adoption of the silver standard might not be greater in various ways than her gain would be from the extrication of the Indian empire from its monetary embarrassment. But the latter gain would be a clear and palpable one, and it is far from improbable that the members of "the conspiracy of European kings, led by Great Britain," which Senator Daniel told his hearers about, are secretly chuckling at the prospect of relieving themselves of the incubus of huge masses of useless bullion at the expense of the common people of the United States. We fear that they are not above applying the proverb, "Fools are made for wise men to make profit out of" —a proverb not without ethical standing when the fools are dishonest fools and are trying to cheat the wise men.

THE ARBITRATION CORRESPONDENCE

A CYNICAL old diplomat said lately, apropos of the talk about the Triple Alliance, that an international alliance was like a woman's virtue—the less discussed the better for it. Whether true or not in that application, this cannot be said of projects for international arbitration. They gain by every debate. Being in their essence an appeal to reason and morality, every interchange of opinion, every ray of light struck out in discussion, must show their desirability and contribute to their furtherance. If anybody doubts this, the correspondence between Lord Salisbury and Secretary Olney, just published, should be enough to convince him.

The correspondence is substantia ly a report of progress. No definite agreement had been reached at the last date given, but the exchange of notes and comparison of views really show a marked gain over the condition of affairs last December. A conciliatory tone and a willingness to make concessions characterize the letters of both Premier and Secretary. Each retreats perceptibly from the extreme position of last July and December. Lord Salisbury thinks much better of arbitration than he did then, is frankly mindful of the pressure of public opinion in Great Britain making that way, and is now ready and even anxious for a general treaty of arbitration between England and the United States, and specifically for a reference of the Venezuela dispute to arbitration. Mr. Olney, on his part, steps gracefully off his high horse of December 17 last. Then he affirmed that there was but one "course to be pursued"—namely, to draw "the true divisional line" ourselves, and "resist, by every means in our power," any attempt of Great Britain to ignore that line. Now he cheerfully admits that "a genuine arbitration, issuing in an award and finally disposing of the controversy, would be entirely consistent with that position [*i. e.*, the war message] and will be cordially welcomed by this Government."

In general, we are bound to say, Mr. Olney appears to great advantage in this correspondence. He keeps his eye more steadily on the point at issue than Lord Salisbury, and argues the question of method and detail with greater keenness. It seems hard for Salisbury to forget the *gaudium certaminis*. Arbitration is a fine subject for prolonged and leisurely discussion. All sorts of abstract and far-away objections occur to him, and these he delights to present and ask how his opponent is going to answer them. He writes about a treaty with the United States, but his eye is all the while wan-

dering to France and Germany and China, and he keeps asking himself how on earth such an arrangement could be made to work with those countries. As Mr. Bryce has pointed out in his English interview on the subject, the remote and speculative difficulties of arbitration have too much weight in Lord Salisbury's mind. Mr. Olney, on the other hand, is direct and practical. What have European alliances and enmities to do, he asks, with a treaty between our two countries? As for possible and distant embarrassments of arbitration, why should practical statesmen go on shying at them when there are unquestioned advantages, immediate and great, to be reaped by coming to speedy agreement?

Not only in this swifter coming to the real point and impatience with mere refinements does Mr. Olney show himself the warmer champion of arbitration, but also, we think it evident, in the discussion of the machinery of arbitration. Salisbury's tentative proposals for a general treaty provide for the appointment of permanent arbitrators, and an umpire to settle points as to which they may be equally divided, and also make a classification of controversies into arbitrable and non-arbitrable. In the former class he puts, it must be confessed, only the minor causes of international friction—complaints against officials; pecuniary claims and indemnities less than $500,000; questions of diplomatic privilege; rights of fishery, access, etc. We think Mr. Olney justified in replying that any of these questions could easily be settled by existing diplomatic methods, and that it is inconceivable that any of them could lead to war. Questions relating to territory, continues Lord Salisbury, sovereignty, jurisdiction, or claims amounting to more than $500,000, may indeed be arbitrated, but either power may, within three months, appeal from an adverse decision to a tribunal composed of six Supreme Court judges, three from either country; and unless they confirm the award by a vote of five to one it shall not stand. Moreover, the right is reserved, by a special article, of refusal by either power to submit to arbitration any difference whatever that, in its judgment, "materially affects its honor or the integrity of its territory." Secretary Olney's criticism of this proposed scheme is cogent and destructive. Who is to say what difference may be judged to affect the "national honor"? Under that clause any and every arbitration could be refused. Then the provision of a tribunal of appeal would both needlessly prolong the process and render its first stages ridiculous. With the award appealable in any event, "the original tribunal might as well be dispensed with, since each party will be sure to make its real contest before the appellate tribunal alone."

Lord Salisbury fears that the nation would not submit to an adverse decision by a single vote, and that necessarily a foreigner's. But Mr. Olney maintains that if an award and settlement are to be reached at all, they must come in some such way, whereas, by the scheme proposed, it would be almost certain that no award at all could stand before the appellate tribunal. One judge out of three might vote against the contention of his own country, but hardly two, as would be necessary. What Secretary Olney argues for is a tribunal that will make decisions, not go through merely "an uncommonly ceremonious and elaborate investigation"; an award that will be final; and a submission of all controversies except such as may, by solemn vote of Parliament or Congress, be declared in advance of a nature not to be arbitrated.

Lord Salisbury's specific propositions for the arbitration of the Venezuela dispute mark a great advance over his position of last November. He suggests a commission of two English and two American subjects, to examine and report on the historical facts; their report, in case of failure of the governments of Great Britain and Venezuela to act upon it, to be referred to a new tribunal of three who shall draw the boundary line, their decision being binding, "provided always," and here comes in the mischievous qualification, that "such line shall not include as territory of Venezuela any territory which was *bona fide* occupied by subjects of Great Britain on the 1st of January, 1887." This is practically to withhold from arbitration a good part of the whole controversy. Mr. Olney objects that the commission of four would be very likely to divide two and two, and so run into a deadlock at the very beginning. He also objects to the reservation of the territory occupied *bona fide*. Who is to determine the *bona fides*? Why not refer that question to the commission along with the other facts? Why not, in short, refer the whole case to arbitration, and effectually protect the settlers by a specific clause? Mr. Olney offers the following, which really seems all that would be required:

"Provided, however, that, in fixing such line, if territory of one party be found in the occupation of the subjects or citizens of the other party, such weight and effect shall be given to such occupation as reason, justice, the rules of international law, and the equities of the particular case may appear to require."

The last letter published was of date June 22, and we are glad to credit the report that since then negotiations have proceeded much more rapidly, and that the actual formulation of a treaty is now proceeding. With public opinion in both countries ripe and urgent for it, it will be a disgrace to the public men in charge of the affair if they do not improve the situation to make this great and beneficent experiment in the interest of international peace.

THE MACEDONIAN QUESTION.

THE Macedonian central committee of Sofia issued early in June a manifesto to the various local committees. It stated that "reform by peaceful means is no longer to be reckoned on, and that the committee will concentrate all their energies to obtain real political autonomy." In other words, the Macedonian patriots proposed to recommence the guerilla warfare of last summer on a more extensive scale, and, in view of the Cretan insurrection, with better prospects of success. An emphatic and significant answer to this document came speedily, not from the Sultan, but from the Emperor Francis Joseph. Through his foreign minister he said that Austria was "firmly determined" to maintain the integrity of the Turkish empire in Europe, and bade the Macedonians be content for the present with the reforms which the Sultan could be prevailed upon to grant. The revolutionists, in obedience to this mandate, have remained quiet up to this time; but the slumbering fire to which Count Goluchowski referred in his speech, is not extinguished, but may at any moment burst into a blaze.

It would almost seem as if an inexorable law governed the dismemberment of the Turkish empire; that there are stages through which each of the subject races must pass before they can be freed from the intolerable yoke. To the long period of passive submission must succeed, first, the uneasiness arising from the desire for liberty—fostered both from within and from without—then weak resistances to tyranny, abortive insurrections, followed by savage repressions, massacres arousing the horror of Christendom, and, finally, deliverance. At least this has been the experience of the freed Balkan States, and Macedonia appears to be passing from the five-century-long stage of apathetic bondage into that of restlessness, insurrection, and its repression. Time alone will show whether the furnace of affliction through which Bulgaria passed and Armenia is now passing, lies between the wretched Macedonians and their deliverance.

Terrible though this situation is, and repulsive to the civilized world, it must be admitted that the action of Austria is reasonable. The solution of the Macedonian question is involved in more and greater difficulties than that of Armenia. The Turkish provinces which include the ancient Macedonia—now, like Armenia, a mere historical expression—are inhabited by a "jumble of fragmentary nationalities," divided by race, language, religion, and political affinities. There are some three millions of Slavs, Greeks, Turks, Rumans, Jews, and gypsies, two-thirds at least being Slavs. It was this fact which led Russia, in the treaty of San Stefano, to include this whole region in the new principality of Bulgaria—an arrangement successfully resisted at Berlin by England in the interests of Turkey.

These Slavs, however, are more hopelessly divided among themselves than are even the Armenians, Kurds, and Turks of

Asia Minor. Some are Bulgarian, some Servian, some Greek, many are renegade Mohammedans; and, to the non-Mohammedans, freedom from the Turk is worthless unless it brings union with Bulgaria, Servia, or Greece. It has been the shortsighted and selfish policy of these three states, intent more upon their own aggrandizement than upon the deliverance of their countrymen, to foster and deepen these divisions. Singularly enough, they have found schools to be the most effective means for propagandism. This is due, no doubt, to the important part in the Bulgarians' struggle for freedom which their desire for education played. This desire, amounting to enthusiasm, was awakened mainly by the labors of the American missionaries, and was not confined to the population living north of the Balkans. Mr. Tozer, travelling in the western highlands of Macedonia in 1861, found in a village a school of 200 Bulgarian children. "Very clean and orderly they looked," he writes, "as they sat at their desks, very much in the style of an English school. The master was a Bulgarian, and the children are taught to read and write both Greek and Bulgarian." This school was only one among a number which had been established in that region. Whether or not the work has been carried on there since then without intermission, we have no means of knowing, but in 1891 the Bulgarian National Assembly voted three million francs for the support of primary schools in Macedonia. At present, under the changed policy of the Bulgarian Government, this work is under the charge of the Exarchate, and it is estimated that from one to two million francs annually are voluntarily contributed by the Bulgarian peasants for the education of the children of their Macedonian brethren.

The Greeks were in the field as early as, if not before, the Bulgarians, and so successful has been their propagandism that there are extensive regions where the inhabitants, Slavs by race, have become completely Hellenized. Servia has been equally active and successful. Even Rumania, with what object in view it is difficult to see, takes a part in the work. The Macedonian Society of Bucharest, it is said, spends yearly some hundreds of thousands of francs in providing the scattered communities of Macedonian Rumans with schools.

Whatever these schools may have been in the past, they are now mere instruments for bringing the inhabitants under the political and religious influence of one of the three states, for Rumania can hardly expect to share in the ultimate division of the Turkish Empire. The Servians, especially, are accused of bribing parents to send their children to schools taught by Servians, but the accusation would probably hold true of all alike. This propagandism has not been confined to the young, but large numbers of publications advocating the historical and other claims of the different States have been distributed among the people. Consequently, under these varied influences the Macedonian Slavs have been brought into a chaotic condition. A Bulgarian community, for instance, is persuaded to declare itself Servian. This means not simply a change of political affinities, but a transfer of ecclesiastical relations—the renunciation of the national Bulgarian church with its ritual in the native tongue, the departure of the Bulgarian pope, and submission to the Patriarch, the use of the Greek language in the church services, and the ministration of a Greek pope. So there may be in the same district four contiguous Slav villages, three being Bulgarian, Servian, and Greek in their politics and religion, the fourth made up of renegade Mohammedans content with the rule of the Turk. He, meanwhile, looks on with indifference, if not with approval, knowing that the deeper the divisions between his subjects, the easier it is to hold them in subjection.

Under these circumstances it is evident that autonomy is impossible, for which of the three factions—in reality there are four, the Bulgarian revolutionists being divided into Nationalists and Russophiles—would yield the supremacy? Austria, too, though the Emperor ostentatiously disclaims any desire for an increase of territory, has long been credited with the design of taking Salonika—a design absolutely irreconcilable with the ambitious claims of Servia. On the departure of the Turk, then, an internecine war seems inevitable, in which the Mohammedan Slavs, judging from last summer's experiences, would be exterminated, unless Austria, in obedience to the mandate of a compassionate Europe, should occupy the Macedonian provinces, and, as in Bosnia-Herzegovina, bring order out of chaos, and give prosperity and happiness to a people still apathetic in their indescribable misery.

Correspondence.

THE COMING COTTON CROP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While the remainder of the country is bitterly growling because of hard times, there is at least one section where the people are more prosperous than they have been in a long time. That section is the cotton-growing South. The money-bringing crop there is cotton, and a method of growing it has been generally adopted that enormously decreases the expense, and makes it a profitable crop at almost any price. The principal element in "raising" cotton has been food for both negro and mule. Instead of being purchased from the West, it has been grown at home for little or nothing. This is the main reason for the very low current price of cereals and provisions. Instead of being an enormous customer of the West, the South now buys very meagrely.

The coming cotton crop promises to bring real "boom" times to the South. While a trifle less in acreage than the banner crop of two years ago, it is still very large—not, however, larger than the world can consume of American cotton. The season has been extremely propitious and has advanced the yield in time at least three weeks. If cotton brings only five cents per pound as did the crop of 1894–95 (a price then below the cost of production), the profits will be good; general business will be magnificent. The price cotton will realize, however, promises much larger, as the conditions now are very different from those of two years ago. Settled opinion is, that the size of the present crop and the banner crop will be about the same—in the neighborhood of ten million bales. Then there was a large surplus of cotton on hand at the beginning of the crop year; now there will be none. The trade of the world is much better now than then. English and Continental spinners are doing a large business. This year the planter does not have to pile his cotton all at once to market to liquidate his indebtedness, but can sell it evenly throughout the year as the price suits him—a thing in itself that will help maintain prices. It now looks as if the price would be about six cents, which will bring $300,000,000 for a crop grown with incredible cheapness.

In reading the above, the question that will occur to the Eastern mind is, "Well, then, how is it that the Southern farmer is so rampant for free silver?" The Southern farmer is attending to his crop and worrying himself little about politics. The people who are at present doing most of the howling "for the cause of silver" are like those at the Chicago Convention, viz., country editors, country lawyers, politicians who have a job and politicians who want a job. W. Collier Estes.

Memphis, July 18, 1896.

"OXBOW" AND "BOW."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The term *oxbow* seems to have acquired in New England these two meanings: (1) the bend or reach of a river, and (2) the land enclosed, or partially enclosed, within such bend. The former meaning was first recognized by an English work—Admiral W. H. Smyth's 'Sailor's Word-Book' (1867)—and has thence found its way into several recent dictionaries, while the second meaning has thus far escaped the attention of lexicographers, and even Prof. J. D. Whitney has failed to include it in the long list of topographical terms considered in his 'Names and Places' (1888).

The oxbows of the Connecticut River are well known, the Great Oxbow at Newburg, Vt., and the Little Oxbow at Haverhill, N. H., having long been famous; and it is in that region that the term appears to have arisen. These oxbows had, before the coming of the whites, been occupied by the Indians; for in Capt. P. Powers's Journal, which, written in 1754, is the earliest account we have of the Coos region, there are allusions to "the great turn of clear interval." The term *oxbow* must soon have come into use, for though Newburg and Haverhill were not settled until the seventh decade of the eighteenth century, it is found as early as 1772.

It will be remembered that Dr. Holmes laid the scene of his New England story, 'The Guardian Angel,' at "Oxbow Village," but it may not be generally known that there has long been in New York State a village of precisely

this name, and that villages similarly designated are now found in Arizona, Illinois, Michigan, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. This fact indicates that the term is now somewhat widely diffused; but the examples before the writer are almost wholly from New England writings.

The word *bow* has also been employed in American writings as precisely synonymous in meaning with *oxbow*, as defined above; but neither of these meanings has yet been recognized by any dictionary.

"At Haverhill is a farm of about 600 acres of excellent land, about 150 of which are under good improvements—all within two bows of the river [Connecticut], which is a sufficient outside fence; and . . . has on it a large and well-finished Barn on one bow, and also a corn barn on the other bow." 1768, E. Cleaveland, in F. Chase's *History of Dartmouth College* (1891), i., 105.

"The Petition of Thomas Johnson of Newburg . . . humbly Sheweth that by Charter, there is but one Ferry, Across Connecticut River in Haverhill in the County of Rockingham, by Charter allowed to be kept, which by said Charter ought to be kept within one mile of the Point of the *little Ox Bow* (so call'd) as said River runs." 1772, *New Hampshire Town Papers* (1883), xii., 177.

"Newburg court-house stands on the high lands back from the river, and commands a fine view of what is called the great *Ox Bow*, which is formed by a curious bend in the river. It is one of the most beautiful and fertile meadows in New England. The circumference of this Bow is about 4½ miles; its greatest depth is seven-eighths of a mile, containing about 450 acres." 1793, J. Morse, *Universal Gazetteer*, i., 326.

"In this town [Newburg] are those extensive intervales known by the name of the great *Ox-Bow*, which form the river assumes in its course at this place." 1797, J. A. Graham, *Present State of Vermont*, 148.

"Antwerp . . . was first settled about 1807 by people from the Eastern States. . . . The post-office in this town is kept at the great-bend of Indian river—and, with Indian allusion, named *Oxbow P. O.*" 1813, H. G. Spafford, *Gazetteer of New York*, 125.

"There are three peninsulas at Lancaster, of the same beautiful form with the Oxbow at Newburg; and several others in Lunenburgh, and Guildhall." 1821, T. Dwight, *Travels*, ii., 141.

"Having reached a curve [in the Aroostook River] called the Oxbow, we found that the Indians had there held an encampment." 1838, C. T. Jackson, *Second Report on the Geology of the Public Lands of Mass. and Maine*, 81.

"Before we reach the mouth, the river [Allagash] makes a large bend or 'ox-bow,' after passing which it expands into a large bay, at its confluence with the Walloostook."—1838, J. T. Hodge, in *do.*, 59.

"The Withers Homestead . . . was built on the east bank of the river, a little above the curve which gave the name to Oxbow Village."—1867, O. W. Holmes, *Guardian Angel* (1891), 21.

"*Cohos* it is said means *crooked*, and was borrowed from the Cohasaukes, a part of the St. Francis tribe, *uck* or *auke* meaning *river or place*, and was applied to the territory of Haverhill, on account of the crooked course of the river and the consequent large bends of the land, the immense bows."—1888, J. Q. Bittinger, *History of Haverhill, N. H.*, 363.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

Boston, July 14, 1896.

Notes.

A SINGULAR value will attach to the large-paper issue of a new Riverside Edition of Mrs. Stowe's Works, in that each set will contain her firm autograph, written but a few months before her death. The edition will consist of sixteen volumes, of which the first will contain a biographical sketch, and all will be edited and (where necessary) annotated.

The first part of a life of Fridtjof Nansen has appeared in Norway, Sweden, and Russia. The authors are W. C. Brögger and Nordahl Rolfsen, and in addition to the biography proper there will be an introductory poem by Björnstjerne Björnsen, and articles by Prof. Retzius, Baron von Toll, and others. Among the illustrations will be several portraits of Nansen never before published.

On the 15th of June, Povl Frederik Barfod, one of the last of the older school of Danish authors, died at Copenhagen. Barfod was born at Lyngby, April 7, 1811. During the years immediately preceding and following the granting of the Constitution of 1848 he took an active part in politics, both as speaker and writer, but in 1869 he retired from public life. His best known work is 'Tales from the History of the Fatherland' (1853). The last years of his life were devoted to the writing of his memoirs, which will shortly be published.

It will be remembered that some months ago M. Hector Malot announced his retirement from the field of authorship. He preferred wisely to lay down his pen before his hand had lost its vigor through age. He had produced, too, so much solid and excellent work that he was probably not mistaken in thinking that it was beyond reasonable hope that he should do anything in the future better than that which he had already done, and that any addition to the mere bulk of his work could bring no addition to his fame. It appears, however, that it was only the pen of the novel-writer that he laid down. We shall have no more stories from M. Hector Malot, but it is announced that he will publish in the course of a few months a brief literary autobiography, under the title of 'Le Roman de Mes Romans,' in which he will tell us how he has made his books and why.

A happy epoch in the Napoleonic revival seems certainly to have been reached when obituary notices of it are announced and its funeral sermon is preparing. Something very like this, we take it, is impending in the new volume of M. Geoffroy de Grandmaison, 'Napoléon et ses récents historiens,' which is said to be a group of studies on the latest publications relative to the First Empire, undertaken from the strictest point of view of a Christian moralist, "éclairé du flambeau de la foi."

Mr. Gladstone's 'Studies Subsidiary to the Works of Bishop Butler' (London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan) comprises little that has not already appeared in various periodicals. That it throws light upon Butler cannot be denied, but we suspect that its chief value for the historian of thought will lie in the light it casts upon Mr. Gladstone, on his theological side. Those who purchased the fine edition of the 'Analogy' and the 'Sermons' of Mr. Gladstone's editing, will naturally desire this companion volume.

It would be easy to dilate upon the posthumous volume of the lectures of Alfred Edward Brehm, 'From North Pole to Equator: Studies of Wild Life and Scenes in Many Lands' (London: Blackie & Son; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). The translation, by Margaret R. Thomson, will help to give the naturalist traveller something of the reputation among English-speaking peoples which he has long deservedly enjoyed in Germany. The author of 'Thierleben' here relates his authentic observations not only of the brute creation, but of the various semi-civilized or barbarous and savage peoples whom he visited, and his narrative has a charm which is irresistible for young or old. Few works of its kind so attractive and so instructive for youth could be named. Adult readers will be pleased to meet here, on p. 300, with the story of the heroic baboon of which Darwin made a classic use in his 'Descent of Man,' and it is well known how much reliance he placed on Brehm's statements generally. A sketch of the author is prefixed, and there are some desirable notes by J. Arthur Thomson. The book is handsomely printed and bound, with numerous illustrations.

Thomas Sedgwick Steele's 'Voyage to Viking Land' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat) is an itinerary of a voyage along the coast of Norway from Hardanger Fiörd northward to Hammerfest and the region of the midnight sun, returning by way of Aalesund and Bergen. It is profusely illustrated with excellent "process" pictures from photographs taken by the author, mostly from the deck of the steamer en route, and has also a very clear, though small, outline map of Norway. For a traveller going over the same route, as hundreds of tourists do every summer, the book might serve fairly well as a supplement to Murray or Baedeker. It can hardly be called literature, nor does it contribute anything essential to the common stock of knowledge in regard to the region visited. The only new thing we have found in it is the evidence that the dealers in "curios" sell as "souvenirs of the whale," under the name of "whale's eyes," the common parasitic barnacles, *coronula diadema*, which are alleged to be the "bony eye-sockets" of this monster of the sea (p. 88). The excellence and number of the illustrations redeem the book from the vacuity of its text, and may doubtless serve to convey to the uninitiated some idea of the beauties of Norwegian scenery and the characteristics of its towns and people.

The results of Lieutenant Ryder's expedition to the east coast of Greenland in 1891-92 have recently appeared in the valuable series of "Communications about Greenland," published by a Danish commission having charge of the geographical and geological researches in that continent. This latest addition, which forms the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth parts, contains more than eleven hundred pages, not the least valuable feature being a French résumé.

The visitor to the site of ancient Eleusis encounters a somewhat perplexing chaos of ruins from which his baffled eye turns willingly to the harmonious beauties of Salamis and the sea. The little guide, 'Eleusis: ses mystères, ses ruines et son musée,' which is just issued by the director of the excavations, Demetrios Philios (Athens: Anestis Constantinides), removes these perplexities by a luminous and accurate plan of the sacred enclosure, which shows the latest discoveries, and gives many details not found in Baedeker. The period of each structure is exhibited at a glance by different colors. The sketch of the history of Eleusis and of the mysteries is drawn by an expert from the best authorities, and is told with a neatness and grace which

one does not expect in guide-books. The intelligent tourist will find an admirable cicerone in this brief pamphlet of eighty pages.

A new volume by "Th. Bentzon" (since her visit to this country, three years ago, well known to American readers by her real name, Mme. Blanc) takes its title, 'Une Double Épreuve' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), from the first of four short stories which, together with some reminiscences of a journey up the lower Mississippi, make up the volume. The first two stories deal with the subject of which French novelists seem never to grow tired; in the second, 'Le Taureau,' the brutal traits in the peasant's nature are brought out with an insensibility resembling Maupassant's, though evidently less spontaneous. Each of the four stories contains characters of distinctive interest.

Jacques Naurouze's 'À travers la Tourmente' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) is almost a strong work, but is spoiled by a good deal of needless childishness in incidents, conversations, and style. The fact that it is meant for young people's reading accounts for the author's ever visible desire to be absolutely proper, but does not justify the feebleness of the tale and its want of texture. Except towards the close, where a very interesting young lady is in danger and the author becomes alive to the possibilities of the situation, the book is very namby-pamby, and, though it treats of the Revolution and the Terror, does not hold the attention steadily.

Charles de Rouvre's 'À Deux' (Paris: Colin et Cie.) is a realistic novel which is not obscene, in which there is a positively sympathetic character, and in which even the contemptible hero remains human and intelligible. It is a study of the class of employees in one of the great railroad offices in Paris, and a close, well wrought-out piece of work that grows on the reader. It is sad, of course, but not repulsive in language or episodes; a good, square piece of realistic observation.

In a brochure of 86 pages entitled 'Der Judenstaat: Versuch einer modernen Lösung der Judenfrage' (Vienna: Breitenstein), Dr. Theodor Herzl, a Hebrew jurist, earnestly proposes to check anti-Semitism and to solve the Jewish question by collecting the descendants of the scattered tribes and reconstituting the kingdom of Israel. Territory for the establishment of this government is to be acquired in Palestine or in Argentina by agreeing to regulate the finances of those countries and place them on a permanently sound basis. This work is to be accomplished by a "Jewish Chartered Company," organized under the protection of England, with its headquarters in London. The author thinks that it will be as easy to take along all the achievements of European comfort and culture to Palestine or Argentina (his preference is evidently for the latter) as it is to have "English hotels in Egypt, Viennese cafés in South Africa, and Bavarian beer in Paris." Dr. Herzl enters fully into the details of his Utopian scheme, which the most wealthy and influential Jews of Christendom would hardly endorse. He even describes the national banner of the future state as "white, with seven golden stars signifying hours of labor."

On April 21 the German Imperial Diet passed a resolution requesting the German confederated governments to use every means in their power for the suppression of the barbarous custom of duelling now so alarmingly prevalent in the so-called higher classes, and especially among the officers of the army, and that, too, in direct violation of the laws of the Empire. A queer commentary on this resolution is furnished by a recent incident in the same legislative body. In the course of a debate on June 28, Count Mirbach made derogatory remarks about the absent delegate Bamberger, coupled with allusions to his Jewish descent. The Liberal member, Dr. Barth, replied to this attack upon a colleague behind his back, and characterized such conduct as "not gentlemanlike," whereupon Count Mirbach demanded that this expression be withdrawn or satisfaction be given. Dr. Barth refused to do either. Count Mirbach then mounted the rostrum and denounced Dr. Barth as "no gentleman." This tendency to mingle pistols with politics is the direct result of the encouragement given to duelling by the Emperor's rescript establishing a "court of honor," whose decisions are accepted as superior to statute law.

M. Charles Henry calls attention, in the *Comptes Rendus*, to the fact that the phosphorescent sulphide of zinc, which is now prepared, after his process, on a large scale, ceases to be phosphorescent at a temperature of twenty degrees below zero, but resumes the giving out of its stored-up light when it is again warmed up. He holds out to us, with perfect seriousness, the hope that we shall some time be able to accumulate the light of day in any desirable quantity, and to reproduce it at pleasure at any hour of the night. We may look forward with some hopefulness, therefore, to the time when night shall indeed be robbed of its terrors—at least during the winter months, when the maintaining of low temperatures would be less expensive than in summer. A process that would fill us with a still keener satisfaction at the present moment would be an inverse one, by which the winter cold could be stored up, and set free at pleasure by means of the superabundant light of a summer's day. Whoever should solve this problem would *erst recht*, as the Germans say, be deserving of the thanks of suffering mortals.

The *American Historical Review* (Macmillan) completes its first volume with the current quarterly issue. Mr. Melville M. Bigelow continues his translation of the Bohun wills. Prof. Henry M. Baird recurs to the Huguenot defence of monarchy in a paper concerning Francis Hotman and his 'Franco-Gallia,' of which a synopsis is given. Mr. Charles Francis Adams resumes his military studies of the Revolution in a discussion of the battle of Long Island, which he sets down to Washington's bad generalship as strategy and as action, and to luck in its fortunate issue short of the total capture or destruction of the American army. Prof. Moses Coit Tyler contributes a rapid and effective sketch of President Witherspoon in the Revolution, with some timely excerpts from this statesman's financial deliverances. "No paper of any kind is, properly speaking, money. It ought never to be made a legal tender. It ought not to be forced upon anybody, because it cannot be forced upon everybody." Finally (for the leading articles) Mr. John S. Murdock illumines an obscure corner of the history of Presidential nominating conventions by relating what is known of the conference of Federalists in September, 1812, which put DeWitt Clinton in nomination. The most important inedited original document of this number is the draft of an address of the Continental Congress to the people of the United States, from the pen of James Wilson, reported February 13, 1776, deprecating separation though contemplating it as a possibility. It was (though officially ordered) tabled and never brought up again.

The first number of *Ex-Libris* shows that this quarterly is in good hands, and that it may even claim a place among the minor historical magazines. The biographical sketches of General Washington Johnston and of Samuel Chase, accompanying their bookplates and the portrait of the impeached Maryland judge, are notable in themselves. Mr. Henry Blackwell begins a revision of his Check-list of American Bookplates, extending it from 1850 to 1870. The magazine is published by the Ex-Libris Society of Washington, D. C., at 1424 F Street. It is very attractively printed.

The pleasant news comes from India that our countryman Charles Rockwell Lanman, Professor of Sanskrit in Harvard University, has had conferred upon him the distinction of being elected an Honorary Member of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, in Calcutta, in recognition of his distinguished services as a Sanskritist. This mark of recognition is the more to be valued inasmuch as *the* Asiatic Society is the oldest and most famous of all existing Oriental societies, having been founded by Sir William Jones in 1784. The list of honorary membership numbers but thirty names; among them are the names of Max Müller of Oxford and Cowell of Cambridge.

—Heinrich von Treitschke, whose premature death last April removed the youngest of the great men that were associated with the founding of the German Empire, is to receive the honor of a monument at the imperial capital. A call has been issued, asking for subscriptions for this purpose; even the smallest contributions will be welcomed. Appropriately at the head of the list of signers stands Prince Bismarck; among the fifty names or more of Treitschke's friends and associates may be mentioned Dr. Miquel, the Minister of Finance, Profs. Herman Grimm, Adolf Harnack, Schmoller, Vahlen, Wattenbach, Wagner, the present rector of the university, and Ernst von Wildenbruch. These men remember the miseries of particularistic discord when Emperor and Empire were revolutionary conceptions. Remembering this and the fearless, untiring energy of Treitschke then and ever since, they make their appeal to all who have had their faith in national unity strengthened and their nobler impulses quickened by his kindling words. The life-work of this brilliant historian and single-hearted patriot is somewhat remote from the living interests of our own land to-day, but the lofty qualities of mind and heart which enabled him to perform that work have left their impress upon hundreds of young Americans who have listened to his resistless eloquence. Those who gratefully remember him, and doubtless also many of his own countrymen among us, will be glad of this opportunity to do him honor. Subscriptions may be sent to the banking-house of Delbrueck, Leo & Co., Mauerstrasse 61, Berlin W.

—The director of the French School of Archæology at Athens, M. Homolle, has just discovered, lying between the recently excavated ruins of the theatre and a Byzantine supporting-wall, a beautiful bronze statue at first thought to be that of a victor in the Olympian games. Near it were found horses' legs and formless débris, the probable remains of the chariot to which the statue belonged. The cleaning of the base of the monument brought to light an inscription showing that the statue was a votive offering to the divinity,

given by one Polysalos in honor of a victor whose name was indicated only by the ending *-ona*. Its style suggested Hieron of Syracuse, and evidently belonged to the period before Phidias. M. Homolle thinks it probable that Ageladas, the master of Phidias and Polycletes, was the creator of the statue. In a communication to the French Academy he gives a minute description of its present condition. It represents a beardless youth, with straight nose, full half-open and half-smiling lips, and firm chin. The hair is treated boldly, brought down almost to a point on the back of the neck, allowed to fall in fine ringlets on the temples, and suggested by a few delicate lines on the cheeks. A band shaped like a diadem passes over the hair. The neck is round and youthful, and planted firmly upon powerful shoulders. The body is straight and bends slightly backward. A tunic falls in ample folds loosely to the ankles, and is fastened in at the waist with a narrow belt. The arms are held close to the body, the fore-arms bent up to hold the reins. Their fine modelling is not concealed by the short, pleated sleeves of the tunic, which fall only to the elbows. The legs are placed close together, the heels touch. Both hands and feet, without being overdrawn, are strongly and beautifully modelled.

—The statue was cast in four pieces—the two fore-arms; the bust, with both half-sleeves, and the head; the legs and lower part of the trunk beginning at the belt. The artist studied the joining of these pieces with the greatest care, uniting the two chief parts of the cast under the overhanging pleats of the tunic so skilfully that it is almost impossible even for an expert to determine the point where they unite. The arms, also, are joined with equal care where the pleated sleeves stand out a little from them. The crown is now found to be symbolical of a victory won by Hieron in the Pythian (not the Olympian) games, and Hieron is represented wearing the same crown on some old Sicilian coins. This statue throws new light on Greek art, and especially upon early methods of casting bronze. It is the first entire bronze statue excavated in Greece, and the noblest work of art belonging to this period thus far discovered. It measures nearly six feet in height, and, with the exception of the left arm, which is broken, is in an excellent state of preservation. The eyes are especially admired, and give an unusual expression of animation to the face. This statue will remain at Delphi as the nucleus of a museum which the Government intends to establish there, and to make more accessible to the travelling public by improved means of communication.

—Mr. Lawton's 'Art and Humanity in Homer' (Macmillan) is in many respects an alluring little volume, and was intended to invite readers to make themselves more fully acquainted with the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey.' It consists of six lectures written for a "University Extension" course, which have appeared in part already in the *Atlantic Monthly*. They are superior specimens of this kind of literature. They are written in an attractive style, and show their author to be a man of refined taste, of general culture, and of sufficient scholarship. They are really, we should think, a serviceable introduction to the beauties of that unknown country which Keats was so charmed to explore under Chapman's guidance. We are surprised to find Mr. Lawton saying, "I firmly believe that the Homeric poems (and many other masterpieces [illegible]n literature) should be read through and read repeatedly, even by competent linguistic students, *in English translations*." We can see no reason in this unless the translation happens to be a masterpiece in its own language. For readers who are not "competent linguistic students," translations must serve, and Mr. Lawton mingles with his essays some hexameter renderings of his own, urging the theory that the hexameter is the natural unit of measure of Homer's thought. These experiments we do not consider so felicitous as the criticism and the exposition contained in the essays. It is hard—perhaps impossible—to write English hexameters without falling into the prosaic, without dissonances and oddities of expression, without laying stress on pronouns and conjunctions which the English never emphasizes. Such defects of melody and rhythm profoundly misrepresent the sweep and beauty of the original. It is no compensation for this to follow the division and measure of the Homeric line. But Mr. Lawton fails here in good company; and the genuine merits of his essays remain unimpaired.

—Every one who has been to the Champ-de-Mars Salon, within the last few years, cannot have failed to realize the revived interest there is now in wood-engraving, especially in its more original forms. Vallotton, with his delightfully amusing shops and funerals and street scenes, cut on the wood much in the same manner as Dürer's designs were cut by sixteenth-century wood-cutters, probably inaugurated the movement. Lepère did more than any one else to encourage it; and it has increased to such proportions that in Paris alone two papers have just been started as its special organs. *L'Image* is the more sane and genuinely artistic of the two. It was founded, the title-page explains, by the Société Coöpérative des Graveurs sur Bois Français, in order to preserve an art which, because of the mechanical processes, seems in danger of disappearance. Here you have an example of wood-cutting in "La Prière" by Lepère, done with a knife, a fine decorative arrangement of Sisters of Charity, in their winged caps, free from all disfiguring affectations and eccentricities; and here, too, you have the modern engraving, done with a graver, again by Lepère, as well as by Jourdain, Dauvergne, and one or two others: reproductions of drawings in wash, pencil, pen-and-ink—proofs of the resources of the wood in the hands of a skilful engraver. *Le Livre d'Art*, however, finds place only for woodcuts, several of them so incoherent in drawing as to be quite unintelligible, or else so clumsy and pretentious that the chances are they will do much to prejudice people against this primitive method of expression. Indeed, the designs by Jeanniot, an artist who is never altogether uninteresting, no matter in what medium he works, and by Maurice Dumont, alone give artistic interest to the paper. There are few men nowadays who can substitute the knife for the graver without tumbling pell-mell into the pitfall of affected archaism. But we think even their conscious mannerisms more legitimate than the fashion that prevails among a certain group of English artists, who copy the rude line of the wood-cutter in drawings that are to be reproduced by process.

—If there is anything that one might have considered to be safe to preserve its constant form in a world of change, it is the art of walking. But it now appears that human locomotion after the ordinary method is accomplished at great loss on account of the jar communicated to the body by the alternate rise and fall of the centre of gravity. An officer in the French army has trained his soldiers to march after an improved fashion, and so great is the gain that they are able to accomplish fully twice an ordinary day's journey and feel no more than the ordinary amount of fatigue at the end. The new method consists in not fully straightening up the leg at the moment when it is perpendicular to the ground, and in dragging out the leg that remains behind to its full length. This has the effect of making the body proceed more nearly in a straight line parallel with the surface of the earth, instead of undulating up and down; our ordinary procedure is like that of a wheel deprived of its tire and rising on one after another of its spokes, which would plainly be a very wasteful way of putting to use the power of the horse. At the other extreme we have the bicycle, which owes its great velocity to the almost total avoidance of jarring that is secured by the rubber tires. Running is an intermediate form, which, as every one knows, shakes one up far less, in proportion to the force expended, than walking does. The evolutionary reason for this difference is perhaps to be found in the fact that in running the one object to be attained is swiftness, while in walking our early ancestors were unable to bring themselves to the loss of dignity involved in walking with a flexure of the knee.

HADLEY'S ECONOMICS.

Economics: An Account of the Relations between Private Property and Public Welfare. By Arthur Twining Hadley. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

No higher compliment can be paid this work than to say that it is hard to determine whether the epithet judicial or judicious would more appropriately characterize it. To maintain that its conclusions will command universal, or even general, assent, would be absurd; but it is impossible to deny that the conclusions follow logically from the premises, and that the premises are established after a careful, unprejudiced, and, as a rule, exhaustive examination of the facts of economic history and social life, as well as of the principal theories and arguments derived from these sources. It is true that in so comprehensive a work, which sums up within 500 pages the economic thought of a generation for which economic questions have had unprecedented interest, many subjects must be disposed of in few words. In such cases it may seem to those unfamiliar with economic literature that the conclusions are too dogmatically expressed; but with few exceptions it will be found that the break in the chain of reasoning is only apparent. As a whole, we do not hesitate to affirm that the results reached by Prof. Hadley will commend themselves to candid thinkers as true. They are the conclusions of common sense, fortified by learning and developed by reason. The author's position, as he says, is that of an arbiter, not that of an advocate; and when he has stated both sides of a disputed question, the reader feels that a final adjudication is little more than the formality of entering judgment.

The new problems of modern business life, according to Prof. Hadley, arise most conspicuously in connection with large investments of capital in factories and railroads. The work of the speculator has far more importance than formerly, and combinations of capital and labor are on such a scale as to re-

quire the modification of economic theories based on free competition. It is a mistake, in Prof. Hadley's view, to separate economic theory and economic practice; and on this account, and because of the novelty of modern business problems, he has abandoned "the time-honored division of the science into the departments of production, distribution, exchange, and consumption." Doubtless there are many advantages in this course, but it undeniably gives the book a rambling effect. We begin with an essay on "public and private wealth"; pass on to the discussion of slavery, poverty and poor-relief, the Malthusian theory, and compulsory insurance, all under the head of "Economic Responsibility"; then take up "Competition" and "Speculation," themes which are followed by the "Investment of Capital" and the "Combination of Capital." Then come chapters on Money, Credit, Profits, Wages, Machinery and Labor, Coöperation, Protective Legislation, and finally Government Revenue. It is not easy to discern the principle either of this selection of topics or of this arrangement. The last three chapters, we venture to think, might have been omitted altogether. That on Government Revenue is inadequate, that on Coöperation contains nothing important, and that on Protective Legislation is made up of very familiar matter. The other chapters are all indispensable, but they seem disconnected. They are interesting, and even profound, economic studies; but a collection of economic studies does not of itself constitute an economic treatise. In making books the rules of mathematics do not apply, and the whole is more than the sum of all its parts.

There is, however, an underlying synthetic principle, not distinctly avowed by the author, but really giving unity to his work. It is suggested by the sub-title, "The Relations between Private Property and Public Welfare." We shall not be far wrong in saying that Prof. Hadley holds property to be only a means to the welfare of society. In so far as rights of property are proved not to conduce to this welfare they are to be condemned and abolished. He does not say that the individual man has no natural rights; but he implies it. "The various institutions under which capital is invested have been sanctioned by society for the sake of their effect on the public well-being; . . . when they stand in the way of progress, society does not hesitate to modify them." It is true that we are assured that there is a distinction between the rights of capital and the more general right of property. The latter right is, comparatively at least, sacred. But this distinction appears rather fanciful; for it would be impracticable to exercise the right of property to any great extent if society refused its sanction to the investment of capital.

The futility of the distinction is in fact exposed by the author when he says: "While it is undoubtedly true that the various rights of the capitalist depend upon the existence of a civilized society which maintains them, it seems equally true that the existence of a civilized society in the stress of the struggle for existence among different members of the human race depends, for the present at any rate, upon maintaining the rights of the capitalist." Can anything more than this be said of rights of property? We incline to the opinion that in this discussion, as well as in some others, Prof. Hadley has occasionally confounded society with Government. To say that society does not hesitate to modify institutions that stand in the way of progress, is a highly ambiguous proposition. If it means that men give up appliances that they find do not answer their purpose, the proposition is true. If it means that by giving up such appliances one community of men may beat another in the struggle for survival, it is true. In either case it applies to rights of property. But, as Prof. Hadley states it, the implication is that Government is able to foresee wherein progress consists, and to modify institutions so as to promote progress. All that can be granted is that Government is able to modify institutions, and that it does so. If its action is in the line of the action of individuals, it may promote progress; otherwise probably not. However this may be, it is evident that Prof. Hadley recognizes the right of the community to change institutions, and, if this be true, rights of property must take their chances with the rest. The community is sovereign, and we can only point out what action on its part is expedient with reference to particular ends, or to some general end.

The general end formally recognized by Prof. Hadley is the "tendency of human evolution." Things are good or bad according as they do or do not conform to this tendency. This formal definition, however, is too indefinite for practical purposes, and we find that "the general welfare" is substituted for it. Thus we come around in effect to Adam Smith's concept of the "wealth of nations" as the standard of economics; this wealth, however, consisting in the enjoyments of the members of the nation rather than in the money value of the means for such enjoyments, or their physical amount. This latter distinction appears to be introduced partly because certain enjoyments, enjoyments too of high value, have a relatively slight physical basis. Æsthetic pleasures may be enjoyed by the poor; there may be plain living with high thinking. But the chief reason for the distinction is to be found in the importance attached by Prof. Hadley to the distinction between capital and income as modes of measuring resources—a distinction which he regards as neglected in current economic discussion. But as the value of capital is certainly measured in the minds of most people by its income-producing power, or "earning capacity," we incline to think that the importance of the distinction is overrated. Of course material things do not constitute wealth unless they are utilized; but as they are not reckoned as wealth unless they are utilized, and as they are perhaps more easily measured than the processes of utilization, they serve well enough as an economic standard. A somewhat similar criticism may be passed on the distinction made between public and private wealth. Public wealth consists of all means of enjoyment; private wealth, or property, consists of rights to part of the public wealth. It is pertinent to ask if enjoyment is not a prerogative of human beings, and only metaphorically of communities. Why may we not say that private wealth consists of means of enjoyment, and that the public wealth is simply the aggregate of these means?

But to return to the fundamental principle of Prof. Hadley's treatise, we find it to be substantially that the community is sovereign, but that to realize its ends it is expedient that the customs and institutions of its members be respected. The whole book, we may say, is an elaborate essay showing that individual action in the main tends to public welfare, and especially that the acquisition and use of property tend in this direction. Of course there are many exceptions to this, and Prof. Hadley is at his best in analyzing the nature, the purposes, and the results of speculation, and the good and bad effects of great combinations of capital. On the whole, he makes out a strong case for what we suppose must be called individualism, but which is more correctly described as industrial freedom. Especially fine are the passages in which he traces the effects of this principle in modern civilization:

"A few centuries ago the principle of individual freedom was not recognized in law or in morals any more than in trade. It was then thought that liberty in trade meant avarice, that liberty in politics meant violence, and that liberty in morals meant blasphemous wickedness. . . . Constitutional liberty in politics, rational altruism in morals, and modern business methods in production and distribution of wealth have been the outcome of the great individualistic movement of the nineteenth century."

We should be glad to dwell on the criticism of the position of the Socialists, which Prof. Hadley says is only another way of looking at things, due to emotional temperament. Holding, as he does, that the individual has no rights as against the majority, he properly maintains that the issue between individualism and socialism is a question of means, not ends. But we must leave this department of the work and glance briefly at the author's treatment of some of the more technical portions of economic doctrine. In the main he leaves the recognized positions undisturbed, after a careful review of the more important assaults on them. The results attained by the "Austrian School" are respectfully considered, but it is not surprising to find them treated as, on the whole, more ingenious than valuable. There is a certain originality in the conception of loss arising in modern times from excessive saving and investment of capital, which is held to tend to result in an "overproduction of machinery," rather than in a fall in the rate of interest. The danger of the modern world is underconsumption, and when this takes place a commercial crisis may follow. But we are not prepared to criticise this theory until we are told whether a general overproduction is meant, or only an excess in certain directions. Nor can we do more than mention the assertion that "the justice of interest is not based primarily on equities between borrower and lender, but on the public advantage of encouraging guaranteed investments." This may be true, but it is stated obscurely, and will perplex many readers.

To economists the most interesting chapters, after that on the function of the speculator, will probably be those on profits and wages. But the number of suggestive points is embarrassing, and, owing to the appearance of Prof. Taussig's elaborate essay on 'Wages and Capital,' it is hardly worth while to comment on Prof. Hadley's necessarily abbreviated statement, further than to say that in the main his conclusions agree with those of Taussig. We must not close our review without calling attention to our author's happy way of compressing an argument into an epigram; as when he speaks of George's argument "that collective property in land is perfectly practicable because so many races have tried it and given it up." Another instance is to be found when the statement, "It is not the wealth that the capitalist consumes which really goes to the laborers, but the wealth that he does not consume," is substituted for that ancient stumbling-block, "A demand for commodities is not a demand for labor." In general, however, Prof. Hadley's style is rather severely plain, nor is it always free from

awkwardness. But the defects of his book are slight in comparison with its merits. It will not only be found invaluable by readers at large, but will also at once command the attention and admiration of economists the world over.

THE OLD SOUTH.

Southern Sidelights: A Picture of Social and Economic Life in the South a Generation before the War. [Library of Economics and Politics, edited by Richard T. Ely, No. 10.] By Edward Ingle. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1896.

THE aim of the author of this volume has been, he says in his introduction, to give a sketch of "social and economic life in the South during the generation before the war." It must be added that the sources drawn from are all Southern, which accounts for the fact that the names of most of the writers familiar to us as observers of the old South are not given: we go for our facts not to Olmsted or to Mrs. Kemble, but to *De Bow's Review*, the *Southern Literary Messenger*, to census reports, and to a number of writers whose fame was and remains local. There are chapters on the traits of the people, on Cotton and Industry in general, on Trade and Commerce, on Education, on Literature, on Slavery, on Plans for Progress, and on the Crisis. Taking it altogether, the picture is not so much of the times immediately before the war as of the period preceding the dissolution of the Whig party, when the Slavery question had not yet become acute in national politics, when parties were still dividing on other questions, when a war between North and South was hardly yet dreamt of, and when there were still in the South many slaveholders who thought slavery a mistake.

Apart from the statistics, of which there are more than enough, the picture is worth drawing because it shows that, to the more enlightened Southern people themselves, their condition really appeared very much what it did to the world outside. Southern witnesses may be found for almost everything said by Northern and foreign critics. Later, when the Southern heart had been fired and war was imminent, everybody who supported the South, or was of it, was bound in honor to maintain that the country was an earthly paradise, and slavery what made it so; but in the earlier period, the tone as to the actual condition of the South was often the reverse of self-laudatory. In 1837 the Rev. E. F. Stanton, speaking to the members of the Literary Institute of Hampden-Sidney College, complains of the "low state of mechanic arts and agriculture among us," and the "prevailing vice of indolence"; another writer insists that the great fault of the Southern people is that they are "too proud to work," and work badly because they are "half ashamed of it"; John Forsythe of Mobile, in *De Bow's Review*, points the contrast between the poor white and the Yankee—the one eager for work, the other content to doze life away, and rousing himself only to find food, drink or fight—in language which, a few years later, would probably have caused its author to be lynched on the spot. In 1852 a Mississippian, after drawing a picture of what thrift might do for the South, sarcastically asks his correspondent: "What did you see in your tour last year? Did you see any little twelve-by-six log cribs covered with four-feet board? Any fodder stacks, with the Mississippi mud? A pasture for calves without grass or water? Sheep with one-half of each without wool? Fences as if the rails had fallen from above and happened to light upon each other? Men riding with rope bridle-reins?" So acutely did a certain class of Southerners feel their backward material condition that they were fond of holding conventions to devise ways and means of bringing the South up to the level of the rest of the world. In 1858 a Virginia newspaper suggests to the delegates to one of these that, on their way to it, they should take note of "a few particulars" as follows:

"They will start in some stage or railroad coach made in the North, an engine of Northern manufacture will take their train or boat along; at every meal they will sit down on Yankee chairs to a Yankee table spread with a Yankee cloth. With a Yankee spoon they will take from Yankee dishes sugar, salt, and coffee which have paid tribute to Yankee trade, and with Yankee knives and forks they will put into their mouths the only thing Southern they will get on their trip. At night they will pull off a pair of Yankee boots with a Yankee boot-jack, and, throwing a lot of Yankee toggery on a Yankee chair, lie down to dream of Southern independence in a Yankee bed, with not even a thread of cotton around them that has not gone through a Yankee loom or come out of a Yankee shop. In the morning they will get up to fix themselves by a 12x14 Yankee looking-glass, with a Yankee brush and comb; after, perhaps, washing off a little of the soil of the South from their faces with water drawn in a Yankee bucket, and put in a Yankee pitcher on a Yankee washstand."

In matters intellectual the old South played no part at all in the world. "How few of our families," cries some one in 1838, "are reading ones in the strict sense of the term! Besides the newspaper, the *Farmer's Register*, the *Sporting Magazine*, and the year's almanac, a few trashy novels constitute, it is feared, the major part of the libraries of our otherwise social, agreeable, and hospitable country-houses." The idea of the old South as the home of culture was really spread by a few families, mainly belonging to two or three of the seaboard States (in the previous century more or less family-governed), who kept in touch with the rest of the world, often educating their children in the North or in Europe, coming up to Newport and Saratoga for the summer, giving their tone to life at Washington, and known in England and to "visiting Englishmen" who came over here. These people, now nearly extinct, had good manners, not only in public, but in private, were hospitable, and had the ease which comes from the consciousness that your breeding is as good as that of anybody; among those of their own class in England they seemed almost English, and even now such representatives of them as are left often bear a strong likeness to the ancestral colonial country-gentleman planter (who was an Englishman), a type unknown in the North. There were not a great many of them, but the mark they made was a striking one. Wherever they went (and they alone of Southerners travelled much) they represented the South. If this is the South, people said, what a charming place the South must be!

This society, however, had no intellectual *cachet*. They did not read more than was necessary to keep up with the conversation of the times; and as for writing, that was not their business. And in the real South there was no reading public to be written for. Of course the suggestion that there was no intellectual life in the South was bitterly resented, especially as Northern critics, with their tiresome iteration, would insist on the fact being connected with slavery. It is amusing now to read Bishop Polk's argument on the subject of the relation between slavery and literature, in which he shows that the Bible itself was produced by a slaveholding people—*ergo*, there was nothing in slavery to hinder the production of literature by the South. The favorite theory to account for the non-appearance of a Southern literature was that there was a literary cabal in the North to prevent the production of Southern books. Griswold and other editors were supposed to be members of it, though it was always rather difficult to make out where the cabal had its headquarters. In fact, Northern publishers published books by Southern writers when they could find any to publish, as a list given by Mr. Ingle proves.

What the author says about slavery only confirms everything said about it already. The old South knew what it was, or rather the educated class to which we have referred did. It was not the wrongs connected with the institution which affected them, for they were in general humane masters themselves, and the inhumanity of others which they did not see or share in they probably regarded as a necessary evil that must be endured. But many of them felt that slavery was an economic blight, a poison which permeated the whole social system, which sucked up its blood, and exhausted the earth from which it got its sustenance. They knew that they must have more territory or perish; they felt that they were hemmed in and at bay. It is easy enough now to see that they were doomed. There were fewer than 400,000 slaveowners in the old South.

Less than fifty years have gone by, and hardly a vestige of the society and civilization described in this book remains. The open, brave, kindly, hospitable, shiftless St. Clare and his country-house, the brutal Legree, pious, martyred old Tom, poor little Eva, and Topsy, the cruel overseers, the bloodhounds, the slave-market, the plantation with its dilapidated slave cabins—the old South, with its provincial grandeur and its economic havoc, is gone. Even the war has gone too, with its fire, famine, and sword. There is a new South, with mines and factories and railroads, and winter resorts, and a new agriculture, and a new labor system, a new society, and even a new literature, and, strange to say, notwithstanding all the destruction and desolation through which it has passed, it is richer and stronger to-day than it was when its misguided leaders attempted their wild scheme of a modern slave dominion founded on the ruins of a free republic.

BERTHELET'S PAPAL CONCLAVES.

La Elezione del Papa: Storia e Documenti. Per Giovanni Berthelet. Rome: Forzani.

THAT so important a subject as the election of the popes should have been almost neglected, shows that the field of history has by no means been worked out. In English there exists nothing satisfactory except Cartwright's little volume, 'On Papal Conclaves,' expanded from an article in the *North British Review*, thirty years ago; and even in Italian Sig. Berthelet is the first who has compiled in chronological order the various laws by which papal elections have been governed. The history of special conclaves has, indeed, been frequently told, for the oath of secrecy which the cardinals and their conclavists swear to observe, has always been taken by

them in a Pickwickian sense. So true is this, that whosoever chooses can follow, for instance, from hour to hour, in De Cesare's voluminous chronicle, the conclave of 1878, which elected Leo XIII. There are set down the witticisms of the cardinals, not less than their graver actions, and such details as that, on the night preceding the final vote, Cardinal Pecci was so disturbed by the snoring of Cardinal Payá y Rico and his attendants that he had his mattresses taken into the corridor and slept on the floor.

Sig. Berthelet, however, confines his attention to the legislative rather than to the gossipy history of conclaves, and herein lies his merit. The student of institutions cannot fail to be interested in the development of the laws by which the oldest institution in the world has passed on, from pope to pope, during thrice six hundred years, the symbol and reality of its headship. In no other case has elective monarchy been able to maintain an unbroken line. The Holy Roman Empire endured, indeed, for a millennium, but during nearly half of that period its continuity depended on the fact that the succession was practically hereditary in the House of Hapsburg. So, likewise, the Dogeship of Venice, the only other elective office which resisted the vicissitudes of many centuries, became, after the locking of the Council in 1297, the appanage of a small oligarchy.

Sig. Berthelet wisely refers very briefly to the election of the first Roman pontiffs, because the record is often obscure, and his purpose is not controversial. That corrupt practices early crept in, however, we can surmise, for in 498 Symmachus promulgated canons to punish any one who, during the lifetime of a pope, openly or secretly intrigued for the election of his successor. In 681 the Eastern Emperor, Constantine Pogonatus, out of reverence for Benedict II., absolved future popes from the obligation of imperial confirmation. But it was not till 1059 that Nicholas II., in creating the College of Cardinals, distinctly granted to them the right of voting for a Pope, and left to the clergy and populace only a perfunctory expression of consent. Nicholas specified further that the Pope should, if possible, be chosen from among the members of the Church at Rome; if none of them were fit, a candidate might be sought outside. It is well to remember, perhaps, that not long before this a corrupt layman, John XIX., had bought his election, and that at least one other layman, Adrian IV., has been Pope. No law against the election of a layman exists to this day; but a custom stronger than law has limited eligibility to ecclesiastics, and for many hundred years past none but cardinals have been elected.

Alexander III. in the Lateran Council (1179) fixed two-thirds of the cardinals present at a conclave as the majority necessary to make valid an election—the number still required. The long contests of the popes with the German kings, and chronic disorders in Italy, called for more strenuous rules. After the death of Clement IV. in 1268 the interregnum dragged on for thirty-three months, till the people of Viterbo grew enraged, and took off the roof of the building where the conclave sat. Even exposure to the elements could not force the stubborn and fractious cardinals to yield; but the Pope whom they finally chose, Gregory X., compiled a constitution to govern future conclaves, and his constitution is now the first to which reference is usually made for authority. He ordered that strict secrecy should be maintained; that, after five days, the cardinals should be put on a diet of bread, wine, and water; that they should receive no emolument till they had finished their work; that, under penalty of committing mortal sin, they should not allow their own or their family's interest, or any bargain, to influence their vote. Several succeeding popes legislated to prescribe what the cardinals should eat during the conclave, and even how they should sleep; but simony and wire-pulling were the two great evils against which, down to the end of the sixteenth century, one decent pontiff after another fulminated. Thus, Julius II. (1505) declared not only that a pope who got his office by simony should be held an heresiarch and anti-pope, and that the cardinals who supported him should forfeit their benefices and cardinalship, but also that all go-betweens and agents should, if clerics, be deprived of their livings and forbidden to bequeath property by will, and, as if guilty of lese majesty, should forfeit their possessions to the Holy See; if laymen, their goods and fiefs should revert to their secular lord. Fifty-three years later Paul IV. felt obliged to launch a similar anathema, holding out promise of pardon, however, to those who turned state's-evidence and revealed the names of bargaining cardinals.

To Pius IV. belongs the constitution, promulgated in 1562, which established much of the ceremonial and procedure that have since been followed. He prescribed, for instance, that the cardinals shall enter the conclave ten days after a pope dies; that they shall take at least one vote a day, besides the *accessus*, or supplementary vote; that the cells occupied by them shall be drawn by lot; that each cardinal may have two attendants, or conclavists; that a cardinal who has not taken orders shall not vote; that the food shall be carefully inspected to prevent surreptitious letters from being forwarded in it to the cardinals, etc. On most of these matters, the constitutions framed by subsequent popes—those of Gregory XV. and Clement XII. are the most important—either repeated the injunctions, or amplified them by going into more minute details. Gregory XV., for example, laid down the rules still in force as to the methods of election—by inspiration, by compromise, and by ballot—prescribing also the size and form of the ballots, and how they should be counted.

This rapid survey will illustrate the steady tendency towards rigid formalism which we should expect to find in an ancient institution like the Roman Church, which depends so largely on tradition and precedents. But as a proof of the sagacity of its rulers, as well as of the vitality of the institution, we find also in the legislation governing papal elections ample provision made for emergencies. To prevent the cardinals from usurping pontifical authority during an interregnum, to compel them to elect a new pope as speedily and honestly as possible, and to insist on rigid conformity to canonical procedure in ordinary circumstances, did not suffice; the laws must also instruct the cardinals how to proceed when political disturbances make it impossible to follow the usual routine. Within the past century, for example, the popes have twice been fugitives from Rome, and, since 1870, they have ceased to rule there as temporal sovereigns. Pius VI., driven into exile by Bonaparte, and foreseeing that the conclave would be greatly embarrassed, decreed that in whatever city the largest number of cardinals happened to be at the time of his death they should convene and choose his successor. He further absolved them from various prescribed forms, while insisting, however, that the new Pope must secure two-thirds of the votes of those present. Pius IX. likewise, after the loss of the temporal power in 1870, issued three several bulls releasing the cardinals from their oath to observe the electoral constitution as to time, place, and conclave, as well as the more purely ceremonial customs. He also determined what should be done in case the conclave had to assemble outside of Rome, by instructing the cardinal dean, or the next in seniority, to choose its meeting-place. Thus we see how the papal legislators have succeeded in making laws, now rigid and now supple, to correspond on the one hand to the assumed immutability of their institution, and on the other to the most varied emergencies. In this respect, at least, they have shown themselves unequalled masters of statecraft.

The great value of Sig. Berthelet's book lies in the fact that it contains the text, in Italian, of these different constitutions, which he has knit together with succinct explanations of his own. In addition he furnishes important extracts from papal bulls and rescripts on the temporal power and on papal nepotism, and appendices containing the ceremonial prescribed by Gregory XV., the autograph instructions of Clement XII. in regard to the procedure of the conclave, the vestments prescribed by the Master of Ceremonies in 1878, and the text of the oath which each cardinal takes on his admission to the Sacred College. The work is sufficiently important to deserve translation into English.

KÜLPE'S OUTLINES OF PSYCHOLOGY.

Outlines of Psychology, Based upon the Results of Experimental Investigation. By Oswald Külpe. Translated from the German by Edward Bradford Tichener. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.

This work is dedicated "To my revered teacher Wilhelm Wundt," and it pursues, in general, the method of Wundt. The translation is exact, but too literal. The sentences are not sufficiently broken up; and inaccuracies of expression, customary enough in German, are reproduced, which will be serious obscurities to the English reader. Thus, the effect of the translation upon the mind of the English reader is not so close to the effect of the original upon the German reader as it would be if literalness had been somewhat sacrificed to English habits of thought. Psychology is now, of course, one of the inductive sciences; and the present work is not a popular presentation, but a higher treatise on the science. It is not an encyclopædic handbook. It is, as its title describes it, an outline account, yet it is by no means an elementary book; and it has 450-odd pages, of 42 lines to the page and 10 words to the line. It has the usual qualities, good and bad, of a German treatise. It is scientific, earnestly bent upon the ascertainment of the truth, in the general current of scientific research, painstaking. Let us examine a section or two, which shall be fair samples of the whole.

The subchapter on the quality of visual sensations begins with a section (§17) which we are told at its opening is to treat of the relations existing between sensation and the various forms of light stimulation. But when we come to read it, we find that it also treats of the relations between the different sensations, and of other matters. Meantime the two most

striking relations of the kind proposed to be treated—namely, first, that two lights which, when unmixed, match to the eye, also have precisely the same effect in mixtures, and, second, that a three-dimensional continuum is adequate to represent the relations of lights, in so far as they appear differently to the eye—are neither of them stated. The first assertion in the section, after delineating the subject of it so falsely, is that "the velocity of the individual waves is very different in different cases." This vague German way of speaking of "different cases" ought in a translation to give way to the more definite style to which the English reader is accustomed, and be rendered, "for different parts of the spectrum." But, of course, the statement is not true. No doubt, the author was thinking of the *frequency of oscillations*, which is not a velocity at all. He next goes on to say that the sensation of brightness varies from the deepest black to the most brilliant white. This is a capital error. The color of brightness is not white, but intense yellow. Whoever is capable of making an observation of what he sees (as a psychologist, at any rate, ought to be able to do), and who compares the color of a piece of white paper where direct sunlight falls upon it with the color of the rest of the paper illuminated by irregular reflection from white walls, will find the bright part to be yellow; and exact experiment will show that the color of brightness is a yellow, differing little from, though somewhat more chromatic than, the D line. To mistake white for the color of brightness is to involve the subject in a terrible snarl.

Light is absurdly divided into *mixed* and *homogeneous*. Mixed light is defined as that "in which no particular wave-length has a noticeable predominance," so that it might be of any color; but we soon find the author means white light. Then comes the following: "We reach two conclusions, then: (1) that brightness qualities do not possess intensity as a separate, variable attribute; and (2) that an analysis of the qualities contained in mixed light requires their spatial or temporal isolation." Observe what this means. It is, first, that if we take a certain colored surface (for whether it be white or not, makes no difference) and merely vary its illumination, we shall vary it in only one respect. Perhaps the author means that the sensation will have the same hue with all intensities; but that is not true. And, second, it is gravely stated that to analyze the "qualities" it is necessary to separate their constituents. This may mean that we cannot analyze them by attending to one and neglecting the rest; but (not to speak of the inappropriateness of the remark in a section on sensation pure and simple), since the sensation itself is incomplex, the author might as well remark that nobody can analyze water by attending to the hydrogen and overlooking the oxygen. In short, the conclusion introduced so formally is as good as meaningless.

Külpe then goes on to homogeneous light. "Homogeneous light, in the strictest sense of the term, has never been seen, so that we cannot say how it would be lensed." This is not true. The parts of any good spectrum of considerable dispersion, say from half-a-dozen flint-glass 60° prisms, are sensibly homogeneous. But perhaps what our author is thinking of may be that on Young's hypothesis, according to which there are three fundamental sensations—red, green, and violet—the pure green is certainly not seen *by a normal eye*, and probably not the red either; so that we cannot *exactly* imagine how they would look. Külpe then goes on to say, "We thus have the curious result that what we call a color is really a connection of two simple qualities, color-tone and brightness." Now, in the first place, there are three, and not two elements only. They may be stated as *hue*, *chroma* (or saturation-intensity), and *illumination*; or they may be stated as *red*, *green*, and *violet*; or in any one of innumerable other ways. Külpe has given no proof that any one of these methods of analysis is more or less true than any other, certainly not that the particular method he imperfectly describes is the only true one. He goes on to talk of sensations as if they were so many distinct entities, as contradistinguished from coördinates of a continuum, without the slightest pretence to any proof of such a conception. Then he makes this formal statement: "A mixture of two mixed lights produces on the physical side a mean intensity, and on the psychological a brightness sensation lying midway between the two primary sensations." This is simply absurd. Do two lights shining on a piece of paper illuminate it less than the brighter light alone would do? He refers to the result of aggregating the lights and then halving the energy. But even that is very false "on the psychological side." There is no use of following further this sadly confused, vague, and somewhat inaccurate description. As Külpe proceeds, it becomes worse and worse, and the section on "Theories of Visual Sensation," besides overlooking entirely the theory of Mrs. Franklin, discusses the other three weakly, and without understanding what real arguments can be brought forward.

Let us, by way of another sampling, see how the limen is defined. "The just noticeable stimulus is technically termed the *stimulus limen*, and the just noticeable stimulus-difference the *difference limen*." Now the stimulus limen is not a question of *noticing* at all. It is the limit between what is *sensed* and what is *not sensed*. As for the "difference limen," if there is any such thing, it is not what *can* be just noticed, but what the subject makes just sufficient effort to notice, and nothing more.

Let us next assay the chapter on Association. Here we find matter of real, though mainly negative, value. The first remark is, that the common assertion of the English school that ideas differ from sensations only in being fainter "has never been demonstrated." Certainly, if it be meant that remembering the sight of a Jacqueminot rose is indistinguishable from seeing a tea rose, it has not only not been demonstrated, but we are in possession of all the facts needed to explode it for ever. It may be doubted whether any English writer has ever distinctly stated that there are two sorts of intensities to sensations—the objective intensity of the sensation, and the subjective intensity of the percept, or height of consciousness, insistency of presence, and overriding of other ideas. Külpe describes some experiments instituted by himself to ascertain whether ordinary persons could, in their normal waking state, mistake fancies for things seen or the reverse. He finds that when, in a perfectly dark room, a light very close to the stimulus-limen is thrown upon a screen, most persons, though not all, occasionally, but rarely, think that it is only fancy and that they do not really see it; and that the same persons more often fancy they see a light when there is none. Some persons never have such fancies. This accords with ordinary experience so entirely that we might be tempted to declare the experimentation futile. Yet whoever will actually make experiments in the general line of Külpe's will find them instructive. If they are so made that they can be subjected to mathematical analysis, it will be found that there is a subjective intensity (whatever that consists in) which, in ordinary persons, for sensations well above the limen, is vastly greater than for any ideas, but which depends besides upon the objective character of the idea, upon the effort of attention, upon the strength of the association, etc. Persons there are whose ideas so closely resemble sensations that they can distinguish some of them as unreal only by their being more influenced by efforts of attention. Thus, some artists speak of copying upon the canvas the imaginary pictures which they see by the side of their easels, and will request a person who stands where the image is to stand aside. Composers with a genius for instrumentation do something still more surprising when they combine the sounds of different instruments in their mind's ear and experiment upon the effects so produced. Other persons, as Külpe has found, have no memorial or imaginative ideas which seem to them at all comparable with sensations. It is remarkable that those persons have not necessarily bad memories for sensations. The writer of this notice, until past middle life, could not seem to call up in his mind anything in the least like a color; but he has since acquired the power in a slight degree. Yet he always had an unusually accurate memory for colors. Külpe divides recognition into the *direct* and the *indirect*. The former is that in which the feeling "I am acquainted with that," or "That is what I am after," appears directly as soon as the right object is presented to sense. Indirect recognition is recognition by means of a comparison with an image carried in the memory. Külpe remarks that the existence of direct recognition is proved by certain diseases of the brain. Thus, a patient has been known to describe a fork accurately, and yet when a fork was put into her hands she declared she was familiar with it, but did not know what it was. Now her not recognizing it as a fork shows that a satisfactory image was not called up by the definition of the fork; and yet the feeling of being acquainted with it was there just the same.

It appears, then, that the merit of this work is unequal. Sections which are exceedingly instructive will be found sandwiched with others upon which not sufficient study seems to have been bestowed.

My Literary Zoo. By Kate Sanborn. D. Appleton & Co. 1896. 16mo, pp. 149.

Four-handed Folk. By Olive Thorne Miller. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. 12mo, pp. 201.

The Evolution of Bird-Song: With Observations on the Influence of Heredity and Imitation. By Charles A. Witchell. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. 1896. Crown 8vo, pp. x, 253.

Artistic and Scientific Taxidermy and Modelling, etc. By Montagu Browne. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. 1896. Fcp. 4to, pp. xii, 463, 33 illust.

THE title of Miss Sanborn's booklet becomes intelligible on discovering that she means a collection of the sayings of literary people about their dogs, cats, and other pets; but there is nothing novel and hardly anything original in this lot of staple ana. The collector has done better work than this piece of jobbing, and is likely to do better work, now that she has cleared her desk and thus freed her

mind of a batch of cullings. One of the best anecdotes is that of the child who begged her father to come home, because the donkey was so lonesome without him. This reminds us of a jest which Miss Sanborn unaccountably missed; being that of the game-keeper who wrote to his master that the emu had laid an egg, which, in the absence of his lordship, had been put to hatch under the biggest goose on the estate. The 'Literary Zoo' is further incomplete in lacking specimens of the types which are presented in such advertisements as: "Wanted, a man to take care of a horse of a religious turn of mind"; and: "Wanted, a horse suitable for a young lady with a long flowing mane and tail."

Mrs. Miller's subjects are mainly kinkajous, marmosets, lemurs, spider-monkeys, and some other pedimanous quadrupeds, including the late lamented Mr. Crowley, the popular chimpanzee of Central Park; but she also toys with armadillos and pangolins, whose specialty it is to roll up like balls. The author is so good at story-telling about such pets that she makes us feel quite sure that we want none of them about the house. It is very easy to overdo this sort of thing; anecdotes that would make a readable magazine article, set off with the little dabs and touches which she can give, like pats on the heads of her pets, become as tiresome as the animals themselves are troublesome, when spun out to the degree of attenuation of a spider-monkey itself.

Mr. Witchell's claim of entire originality for his theories is well founded, and some of his views are novel; but whether his book is the better for this is another question. He shows himself a close observer, of considerable experience, and a faithful recorder of his observations. Yet we are constrained by his own showing to suspect that the raw material of facts which he has brought together in this volume is more valuable, on the whole, than the manufactured product which represents his conclusions. This is no special derogation of his ability, but an indication of the wide difference there may be between the observation and the interpretation of fact. He is wandering in pleasant paths when he listens to bird-notes; he is also on legitimate scientific lines in making his musical scores of bird-songs; but also is he in a field of unverified if not unverifiable conjecture, with every temptation to stray further into those realms of the imagination where the reflection of moonshine in a bucket of water and the location of a rainbow just over the next hill may be mistaken for astronomical and meteorological data.

Aside from matters of fact, which the author will be found to state satisfactorily, we find much of this book devoted to threshing old chaff, with the usual negative result, and much more of it to be simply swinging the flail in the air. The whole burden of the book is nugatory. Of what avail, for example, is it to reach the conclusion that we may consider "the voice to have been evolved from a toneless puffing, indicative of anger, or from snorts or grunts accidentally produced"? Nobody doubts that human articulate speech has been evolved by "mimicry or imitation," under conditions of environment reacting upon heredity, from such puffing, snorting, grunting, or other noises as any baby can make; and we are not much wiser than we were before when we have finished a book which is devoted to establishing a similar conclusion in the case of birds. Mr. Witchell's work concludes with a very inadequate bibliography.

Taxidermy is both an art and a trade, and under either aspect is indispensable to science. Its development of late years has kept pace with the progress of the biological sciences, in two respects: in improvement of method and results, and in their scope. Its former scope was mainly the stuffing of skins of mammals and birds, either for decorative or scientific purposes, by methods so crude that they answered for the preservation of such objects of natural history much better than for their presentation as works of art. But taxidermy has gone far beyond the higher vertebrates to include specimens of all animals, and so far beyond the etymological applicability of the term as to take in plants and minerals. Good work now stops nothing short of the absolutely lifelike representation of an animal, in any desired attitude, amid appropriate surroundings; the whole so prepared as to last indefinitely. This comely growth of the "handmaid of science" has developed a literature in developing as an art; and the old-fashioned cheap manuals of "bird-stuffing" are not to be compared with such a spacious and sumptuous volume as Mr. Browne's.

Nevertheless, competition is as keen in the literature as in the art of taxidermy; and neither the author's clearness, nor his comprehensiveness, nor his evident respect for his calling, nor the merit of many of his processes, will send his book up to the head of its class. His fellow-artists who may not dispute the originality of some of his methods will fail to see any other merit in them, will resent a certain tone of dogmatism with which they are presented, and continue to follow their own methods. It is as invidious in a reviewer to compare methods in this as in other kinds of art, say painting or music, but we imagine that most taxidermists will consider Mr. Browne's book behind the times as a whole, and retrogressive rather than progressive in some respects. The average of excellence is sensibly lowered by the author's unsound if not vicious treatment of various important matters—that of arsenic as a preservative, for example; and this is all the more surprising in connection with what he says of corrosive sublimate. There is one very curious thing about this work on "taxidermy": the further it gets from taxidermy proper, the better it becomes. That is to say, the author is at his best in what have been usually regarded as the accessories of the art, such as casting and modelling plants, various forms of invertebrates, and even the lower vertebrates; not so good regarding birds and mammals, which so largely preponderate as objects of taxidermal solicitude; and at his worst regarding the collection and preservation of these as specimens for scientific study—in other words, as the "skins" which make so large a proportion of the contents of every educational museum. Many thousands of such have come from the present reviewer's hands, at an average rate of five or six an hour, at times so long gone by that their continued existence is an indication that they were at least well preserved; yet he does not think he could have effected this result according to Mr. Browne's recommendations either for the manipulations or for the preservatives required. In fine, this book is bigger than it need have been, and not so great as it might have been.

Bayard Taylor. By Albert H. Smyth. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Smyth has drawn his materials for this book mainly from the full biography of Taylor which was made soon after his death by his wife and Mr. Horace E. Scudder. Here we miss the abundance of letters which made that so attractive, but they are quoted freely in illustration of the most significant events and purposes of Taylor's life, and the writer has availed himself of Mrs. Taylor's manuscript collections and of the letters and reminiscences of many friends. His book amply justifies itself, if only that its matter has been so well chosen and put together. Much that Taylor wrote can hardly be revived, nor is it desirable that it should be, but not a little is so good that it should not willingly be let die. Mr. Smyth has spent more of his strength upon the man's personality and the circumstances of his wide experience than on the criticism of his work. If his biography is defective in any respect, it is in this. The novels are criticised more fully than the poems and with marked frankness. 'Hannah Thurston' was the punishment which Taylor meted out to the neighborhood of reformers in which he was born at Kennett Square, and to which he had the misfortune to return when he would become a landed proprietor and build himself "a lordly pleasure-house." The criticism upon the climax of 'The Story of Kennett' is a severe reflection upon Taylor's taste, which could hardly have made such a break in a particular instance if it had not been generally less than completely trustworthy.

The lack of adequate criticism is most keenly felt when we come, at the close of Taylor's life, to his *opus magnum*, 'Prince Deukalion.' No other book of his fell so flat upon the reading world, and it was a blessed thing that the poet did not live to know how miserably he had misreckoned. It was far above the heads of the general public, but Taylor would not have minded this if it had appealed successfully to that inner circle at whose bar he had resolved to justify himself as a great poet. This it did not do. The poem meant so much to Taylor, he worked over it so eagerly, so passionately, and with such happy confidence, that the reader cannot but resent the rather cursory manner in which it is dismissed. It should have had the carefullest consideration. Taylor's confidence in a future life was perfect, and if it was not unwarranted and he meets Mr. Smyth in the Elysian Fields, we cannot imagine that the rencontre will be a pleasant one for his biographer.

The failure of 'Deukalion' was closely connected with the greatest literary success of Taylor's life, his translation of Goethe's "Faust." On this he worked tremendously and at much conscious disadvantage because of the imperfections of his early education, which he felt he never had made good. It cannot be said that the recognition of his work was all he could desire, because he came accidentally upon a copy of his translation in Lowell's library, *uncut*, and the circumstance stung him to the quick. But this circumstance was exceptional. The general chorus of applause was loud and long, and many haughty Germanists and Germans took part in it. At the present time it is probably more read than all his other writings together. But the effect of his devotion to the genius of Goethe was injurious to his own. It warped him from his native centre, and made him a copyist of Goethe.

It is impossible to avoid the impression that Taylor's ambition was not only to be a great poet, but to be so regarded and to carry himself accordingly. Cedarcroft, with its big house and grounds, smacked of imitation of Scott at Abbotsford. Like that, it brought the burden

of debt and the slavery of incessant work, less congenial to Taylor than to Scott, because, with the exaltation of his literary ideals, his work became less remunerative, and he was obliged to return to lecturing, which he hated, to raise the money necessary for his lavish way of life. Worse than this happened: he had hoped to make himself respected and loved by the rustic neighborhood that had known him from his childhood up. In the event, he excited its criticism and antipathy by his mode of living—less in the matter of eating, probably, for it was a Quaker community, than in that of drinking. He resented the interference and made sharp reprisals. The situation became intolerable to him, and the place so passionately coveted was deserted and put up for sale.

Nothing speaks better for Taylor than his art of making friends, and it was inevitable that the book should end with Mr. Aldrich's exquisite tribute to his memory, the conclusion of which he has changed from its original form without improving it.

La Famille et la Jeunesse de J.-J. Rousseau. Par Eugène Ritter, Doyen de la Faculté des Lettres de Genève. Paris: Hachette. Pp. 305.

THIS is the third important work on Rousseau published within the last year and a half, and the most important of all recent publications on the subject, if judged by the amount of new material offered. Prof. Ritter's name has for years been familiar to students of Rousseau through his contributions to European journals and reviews. In the present volume he gives us the results of his patient researches in the archives of Geneva, as far as they are concerned with the ancestors and the earlier life of Jean-Jacques. The book is thus, chronologically, divided into two parts; but, aside from this, two rival interests contend for the reader's attention throughout the book, viz., the various members of the Rousseau family during five generations, and the *milieu*—the Geneva of Calvin and his followers for two centuries.

Among the Protestant refugees who left Paris for Geneva in the reign of Henry II. was Didier Rousseau, a bookseller, who in 1555, after due investigation of his character and conduct, was received as citizen of Geneva for the consideration of twenty écus (200 francs) and a leather pail (for fire protection); less than 10 per cent. of the new citizens of the year paid a higher admission tax than Didier. He opened a cabaret in his adopted city. His youngest son, Jean, became a tanner, and lived in comfortable circumstances, leaving in his turn two daughters and one son. This second Jean Rousseau made a fortune at watchmaking: he had nineteen children, and left 31,000 florins to the ten surviving him. The seventh of these was David (the grandfather of Jean-Jacques), who died almost a centenarian. He too was a skilful watchmaker, and of his fourteen children three sons who survived him followed the same occupation. Isaac, the father of Jean-Jacques, however, had learned to play the violin and "preferred the fiddle-bow to the file"; he became dancing-master, associating himself for three years with two others of that profession, which was tolerated by the authorities for the sake of the children of rich foreigners in the city. But these disciples of Terpsichore would occasionally get into trouble for teaching "ceux de la ville." Isaac was also fond of roaming in the woods and of shooting partridges and hares, and, while in pursuit of this sport, he would so little brook interference that he once aimed his gun at a proprietor who endeavored to keep him off his meadow. He was irritable and perhaps quarrelsome, and the registers of the Council show that he was summoned, censured, and fined for his conduct more than once, though it must be said, not always justly. "Mon père partit pour Constantinople. . . . Il revint," says Rousseau in his 'Confessions.' M. Ritter devotes fifteen pages to the elucidation of this episode, of which the son knew little, for he was not born till after his father's return from the Orient after an absence of six years. Several corrections and additions to passages in Rousseau's writings are furnished by M. Ritter. Isaac left his family a second time when Jean-Jacques was ten years old and motherless. Apparently the grandfather, David, did not cultivate to any extent *l'art d'être grand-père*. We know how Jean-Jacques understood his obligations to his offspring.

It is easy enough, with the aid of M. Ritter, to trace the peculiar traits of Rousseau's mental and physical character back to his father and mother and several of his ascendants, and in this lies much of the chief interest of the book. His French ancestors were bourgeois, but proud and free in their ways, and they left their native land for an idea. The family belonged to what might be called the liberal opposition in Geneva. His relatives shared with many of the Genevese of the time a restless and nomadic disposition; they were scattered widely over Europe and more distant lands. His father, his uncles, his aunt, were all musical and did not discountenance dancing. David Rousseau gave little *soirées dansantes* a few months after the death of his wife, and the Consistory called him to account for it. The sisters of Isaac scandalized some neighbors by playing cards on Sunday, and were censured by the Consistory. Isaac had a passionate fondness for the novels of the "grand siècle," 'L'Astrée,' 'Cléopâtre,' 'Le Grand Cyrus,' which he read till late in the night with his ten-year-old boy. Both father and son had the gift of winning the love of those with whom they came in contact.

In the 'Confessions' Rousseau speaks of his mother, but he never knew her; she died a few days after his birth. M. Ritter has fuller information concerning her and her family. Her father, Jacques Bernard, was a *mauvais sujet*, and died at thirty-three. But Suzanne was well brought up by an uncle, a pastor. Still, Consistory and Council had to keep a watchful eye on her; she would receive visits from a gentleman she had been forbidden to see; she went to a show in the disguise of a peasant woman. Her brother Gabriel and his wife, Théodora Rousseau (daughter of David), had to appear before the Consistory "pour anticipation scandaleuse de leur mariage." From all the preceding details the reader may draw his inferences with respect to Jean-Jacques. We can only make allusion to the interesting chapters on Jean Jacques's childhood and youth, on Mme. de Warens and her venerable guardian, the Pietist Magny of Vevey.

A prison in the midst of Paradise—this is the impression of Calvinistic Geneva in the past centuries left on our mind as we close the book; a gloomy city with its dark, narrow streets, and the Consistory, the Council of XXV, and the Council of CC, for keepers, situated on one of the fairest spots on earth; a small republic whose government was democratic in form, but in reality very aristocratic, and whose bourgeoisie could be conceived of as divided into nine strata (p. 58); an asylum open to fugitives from persecution, but in which religious tolerance or indifference was a punishable offence and from which unbelievers were banished.

The Balance of Power, 1715–1789. By Arthur Hassall, M.A. New York: Macmillan. 1896. Pp. vi, 483.

MR. HASSALL, general editor of the series, contributes the sixth volume to "Periods of European History." History, like food for use in the arctic regions, must be compressed into small tablets before busy people can take it. A drawback to meat extracts is that the fat is not reduced and preserved. Similarly with compressed history, one gets a great deal of lean and muscle, but little juice, and very few tit-bits. Jane Austen contrasts a good novel with the hundredth abridgment of English history, much to the advantage of the novel, and she is right if one looks only to entertainment. Alas, the facts must be mastered, and here an abridgment comes out ahead.

Our attitude towards the present work depends largely on whether it is to be considered alone or in connection with its companions. Mr. Hassall's editorial announcement sets out the following aim: "To present in separate volumes a comprehensive and trustworthy account of the general development of European history." This statement implies more than a political synopsis. Intellectual and social conditions ought also to be considered if the phrase "general development" has a meaning. Mr. Hassall, in 'The Balance of Power,' treats lucidly of those international relations which fall under the precise subject, but leaves the fringe of anything beyond diplomatic and constitutional history untouched. Of course, one shoulders a heavy load when he undertakes to dispose of the eighteenth century in fourteen chapters. Mr. Hassall lightens the burden by excluding all that is apart from wars, treaties, and domestic government. His selection of topics within this range is well considered, and, did he not out-Freeman Freeman in accepting the notion that history is past politics and nothing else, we should be able to praise his manual highly. By the terms of the series Mr. Hassall is responsible for one-eighth, in bulk, of European history, from the abdication of Romulus Augustulus to the Berlin Congress; and yet, writing on this broad scale, he averts his ken from rather more than one-half of human fate. As Renan observes, politics is not everything here below.

A close student of eighteenth-century statecraft, Mr. Hassall does not shrink from laying bare its hideous immorality. "Diplomacy, which had taken the place of religion in the councils of Europe, was unscrupulous, while the *secret diplomacy* of the middle of the eighteenth century marks the lowest depths arrived at in the history of the relations of the European States to each other." The War of the Austrian Succession and the partition of Poland are standing illustrations of this general profligacy, and both are fully discussed here. We recommend to our Jingo politicians, when they burn to "lick creation," Mr. Hassall's narrative of the partition. The faithlessness and brutality of three Governments professing to respect law and Christian precept ought to be a warning for ever to men whose instincts lead them to war for glory and plunder. The balance-of-power theory permitted

the infamy, and must share the blame along with Frederick, Joseph, and Catherine.

Northern and eastern Europe do not, as a rule, receive their fair share of attention, and we are glad to see that Mr. Hassall is fuller than most general historians in describing Russian, Swedish, and Turkish events. The beginnings of the Eastern Question, dating from the treaty of Kainarji, are skilfully handled, and the author's intention of "showing the close interdependence of Northern, Eastern, and Western politics" is fulfilled. Want of space leads to economy on the side of Portugal and the Papacy. The foreign policy of France is elaborated, though we get little about her domestic administration. The ministers of Louis XV.'s reign are seen in high relief, and Mr. Hassall manages besides "to emphasize the full meaning of the diplomatic revolutions of 1717 and 1756, and to bring out clearly the disastrous effects upon France of her entry into the war between England and the revolted American colonies."

Altogether, the book is thoroughly executed within the limits of its title, but falls somewhat short of its opportunities and obligations. In the matter of bibliographies the series suffers by comparison with the 'Histoire Générale.' The maps are clear and good, though one must object to the inclusion of Geneva, the Valais, and the Grisons in the Switzerland of 1740. The three appendices furnished by the Rev. A. H. Johnson present admirable analyses of the Austrian and the Prussian possessions and of the imperial constitution in the eighteenth century. Mr. Hassall writes in good style, but condenses so closely that his pages are sometimes a trifle dull. Historians who strive to be concise may avoid becoming obscure. It is harder for them to avoid the tone of a catalogue. They ought to remember Maitland's warning: "At *x* there was a *y* named *z*."

Sunrise Stories: A Glance at the Literature of Japan. By Roger Riordan and Tozo Takayanagi. Scribners. 1896. 12mo, pp. xii, 281.

THOUGH upwards of fifty of the best-known pieces of Japanese literary art have received translation in one or more of five European languages, there seems to have been no effort to furnish just the service which this volume creditably attempts. To convey some idea of the subjects dealt with in Japanese literature and of the several leading forms of expression; to set forth in translation or abridgment a few of the representative and classical specimens; to supply the important element of perspective by using a chronological and fairly comprehensive treatment; and, finally, to sketch the traits of society and nature in which this literature found its setting—a plan having these purposes was one worthy of being carried out. In no one of these features could it expect to be entirely accurate and sufficient within the compass of a small volume, or within the powers of perhaps any one living worker, Japanese or foreign; but for popular purposes and within these inevitable limits the work is successful. The few and unambitious efforts at analysis and generalization are particularly fortunate; the pages are the utterances of a full mind, rich in illustrations and skilful in presentation. The careful rendering of the poems into the original seven-and-five syllable metre is worth noting. There are some minor omissions and blemishes, which do not mar the usefulness of the book. Mr. Riordan's share is not stated, but has apparently been to give an English finish to Mr. Takayanagi's text.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, F. W. R. New Wheels in Old Ruts: A Pilgrimage to Canterbury. London: Unwin; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50
Baden Powell, Maj. R. S. S. The Downfall of Prempeh. London: Methuen & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3 50.
Baillie Grohman, W. A. Sport in the Alps in the Past and Present. Scribners $5.
Balzac, H. de. Pierrette and the Abbé Birotteau. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Blok, P. J. Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Volk. Derde Deel. Groningen: J. B. Wolters.
Bowen, Helen M. A Daughter of Cuba. Merriam Co. 50c.
Brehm, A. E. From North Pole to Equator. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $6.
Brown, J. T. T. The Authorship of the King's Quair: A New Criticism. Glasgow: J. MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Bull, H. J. The Cruise of the "Antarctic" to the South Polar Regions. Edward Arnold. $4.
Crawford, F. M. Bar Harbor. Scribners. 75c.
Fitz Gerald, E. A. Climbs in the New Zealand Alps. Scribners. $7.50.
Frye, A. E. Home and School Atlas. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Fuller, A. S. The Nut Culturist. New York: Orange Judd Co. $1.
Galton, F. W. Workers on their Industries. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Gattermann, Prof. Ludwig. The Practical Methods of Organic Chemistry. Macmillan. $1 60.
Gladstone, W. E. Studies Subsidiary to the Works of Bishop Butler. Macmillan. $2.
Gollancz, Israel. Macbeth. Antony and Cleopatra. [Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45c.
Jones, Rev. J. W. School History of the United States. Baltimore: R. H. Woodward Co.
Karkaria, R. P. India: Forty Years of Progress and Reform. London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan.
Lyall, David. Heather from the Brae. F. H. Revell Co. 75c.
Marx, Karl. Revolution and Counter-Revolution: or, Germany in 1848. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Mathews, F. S. Familiar Trees and their Leaves. Appletons
Ross, Albert. Love Gone Astray. G. W. Dillingham.
Schuckburgh, E. S. C. Suetoni Tranquilli Divus Augustus. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan: $2.75.
Smith, W. D. A Manual of Elementary Law. St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $3.75.
Stories by English Authors. Scotland. The Orient. Scribners Each 75c.
Ticknor, Caroline. A Hypocritical Romance, and Other Stories. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.
Venus and Cupid; or, A Trip from Mount Olympus to London. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Ward, James. The Principles of Ornament. New and enlarged ed. Scribners. $2 50.
Waugh, Arthur. Johnson's Lives of the Poets. Vols. III. and IV. Scribners. $5.
Wells, H. G. The Island of Doctor Moreau. Stone & Kimball. $1 25.
Wheels: A Bicycle Romance. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 30, 1896.

The Week.

The action taken by the conference of sound-money Democrats at Chicago on Thursday last puts a new face on the campaign by introducing a fresh element into it. By calling a convention to put another Democratic ticket in the field, they have insured the permanence of the defection against Bryan, free silver, and repudiation which was disclosed at the Chicago convention and has been growing ever since. There has been a widespread belief that a third ticket would draw votes away from the Republican ticket, and thus contribute to the success of the Populistic-Democratic combination. We believe that the best interests of the country now require the election of McKinley and Hobart. We could not commend or advise any policy which, in our judgment, would not promote that end. If we believed that a third ticket would take from McKinley and Hobart one vote more than it would draw from Bryan and Sewall, we should certainly advise against it. Experience and observation of the drift and tendencies of the American voter, and some special knowledge of the issues of the present campaign, convince us that nearly all the Democrats who thoroughly understand those issues, and who have refrained up to this time from endorsing the nomination of Bryan, will vote for McKinley, no matter how many other tickets may be put up. We are equally convinced that these are not more than one in ten of the Democrats in the country at large, and that the other nine will gravitate to their own party, or be "whipped in" before election day, unless special pains are taken to hold them back. The question before us, therefore, is one of means to an end—the end being to keep votes away from Bryan which he would naturally get.

The Populist convention violated all precedents in nominating a candidate for Vice-President before making its choice for the first place on the ticket, and it was only proper that it should be equally reckless in picking out the man who represents the real feelings and desires of the party. Thomas E. Watson is a typical Southern Populist. Elected to Congress in 1890 nominally as a Democrat, he soon became as bitter against that party as the other, and, before the end of his first year, ceased to call himself a Democrat, running unsuccessfully for reëlection in 1892 as the candidate of the People's party. During his brief service at Washington he became notorious as a demagogue, who disgusted all sensible people by his wild ideas and abusive language. His easy nomination for the Vice-Presidency on the first ballot will show the people of the United States what a reckless and dangerous party the Populist is.

Mr. Bryan's dash and decision are oozing away painfully. Whether to accept or to refuse the Populist nomination, with its onerous conditions, he cannot make up his mind; so he puts out a bulletin deprecating "harsh criticism," and declaring that he "will act with deliberation." But the trouble is that he has already acted, with or without deliberation, in a way to make an honorable retreat impossible. His action was taken on July 24, when he telegraphed Chairman Jones: "I agree with you fully. If Sewall is not nominated, have my name withdrawn." What is there left for him to deliberate about? If he was honest then in withdrawing, he cannot be honest now in accepting. The truth is, that a most frightful dilemma is now thrust upon the young man who so gayly set out to run for the Presidency. To take this Populist nomination will be disastrous, and to refuse it will be disastrous; the only question being which will be the more so. In such a case deliberation only makes matters worse, as it notifies the public that the candidate is engaged in a choice of evils. Deliberation is confession. Did ever a nominee hesitate before about accepting 1,000,000 votes offered him? And we wonder how the Populists will like being deliberated over by Mr. Bryan. We should be glad to get "Cyclone" Davis's unforced opinions on this subject.

The platform adopted by the Populists is in many respects an improvement on that of the gathering at Chicago. The latter was vague; the former is explicit. Both agree that the principles of the founders of the republic must be maintained, that our independence is in peril because of the money power, and that this country is big enough to have a standard of value of its own without regard to the rest of the world. Both demand the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. Both condemn the sale of bonds for gold. Both denounce banks; the Chicago platform apparently limiting its complaint to national banks, but declaring at the same time that all paper money must be issued by the Government. Both favor an income-tax; the Chicago platform calling for one that shall cause wealth to bear its due proportion of the expenses of the Government, the Populist platform demanding in terms a graduated tax. Both decry the Supreme Court. Both repudiate "government by injunction." Both demand legislation prohibiting gold contracts. Both declare that the Government shall exercise its option of paying its obligations in silver. Both "sympathize with Cuba," and want the Territories admitted as States. Both reject all terms offered in settlement of the debts of the Pacific railroads.

Practically the only differences between the platforms are to be found in the planks concerning railroads and concerning the issue of money. The Chicago platform wants the control of Government over the railroads enlarged indefinitely; the Populists declare frankly for Government ownership of railroads and telegraphs. The Chicago platform proposes that Government notes shall be redeemable in coin, meaning thereby silver coin; the Populists content themselves with favoring the issue of money by the Government without saying anything about its redemption. This money is to be "safe and sound," and there is to be "a just, equitable, and efficient means of distribution direct to the people and through the lawful disbursements of the Government." We fear that this plank will not satisfy the rank and file of the Populists. In 1892 their platform called for a distribution of money "direct to the people at a tax not to exceed 2 per cent. per annum," according to the sub-treasury plan of the Farmers' Alliance. If there is nothing to hope for except a distribution through the lawful disbursements of the Government, how are the people to get hold of the money? That means nothing but the continuance of the present system, and in that case the Chicago platform is practically identical with that of the Populists. Had it been adopted last, it would read like a timid copy; as it is, the Populists have improved on the Chicago precedent.

Mr. George Fred Williams is furious because the Democrats of Massachusetts are not willing to admit that all their convictions have been erroneous, that their understanding of the principles maintained by Jefferson and Jackson has been incorrect, that whatever they have regarded as honorable is wrong, and that they must openly proclaim their adhesion to and support of views which they have always detested and always will detest. The quite natural reluctance to make such shameful admissions Mr. Williams describes as a "desperate effort to injure the cause of the national Democracy in the coming campaign." To counteract these desperate efforts Mr. Williams pleasantly invites every citizen of Massachusetts to join in forming a State organization which shall support the Chicago platform. The invitation is not a particularly attractive one. As we understand

Mr. Williams's theory of political morality, it makes no difference whatever to the members of a party whether the policy of the party is changed or not. If the Republican platform had declared for the reënslavement of the negroes, according to Mr. Williams all who had called themselves Republicans must support that measure. Possibly Mr. Williams would say that the Chicago platform expresses the principles hitherto supported by the Democratic party. He is welcome to that opinion; but he cannot deny that other people have a right to hold opinions of directly opposite character.

The sound-money men in both parties are becoming thoroughly aroused to the importance of securing a House of Representatives which can be depended upon in the next Congress. The thing to do is to unite the votes of those Republicans and those Democrats who oppose the silver craze in such a way that a majority of Representatives may be secured who will oppose either free coinage or any compromise with silver. In a normally Democratic district a gold-standard Democrat should be supported by gold-standard Republicans, rather than run a sound-money Republican and take any risk of a silver man slipping in between the two. In strongly Republican districts the sound-money Democrats should reciprocate. Where neither the Republican nor the Democrat is sound, the gold-standard men should run a candidate of their own. In the Detroit (Mich.) district the candidate of the Republican party is to be a man who cannot be trusted to stand up for honest money against any pressure, while it seems more than probable that a strong effort will be made to oppose him with a Democratic candidate who can be trusted just as little. If this cannot be prevented, the *Free Press* (bolting Democratic) holds that "an effort should be initiated to secure the nomination of a candidate for whom the friends of honest money can cast their votes with some degree of confidence."

As Mr. Depew remarks, the policy of frightening English capital away from this country has the effect of stimulating industry in England. It produces such an abundant supply of loanable funds there as to make the rate of interest extremely low. This means that enterprises which would be unprofitable if capital had to be borrowed at a high rate of interest, become profitable. It means that employers are relieved of the necessity of reducing wages and are enabled to increase them. The general prosperity of the country has been evidenced in various ways, notably by the increase in the revenue of the Government. Additional evidence is now at hand in the report of the Board of Trade on the bankruptcies occurring during the year 1895. The number of cases decreased about 9 per cent. from 1894, and the estimated losses to creditors were but £8,328,000—a decrease of £1,367,000. The liabilities of the bankrupts were also about 15 per cent. less; and, as compared with 1893, the losses of creditors have fallen 23 per cent. According to the report, the annual amount of trading insolvency is on the whole steadily diminishing, and during the last few years it has fallen to a lower level than at any time during the present generation. If this does not demonstrate the prosperity of trade, it at least shows that trade is conducted, so far as the system of credit is concerned, on sound principles. Our harassed bankers and business men may well turn their eyes with envy to a country where the standard of value is not in constant danger of subversion by the Government, and where people do not have to speculate on the chances of coming down to a silver basis.

Mr. McKinley's little speech on Saturday had rather more about the tariff in it than the political situation just now seems to call for. That non-partisan campaign in defence of the national credit upon which he says we are entering does not mean a tariff campaign. It is especially futile in him to assert that "everybody knows" that the next Congress, if Republican, will pass a tariff bill as one of its first acts. Everybody knows that the next Senate will do nothing of the kind, and there is no use in holding out false hopes to anybody. On the money question the Major was as emphatic as a practised dealer in generalities can be. He was pronounced against any measure that would debase the currency or destroy public confidence. He undoubtedly means that he is in favor of the single gold standard, but it would be just as well to say so in terms. He should know that the times call for incisive statements, and that phrases fitted to put an edge on public sentiment are the ones for him to seek. Nothing is to be gained by being mealy-mouthed or trying any longer to butter the silver parsnips with fine words.

The announcement by the Atlanta (Ga.) *Journal* that it will support Bryan, despite its opposition to the free-coinage principle, should not surprise the public. The Mobile (Ala.) *Register*, which at first repudiated the Chicago ticket, has recanted, and the Savannah (Ga.) *News*, which left its attitude somewhat in doubt, announces that it will support the regular ticket. In Florida the Jacksonville *Citizen*, which has always been a sound-money journal, has accepted the result at Chicago, and other Democratic newspapers in that State, which have also opposed free coinage, take the same position. The independent voter is as yet not developed in most of the States in the Farther South, and a Democratic newspaper which should advise readers to help the election of a Republican President would be in danger of losing readers. The race question also enters into the matter, as the Democrat who votes the McKinley ticket in one of those States must cast his ballot for "niggers" as Presidential electors. Further north the conditions are different, notably in Kentucky, where the race issue is less acute and where the Republican party locally is more respectable. In such border States Democratic newspapers not only can bolt, but find a large proportion of their readers glad to keep them company in so doing.

The silver organs in the Southwest are making much of a statement, which is credited to Mr. Perry Belmont, that the Bank of France maintains the parity of gold and silver in that country by paying out both metals indiscriminately and at its own option. From this it is argued by the silver organs that we could do the same if the Treasury would exercise the same option. The fact is, that parity between the silver five-franc pieces and the gold coins has been maintained by stopping the coinage of silver and restricting the amount of five-franc pieces to the quantity in circulation twenty years ago. This was an act of the Government, not of the Bank of France, which is a private institution owned and managed exclusively by the shareholders. It is true that the Bank does exercise an option in paying out silver or gold when its notes are presented for redemption. It makes a profit by doing so—that is, it swells its own dividends. If a million francs of gold is called for, and the Bank sees a chance to "turn an honest penny," it offers its customer half a million in gold and half a million in silver. The customer says, "No, I must have it all gold because I want to send it out of the country, and foreigners will not take silver." The Bank has made a calculation that it will cost the customer say 1-8 per cent. to sort gold out of the circulating medium of the country, and that it can therefore safely charge 1-10 per cent. premium on the gold which it pays out, which premium is a profit to itself. This is the whole mystery of the premium on gold in France. Of course, the Bank exercises a discretion in this matter. Sometimes it charges a premium and sometimes it does not. The operation has nothing whatever to do with maintaining the parity of the two metals. In fact, it produces the only disparity which exists there. If the Government of France should go in for the free coinage of silver, parity could not be maintained a single day. Mr. Perry Belmont knows all these things, and is a sound-money Democrat through and through. It is evident, therefore, that the silver organs in the Southwest have either misquoted him or misconceived his meaning.

The Republican conventions that are being held in States between the Missis

sippi and the Rockies furnish little evidence that the free-coinage heresy has a hold upon the party in that section of the country. The convention in North Dakota was held last week, and it endorsed the St. Louis platform; an effort to tack a silver plank to the resolutions being easily defeated. In South Dakota, Senator Pettigrew used all his influence to prevent a similar endorsement, but he was overwhelmingly defeated. In Iowa the Congressmen and other politicians who seemed so doubtful at St. Louis whether their constituents would endure a declaration for the gold standard, found that the delegates to the State convention were impatient with their timidity, and were quite ready to "stand up to the rack." Indeed, there has been little evidence of revolt among Republicans in the central part of the Union, outside the States of Minnesota and Michigan, and in these two States the bolters from the St. Louis platform do not seem to be gaining ground as time passes.

The commission on the Greater New York charter have displayed great speed in preparing a draft of the first five chapters, and great good sense in giving it out, even in incomplete and tentative form, for public scrutiny. Whatever the plan evolved, its acceptance must depend on popular approval; and as that can be secured only by thorough discussion, and as the time is short, discussion cannot too soon be invited or begun. Of the general outline submitted, it is to be said that the centralizing of power and responsibility in the Mayor is in keeping with the prevailing opinion among municipal reformers. The practical working of this plan in Brooklyn and Cleveland and other cities has revealed few operative objections to it, and it seems now destined to widespread trial in this country. How to secure an efficient legislative body to go with this strong executive, and an interested and honest local control of local affairs, is the great problem. The commission propose to solve it by the adoption of a borough system, the greater city to be provided with nine borough boards, each having its local jurisdiction and each electing representatives to the central legislative body. In the details of this adjustment of local to central government will come the rub. Whatever may be found to be the difficulties or practicability of this part of the plan, the commission are certainly to be praised for the direct way in which they declare for ample powers in the Mayor's hands and for single-headed departments.

In the course of President Walker's address in London before the Bimetallic League, he fairly got on his knees to that city, begging it to give the world international bimetallism. He said: "Of all the vast expanse of the globe, one square mile alone blocks the way to the adoption of a world's money as wide as the world's trade." Athanasius against the world was nothing to this; his patriarchate covered much more than one square mile. The orators lately in action at St. Louis are, in fact, the only ones able to equal this flight of Prof. Walker's. It is a common Populist conception that four men meet in a back room in London, not larger than 200 square feet, and mark up the price of the dollar and the rate of interest as the fancy strikes them. "Cyclone" Davis would agree in general with the head of the Boston School of Technology, that three or four Jews in London were keeping the rest of the world from having their own way, but the Texan remedy is not to beg but to break heads. That, we fully believe, is the only way of making that one square mile in London "let up" on the rest of the globe. President Walker's method will only make it more conscious of power and unscrupulous in the use of it. In this connection, it is interesting to learn from President Walker's 'International Bimetallism,' just published, how that beautiful world's money as wide as the world's trade is to be established. It is not to be through international conferences. President Walker is as sick of them as Bryan himself, and with as good reason. There is such an unpleasant publicity about them, so much speechmaking and explaining to do, and now such an inevitable air of solemn farce. No, conferences are to be thrown over, and international bimetallism brought about, how? "Through diplomatic negotiations *quietly conducted*, without speechmaking or ceremony, between the four nations, France, England, Germany, and the United States." In other words, four monarchs are to get together in the good old secret way and agree to debase the coinage, letting the people and the press know nothing about it until it is an accomplished fact. But if international bimetallism can come only without observation, its arrival is even further off than we had supposed.

Even in "bimetallic France" people are occasionally reminded that silver coin has, after all, rather a factitious than an intrinsic value. The Paris correspondent of the London *Economist* writes that dissatisfaction and inconvenience have been caused by a proclamation of the Ministry of Finance calling attention to the fact that silver coins of dates previous to 1866 for pieces of one and two francs, and smaller pieces older than 1864, are not current. Such coins have hitherto been in circulation and have never been withdrawn by the Government when received at the post-offices and other public departments. The Ministry of Finance is now obliging enough to offer to purchase these coins at 53 per cent. of their face value, in order, as it ironically observes, to facilitate the elimination of such coins from circulation. The silver coins current in France are as varied in character as our paper money. The silver coins of Belgium and Switzerland and Italy are worth their face value if they have the right year stamped on them; otherwise they are not a legal tender. In the case of Swiss coins, if the female figure on them is erect, they are good; if seated, they are bad. There is a good deal of "fiat" in the value of such coins, while gold appears to maintain a perverse independence of all legislative assertions of its value.

Sir William Harcourt's question about the Venezuela controversy in the House of Commons last week made it clear again that Lord Salisbury has not kept abreast of English public opinion in pushing for arbitration. He has accelerated his pace of late, it is true, and now admits that time should not be lost, and that the present situation should be utilized for the purpose of securing a permanent solution for similar difficulties. But there is no doubt that the English people and a good part of his parliamentary supporters have been vastly impatient at the way he has let the affair drag along. He made public the recent correspondence on the express ground that it would be an advantage to test public opinion. The cheers that greeted Sir William Harcourt's pressure for dispatch in the business give a test of parliamentary opinion at any rate. Secretary Olney has been readier to go on than Lord Salisbury, but he, as well as the British Premier, shrinks from going the full length of arbitration, and proposes to reserve a class of difficulties that cannot be arbitrated. In other words, both negotiators abandon the principle of the duello in some cases, considering it an obsolete and monstrous principle, but in others propose to apply it as rigorously and wickedly as ever.

There is reason to think that the disturbances in Macedonia are of a more serious character than has been supposed. The German and Austrian papers are full of reports of an extremely disquieting character; and when we consider the outbreak in Crete and the situation in Armenia, it is hard to resist the conclusion that the dissolution of the Turkish empire may come sooner than it was looked for. Its collapse can hardly occur without a general convulsion, but the framework of the ancient despotism has become so rotten that it seems doubtful if the European Powers united can hold it up much longer. It is by no means improbable, as is sincerely believed by some of the American missionaries, that Russian influence is at work to stimulate disorder. Now that Russia has brought Bulgaria to terms, her hands are comparatively free, and when Turkey finally breaks up, Russia at least will be no loser,

A REAL BUSINESS CAMPAIGN.

We have had feigned or fraudulent "Business Men's campaigns" in this country, but this time it is the genuine article. The business interests of the country are for the first time almost absolutely solidified on one side in a Presidential election. Hitherto it has been possible for one party to offset the other's great "Dry-Goods Parade" with an imposing "Manufacturers' Demonstration" or "Solid Men in Line" of its own. Free silver astride the Democratic party has changed all that. In the contest between party and bread-and-butter, party goes down every time. The business world has now a common consciousness created in it by the bold threat of the Chicago platform and candidates against its very life, and the most powerful impulse in that consciousness is the instinctive one of self-defence. Every active business man becomes of necessity a political agent from this time on. It is not a matter of artificial and perfunctory parades and processions, but of a spontaneous, a continuous, an overwhelming fight with the forces of civil disorder and business disaster.

The bankers and brokers of this city have just furnished a most striking proof of the way the business interests of the country are bound together, and are necessarily bound together, against every assault on the national credit. They have combined their powerful forces not only to replenish the Government's gold reserve, but to protect it against further depletion. They are, in other words, proposing to do now voluntarily what the syndicate obligated itself to do last year. Then it was, according to the Populists, only a question of blood-sucking and wicked profits wrung from the people. What they will say to this similar step, without any Government contract or any profits, we do not know; but it is safe to predict that it will throw them into a fresh fine frenzy.

We do not suppose for a moment that this combined action to protect the national credit is regarded by its promoters as a piece of disinterested patriotism. It is a business move, and there are the best of business reasons for it. Bankers are first of all business men, and would have no right to use the funds in their charge for patriotic purposes, merely as such. But there are cases when good patriotism is also good business, and this is one of them. If confidence can be maintained, or if at least an impending panic can be averted, the business basis for the action taken is clearly established.

We believe, furthermore, looking at the matter narrowly, that the project to check gold exports and supply needed sterling exchange for ninety days has a reasonable business basis in existing conditions. Those closest in touch with the international situation are confident of large foreign buying of our cotton and wheat. It is noticeable that one firm in particular, which last year would not go into the combination to protect sterling exchange, because it did not believe the export situation warranted it, is now acting with the others. The operation thus promises to be successful, purely as a business stroke. But even if it is not, even if the work should turn out to have been done at a loss, it would be a wise and defensible business move nevertheless. The general gains resulting from improved confidence would more than make up for incidental losses. Every vast business interest is intimately related to public confidence and the national credit, and any action taken by it to build up that confidence and sustain that credit is legitimate business.

This is the great significance of the spontaneous arrangements making by New York business men to protect the gold reserve. It shows that the great commercial and industrial forces of the country are wrapped up in the preservation of a stable currency. It shows how inevitably they come together and unite their tremendous powers in defence of the national finances. They are bound to do it. It is not patriotism merely, it is horse-sense. Individual bankers, isolated millionaires, could of course protect themselves in a general smash; but the vast business fabric of the country would fall in irretrievable ruin. To prevent that is the beginning of business wisdom. That was really the underlying motive with many subscribers to the Government bond sales. They did not particularly want the bonds. The enormous profits, as a little figuring would show, were all in the Populist's eye. But a general business disaster must be staved off at all hazards. It was an argument, in fact, of one of the promoters of the syndicate loan, that bankers must come in and take a share, "or else we shall all go to the devil together."

Politically, the effect of American business men being aroused and embattled as never before cannot fail to be enormous. What we see here in New York on a large scale is going on proportionately all over the country. The business instinct is one and the same thing wherever you find it. Because a manufacturer or trader lives in Alabama or Texas, there is nothing in the climate to make him imagine that cutting the dollar in two will be anything but disastrous to those who produce as well as those who buy and sell. As a matter of fact, Southern and Western business men who come to New York by the hundred say that they and their kind think about the situation just as we do, and are going to vote the same way, too. This will appear more and more evident as the campaign goes on. The solidification of business men against the party of repudiation and riot will be, we believe, by October, so complete and overpowering that all doubt about the result will be over long before election day comes.

THE PLIGHT OF THE WESTERN FARMER.

The *Evening Post* publishes a letter from a correspondent who appears to have a personal acquaintance with the condition of the farmers in several of the Western States. He declares that an appalling change has come over their circumstances during the last ten years. He asserts that there is no mystery about the cause of this, which is, in brief, the fact that farmers get for their products prices that will average scarcely one-half what they received ten years ago. Hence farmers by the thousands have lost their farms, and tens of thousands are struggling to avert foreclosure, and the writer thinks that allowance should be made if such distress as this has bred a tendency to fanaticism. Certainly the condition of men who have borrowed moderate sums of money to use in legitimate and safe business enterprises, who have been disappointed in the outcome of these enterprises, and who have heroically struggled to prevent the lenders of this money from being deprived of their property, must command general sympathy. We know of no community where such men are not respected, or where their creditors are not willing and anxious to assist them in every possible way to retrieve their losses. Nor do we doubt that in the Western States many such sufferers are to be found. For a number of reasons, however, their number appears to be exaggerated.

In the first place, such evidence as we have, although it is of an imperfect nature, shows that probably the majority of farmers own their farms "free and clear." To all such men the course of general prices is really a matter of comparative indifference. Granted, which we do not grant, that the Western farmer sells his products for half the price of ten years ago, what difference does it make to him, when free from debt, provided the prices of everything that he buys have fallen in like proportion? And if they have not fallen in like proportion, then it conclusively appears that the demonetization of silver has nothing to do with the case, for that must affect all prices if any. We are unable to see that the Western farmer who is free from debt has any excuse whatever for either financial dishonesty or fanaticism. In the second place, the circumstances under which large parts of Kansas, Nebraska, the Dakotas, and Colorado were settled are notorious. It was very well known that the rainfall was uncertain in those regions, and they had been marked on the map as parts of the great American desert. Nevertheless, there were railroads that had land grants in those parts, there were State immigration agencies, there were farm-loan companies, and there were women and clergymen and teachers and even trustees and savings-bank officers in the East who were ready to lend money on the security of lands which they had never seen and

which they generally could not have found on the map if they had looked for them—to lend it, too, to borrowers whom they did not know and who were in many cases entirely impecunious.

Nothing else could well have happened under such conditions than what did happen. There were plenty of immigrants who were willing to buy land of the railroad companies if they could borrow the money to pay for it, and to take their chances of getting a crop. The money-lenders in many instances were dishonest, and frequently persuaded the borrower to take more money than he really needed, charging him enormous commissions, which were of course paid out of the money of the Eastern investor. Perhaps these money-lenders believed that, as had often taken place in the past, there would be such a rise in the value of farm lands as to bring everything out right. Probably the borrowers generally had this belief, although in many cases they were easily persuaded to drop enterprises in which they had never invested a dollar of their own capital, and to abandon "farms" which they had bought for less money than they had mortgaged them for.

However this may have been, it is evident that the whole business was speculative. Even the Eastern investor was a speculator to a certain extent, for he was tempted by higher interest to accept security without proper scrutiny; and we may say here parenthetically that the sufferings of this class deserve some consideration even from the silver men. But the latter was even more a speculator. He was borrowing money with which to embark on a perilous enterprise. He knew at the start that unless "rain followed the plough," he could not count on a crop in the arid belt more than one year in three. But he took the chances. He knew that time and again men had taken up land and paid for it with the proceeds of a single crop, and he had faith that open furrows would tempt showers out of a clear sky.

We need not examine the many causes that coöperated to bring this speculation to ruin. Their enterprises were not legitimate business enterprises, the amounts that they borrowed were frequently such as no one who wished to protect his creditors from possible loss would borrow, and their conduct when they found that their enterprises were failures was frequently disgraceful. We are well aware that human nature is weak, and that debtors are easily persuaded to do things the morality of which they would question if they were not embarrassed. We are ready to "make allowance" in the sense of admitting that distress occasions fanaticism and dishonesty; but we are not ready to admit that it justifies dishonesty. No matter what the sufferings of the Western farmer, his condition shall not bring us to consent to the financial dishonor of the nation, to the cheating of creditors, to the robbery of the poor. Should the Western farmers overwhelm us with their votes, we shall submit only as the opponents of human slavery submitted when they were outvoted by the South, confident that in this country honesty and integrity shall at last rule.

ON THE BARGAIN COUNTER.

THE *Journal* of this city makes some suggestions that are well adapted to cause sober reflection among the readers of that paper. Why, it asks, should millionaire holders of American securities fear a panic through the unloading by English holders of American securities? Would not this great unloading place the purchasing power in their own hands? Would they not have an unparalleled opportunity to invest—"to secure some very good property at a bargain"?

These observations appear to us to indicate a very correct estimate of the gains that would be made by the possessors of great wealth if the American people should declare in favor of the free coinage of silver. That there would be a terrible panic does not admit of a doubt. If such transactions in securities as we now see take place under the influence of vague apprehension, the situation would be far worse when the certainty of disaster was established. If these things are done in a green tree, what will be done in a dry? We may safely assume, therefore, that the election of Mr. Bryan will be the signal for a great "unloading"; that is, for the forced sale of large amounts of securities for whatever they will bring.

These sales, as the *Journal* intimates, will be made not *by* the plutocrats, but *to* the plutocrats. They will be made not by those who will have enough to live on in times of distress, but by those who will not have enough to live on. They will be made not by the rich, but by those in moderate circumstances, who will feel that they must at any cost have something on hand with which to meet their ordinary expenses—with which to pay their rent, and to buy food and clothing and fuel for their children. They will be made by the officers of savings banks in order to raise funds wherewith to pay their frightened depositors. They will be made by directors of banks for the account of merchants who have pledged securities as collateral for loans of money to be used in their business. They will be made by hundreds of people in moderate circumstances (elderly people, school-teachers, single women), who will feel that, terrible as it is to have their savings reduced, it is better to make sure of something than to endure the strain of the possibility of losing all.

Such will be the sellers, and, ~~as our millionaire journalist intimates, he and the other~~ "plutocrats" will be the buyers. They can afford to forego dividends and interest for a year or two, provided they can purchase substantial properties at a fraction of their real value. It is by taking advantage of such conditions that many men have become millionaires, and it has generally been maintained that the existence of such conditions was deplorable, and by all means to be prevented, precisely because they give the very rich "opportunities to secure very good property at a bargain," at the expense of people of moderate wealth. It may be laid down as a maxim that "plutocrats" are in position to get the first news of whatever is likely to cause a fall in prices, and to take advantage of it. They are in the best position to judge when the decline has reached its limit, and, as we have seen, they have the means to use their advantage. They need not sell unless they choose, and they can buy when they choose. Other people have to sell when they do not want to, and cannot buy when they see that bargains are to be had.

Millionaires, therefore, as the *Journal* cheerfully assures them, need not worry about the silver craze. It will only give them another chance to carry out the principles which the Populists assert animate the rich. It is conceivable that some millionaires may have acted on these principles. They may have believed that the people were going to be humbugged by the owners of silver, and have converted their American securities into gold or British funds. They may be chuckling now over their astuteness, and gloating over the prospect of future wreck, when they will step in and "secure some very good property at a bargain." They may even reason that it is quite impossible for a commercial country like this to remain on a silver basis, and foresee an eventual return to gold, with further panic, ruin of debtors, foreclosure of mortgages, etc., as necessary consequences of financial dishonesty. Whatever happens, their withers will be unwrung.

But it is infinitely melancholy to see a great body of our fellow-citizens bent on forcing this opportunity on the "plutocrats." It is inconceivable that they have any hostility to the possessors of moderate wealth, for many of them belong to this class. Nor are they unaware that the "plutocrats" can take care of themselves, for they continually attribute to them almost superhuman craft and quite inhuman principle. Nevertheless, they seem determined to bring on a crisis which can result only in transferring property from the less wealthy to the "plutocrats." Does it not occur to them to inquire into the influences that have established the silver propaganda, and to ask whose interests will be immediately promoted by its success? Such questions may well be suggested by the friends of honest money to those who are confused by the claims of the silver advocates. If a period of disturbance in values is to result in gain to the poor and loss to the rich, it will be the first instance of the kind in the world's history.

A FREE-COINAGE CATECHISM.

Q. WHAT do the free-coinage leaders especially charge against the gold standard? A. They declare that it has helped the rich, and has caused distress and loss to everybody else.

Q. Is this statement true? A. It is not.

Q. Suppose the gold standard had worked injury to every one except the rich; how should we know the fact? A. People with small incomes would have been growing steadily poorer since the gold standard was adopted.

Q. Have such people been growing poorer? A. On the contrary, their prosperity, since this country returned to the gold standard in 1879, has increased in an unprecedented degree.

Q. What proof have you of this? A. The increase in savings-bank deposits.

Q. By whom are such deposits made? A. They consist almost entirely of the surplus income of tradesmen, wage-earners, and small producers.

Q. What are the figures of these deposits? A. In 1879 the total savings-bank deposits in the United States were $802,490,298; in 1895 they were $1,844,357,798; increase, $1,041,867,500, or 129 per cent.

Q. What is your authority for these figures? A. The official statements of the savings banks to the United States Government, published in the reports of the Comptroller of the Currency.

Q. What do the figures show? A. They show that during the seventeen years since this country's return to the single gold standard, the savings of its poorer people have been a thousand million dollars larger than they were in any preceding period.

Q. Are the savings-bank deposits our only proof that the people have prospered under the gold standard? A. The building and loan associations are another striking proof.

Q. Who are the depositors with building and loan associations? A. Chiefly wage-earners, tradesmen, and people with small salaries.

Q. What do the reports of these associations show? A. Twelve years ago the deposits with such associations were comparatively insignificant. In 1892 the returns of the United States Department of Labor showed the aggregate to be $500,000,000. To-day the total of these deposits in this country is estimated at $750,000,000.

Q. How do all these figures compare with savings-bank deposits and with building and loan association accounts in countries now on a silver standard? A. Such countries have neither savings banks nor building and loan associations, at least on any such scale as to furnish a basis for comparison.

Q. How do you explain so enormous an increase in the savings of our people? A. Wages have increased since the return to the gold standard. Great improvements and extension of production have lowered prices and reduced the cost of living. This has necessarily increased the people's savings.

Q. What is your authority for stating that wages have increased since our adoption of the gold standard? A. The highest known authority: the United States Senate report of 1892.

Q. How much does this report show average wages to have increased since the resumption of specie payments? A. Up to the latest date covered by the report, they had increased 20¾ per cent. In many industries the increase had been much larger.

Q. Then the average wage-earner's income has increased under the gold standard, while living expenses have decreased for everybody? A. Such are the facts.

Q. Would this advantage continue under free silver coinage? A. It could not. Wages would not increase spontaneously if at all, while prices for necessaries of life would rise rapidly.

Q. Do the free-coinage leaders admit this certain rise in prices? A. They do; they declare that all prices are now too low, and that free coinage will raise them.

Q. But do not these people claim that high prices for food, clothing, and household necessaries will cause general contentment and prosperity? A. They do.

Q. How can we be sure that they are not right? A. Read the record of years when currency inflation had caused high prices in this country. Look into the condition of other countries where prices now are high under a silver standard.

Q. When were prices and living expenses highest in this country? A. In 1865 and 1866.

Q. What did the American people of that time think of the high prices? A. They complained bitterly.

Q. Where can we find any record of such complaint? A. Go to a public library and read the newspapers of those years.

Q. Give some illustrations. A. In 1865 the New York papers seriously advised people to stop eating meat, in order to check the high prices. Letters from readers published in these papers complained that milk, butter, coal, and ice were almost beyond the poor man's reach. One letter, in the New York *Times* of June 29, 1865, deserves to be quoted. "All last winter," the writer says, "I could hardly afford to buy any meat. The little bits of beef and mutton that we poor people buy cost so much that my wife says it is like eating money." You can readily consult all these published letters.

Q. Would people object to high prices now as much as they did then? A. Every head of a family and every housekeeper is competent to answer this question.

Q. If prices advanced under free coinage, would not the employer of labor be able to pay very much higher wages? A. His own living expenses would increase as fast as his income, his business would be thrown into confusion, and all his profits would become a matter of speculation.

Q. Was this his experience when prices rose before 1865? A. It was emphatically his experience.

Q. But, surely, if the money supply increased, the wage-earner would get his share? A. He could get no more than his employer paid him.

Q. But might not his employer advance wages simply because the money supply had increased? A. We leave the answer to this question to the wage-earner himself.

ERNST CURTIUS.

NORWICH, Conn., July 27, 1896.

I FIRST met Ernst Curtius in June, 1871, at the Hôtel des Étrangers, Athens. He had just returned from Asia Minor, where, in company with Stark of Heidelberg, Adler of Berlin, and Major V. Regely of the German Engineer Corps, he had been superintending the excavations at Pergamos. I had the good fortune to be placed next him at table-d'hôte, and the circumstance that I spoke the modern Greek with some facility led to conversation between us in that language, and roused also Curtius's interest in me, one of the earliest Americans who made a prolonged residence in Greece to gain a knowledge of land, language, and people. This personal interest led to a subsequent intimate acquaintance in Berlin, where I was so favored as to be, for a year (1872-'73), a member of Curtius's household. Thus it comes about that I am qualified and justified in writing, shortly after Curtius's death, these reminiscences of one of the noblest natures that I have ever known. How well I recall the impression which Curtius made upon me at that first meeting! He was then fifty-seven years old, but bore hardly any visible marks of age. He was small of stature, but of beautiful physical development. His light step, his large, prominent eye, his dark-brown, wavy, abundant hair, his animated, rapid speech, his gay flow of spirits, all come back to my memory.

To few men did birthplace mean more than to Curtius. He was born September 2, 1814, in the stately historic town of Lübeck, capital city of the Hansa League, which in 1400 numbered eighty towns in its membership and controlled the commerce of the world. The carved front of many an old Lübeck house bears witness to the wealth which world-commerce brought into this city, and the Marien-Kirche is one of the largest and noblest churches in Europe. Its monuments, by their number and their variety, testify to the wealth and enterprise of the citizens of the good old town, and many an ancient gate and guild-hall speaks to the thoughtful visitor of the bustle and wealth of long ago. Curtius's father, Carl Curtius, was for a long period syndic of Lübeck, had studied law, possessed decided literary tastes, and had maintained a correspondence on subjects connected with the drama with the poet Schiller while the latter was professor of history at Jena. The name Curtius was formed by giving a Latin termination to the German name *Kurz*, "short." Ernst Curtius had two brothers, Theodore, the oldest of the family, who studied law and became burgomaster of Lübeck, and

George, born in 1817, who attained great eminence as a comparative etymologist, and died, full of honors, in Leipzig, some ten years since.

Ernst Curtius received his early training at the gymnasium called the Katharinum, originally the Monastery of St. Catharine, and, with the reputation of a brilliant student, went, in 1834, to Bonn to study classical literature. He took with him from Classen, who had lately come to Lübeck, an introduction to Prof. Brandis of the University of Bonn. Classen had been, while Niebuhr was professor at Bonn, the historian's secretary and private tutor to his son. Brandis had been Niebuhr's secretary when he was German Minister at Rome. Brandis was in due time succeeded by Bunsen, whose brilliant subsequent career in England was opened to him at the German Embassy at Rome. All of these men, except Bunsen, were natives of Schleswig-Holstein; and attachment to their little native state, so wonderfully productive of great men, made them ready each to lend a helping hand to the other.

In 1835 Otho, a Bavarian Prince, the first King of Greece, attained his majority and took the reins of government. Great hopes were entertained of the future of the Greek kingdom, and in 1837 Brandis was selected as the Privy-Councillor of the King, who had barely completed his education. Brandis needed a teacher for his children, and he selected the talented, enthusiastic Ernst Curtius, whom he had been teaching for three years in his lecture-room at Bonn. At the same time, Emanuel Geibel, one of Germany's valued lyric poets, a schoolmate of Ernst Curtius at the Katharinum, accepted an appointment as private tutor to the children of the Russian Ambassador. What a romantic beginning of life was this for a gifted youth of twenty-three! The party, numbering eight or ten souls, started from Hamburg in an emigrant-wagon, and their journey was continued, in this same wagon, until it terminated in Ancona, on the east coast of Italy. Nearly three months were required, but what a fund of impression, of knowledge must have been gained. Doubtless Curtius's journal is still in existence. A companion to it is Goethe's journal of his tour to Italy. It is difficult for us to conceive of the transformations which have taken place in Europe since this journey was undertaken. Think of the formalities of passport, of the varieties of costume, of the multitude of independent States! The longest halt was made at Munich, where, from Brandis's relations to the Bavarian Prince, the party had a warm reception. Then the Alps were crossed, Lombardy and the Po Valley were passed, and a sailing-vessel was taken at Ancona. Curtius's family used to take special delight in hearing him relate the story of this journey.

The hopes of the Philhellenes in regard to Greece were hardly realized, in part because they had been unwarrantably high. Brandis, perhaps, felt in after years that he had sacrificed much in interrupting the quiet course of his fruitful labors at Bonn, but to Curtius the whole experience was full of the greatest advantage. Sensitive far beyond most men to natural scenery, with a quick and unerring eye for beauty in nature and art, he gained, in the most impressionable period of life, an intimate acquaintance with Greece which bore unceasing fruit to the very close. Who can measure the effects upon facilities and ideals in classical study, upon museums, upon the popularizing of Greek art, of Ernst Curtius's residence for two years in Athens? Two specially important journeys were undertaken by Curtius towards the close of his stay in Greece: one, with K. O. Müller, to Delphi; the other, with Karl Ritter, a protracted tour in the Peloponnesus. The first journey was saddened by the death of one of the most brilliant of German archæologists, who was prostrated by sunstroke while copying inscriptions at Delphi. Curtius brought back the remains of Müller to Athens, where they are now interred. The second journey, in the companionship of the father of modern geography, unquestionably laid the foundation for one of Curtius's most valuable works, 'The Peloponnesus,' which, though published in 1850, has not been superseded.

Curtius took his doctor's degree, in Bonn, in 1841, and was immediately appointed instructor in the Joachims-Thal Gymnasium in Berlin. The director of the gymnasium, who was Curtius's personal friend, soon requested Curtius to deliver one of the free popular lectures in the Royal Academy of Music (Sing-Akademie) which have for more than fifty years formed one of the winter attractions in Berlin. In the dense audience were Humboldt, Boeckh, and Ritter, and among the royal household was the Princess Augusta, wife of Prince William, and mother of the heir to the Prussian throne. Curtius chose as his subject the Acropolis of Athens. With that wonderful skill which he possessed he made his account of this famous rock nothing less than a living picture of Greek history, art, and religion. The audience was charmed, and the Princess is said to have remarked at the close of the address, "That is the man whom I must have to educate my son." In fact, three years later, in 1844, Curtius was appointed Educator of the Crown Prince, with the title of Professor Extraordinary in the University of Berlin. He devoted six years to this duty, having the general charge of all the historical, linguistic, and literary studies of Friedrich William. His relations with the royal family became familiar. In 1848-'49, when revolutionary feeling ran high in Berlin, the Prince of Prussia (afterwards, as Emperor William, the most popular sovereign in Europe) was so unpopular that it was thought necessary for him to leave Germany and reside in England. During this time Curtius lived in the intimate relations of common family life, in Potsdam, with the heir to the German throne and his mother, the Princess Augusta.

In 1850 Curtius accompanied his distinguished pupil to the University of Bonn, and in the same year his work on the Peloponnesus was published. This is not the place to attempt a bibliography of Curtius's works. Yet his address on Olympia in 1852, which is believed, owing to the personal interest which it excited in the Crown Prince, afterward the Emperor Frederick, to have been the cause of the German excavations of 1876-80, with all their wonderful results, should here be mentioned. In 1856 Curtius was appointed professor at Göttingen. He had already been induced to undertake the preparation of a History of Greece, and this history, his most extensive work, was completed in 1867. The English edition of this work is published in five volumes. Its capital merits are the intimate acquaintance of the author with the land he describes, his personal familiarity with the range of Greek literature, and his insight into Greek archæology and art. In 1869 Curtius was called to Berlin as professor in the University, and his life henceforth was to be identified with the German capital. The most important enterprises of this last period of his life were the excavations at Olympia, with which his name was peculiarly associated (in company, of course, with a large number of other scholars), and the establishment of the German School of Classical Studies in Athens, about 1872.

Any sketch of Curtius would be incomplete which should not mention the festival addresses, of which he delivered so many at Berlin. From the time of his appointment to the Berlin professorship, it devolved upon him to deliver, on the birthday of the Prussian King, the solemn address before the University. The subject of these birthday addresses was generally drawn from classical antiquity, but he would always make some application, pertinent and striking, to modern conditions and to modern needs. These addresses, delivered through almost thirty years in honor of three emperors, are a beautiful illustration of Curtius's patriotic feeling, of his versatility, of his exquisite literary talent.

In 1884 his admirers presented to him a noble bust of himself. Nearly a hundred Americans participated in this gift, the chairman of the American committee being the historian Bancroft. On Curtius's eightieth birthday a great demonstration in his honor was made at Olympia, where his bust, a copy of that of 1884, was crowned, and laudatory addresses were made by eminent scholars of all nationalities resident in Greece. The enthusiasm shown on this occasion is described as having been remarkable.

The nobleness of Curtius's personal character was something which altogether transcends description. Those who learned to know him recognize the peculiar inspiration which his nobleness has imparted to them, and are bound together by the tie of discipleship of him. Perhaps his influence has been peculiarly strong in America. A large number of the most eminent American classical scholars have been admitted to his hospitality and friendship, and count themselves as his fervent admirers. The interest felt in America in museums of casts, illustrative of Greek art, is largely due to the influence of Curtius. I am in doubt whether to attempt to characterize the home of Curtius as I knew it in Berlin. On the whole, I question whether a brighter family life could anywhere be found. Frau Curtius supplemented, in a wonderful degree, the gifts of her husband. Both delighted in the social life of the home, but Curtius would often lose himself in reverie, and find his own thoughts more interesting than the struggling speech of the foreign student or even the somewhat commonplace talk of the ordinary Berlin professor. Then Frau Curtius would come to the rescue, and, with a tact which must be seen to be appreciated, would discuss the subjects in which all were interested, and either set the company in animated conversation, or make, herself alone and unassisted, such speech as all would delightedly sit and listen to. Curtius leaves two children, Frederick, a man of brilliant literary endowments, who holds an important judicial position in Alsace, and a daughter, the wife of Richard Lepsius, professor in the Polytechnic School at Darmstadt. Prof. Lepsius is the son of the eminent Egyptologist.

Of the later years of Curtius's life it may be added that, with unabated industry, he toiled on until the end. Almost the only sign of physical failure was weakness of the eyes. He submitted to several operations for cataract, and, when his sight had grown so dim that he could work only very slowly and painfully, the use of his eyes was twice, to a considera-

ble extent, restored to him. His physical elasticity and his mental powers suffered little impairment until within the last three months, when the disease to which he succumbed declared itself. ROBERT P. KEEP.

AMHERST ECLIPSE EXPEDITION—II.

YACHT CORONET,
YOKOHAMA HARBOR, July 3, 1896.

REMARKABLE disturbances of nature seem to accompany the Amherst Eclipse Expedition upon its travels. Tales of the mighty eruption of Mauna Loa, just ending, greeted us at the Hawaiian Islands. Upon the arrival of the *Coronet* in Japan on June 22, it was learned that an enormous tidal wave had recently devastated more than thirty towns and villages in the north, washing away over five thousand houses and destroying nearly thirty thousand persons. Detailed accounts of this appalling disaster are still hard to obtain, for the few survivors in the devastated districts are even now too dazed to give clear descriptions of the horror which befell them. But it is known that a seismic wave, rising to a height of almost sixty feet, swept across the land, carrying everything in its course with irresistible force. Along a coast line of 175 miles in one province alone the wave overwhelmed the seaboard of three districts—Miyagi, Iwate, and Aomori, extending from Hachinoye on the north to Kinkasan, an island at the mouth of the bay of Sendai, on the south. Several shocks of earthquake were felt during the few hours preceding, and shortly before eight o'clock in the evening of June 15 a terrifying noise was heard, like the boom of gigantic artillery; a black wall of water was seen advancing from the ocean with fearful speed, and in less than two minutes whole towns were swept away and thousands of human beings perished. Their Majesties the Emperor and Empress have come nobly to the rescue with gifts of 15,000 yen, and the Tokyo journals at once opened subscriptions for the relief of the starving survivors, the *Jiji* collecting in a few days over 10,000 yen, and the *Nichi-Nichi* more than 8,000, while the Iwate branch of the Red Cross Society has established a temporary hospital among the suffering people.

And still the pleasant life of the foreign residents in Yokohama goes on much as it did nine years ago; men-of-war of many nations lie at ease in the beautiful harbor, now smooth and unruffled behind its superb new breakwater, and astronomers of several nations are on their way to lie in wait for the shadow of the moon when it rushes across the Hokkaido on the 9th of August. Once more will our satellite circle around us in her celestial pathway before she slips quietly in between us and the sun to shut off his light in Yezo for two precious minutes and a half.

A new system of meteorological observations made before an eclipse and with special reference to it was inaugurated for that of 1893. Taking the exact track as soon as published in the Nautical Almanac, and having careful observations made at the best and most accessible points, gave excellent results on that occasion. As the Ephemeris is issued about four years in advance, this insures three complete series before an eclipse. Noting the general meteorological conditions of the heavens is not sufficient, for the sun is in a particular part of the sky at a given hour, so the observations must be of a special character, and with distinct reference to the position of the sun, season of the year, and hour of the day when the eclipse takes place. The tabulation of this information assists greatly in selecting the best stations for eclipse-observation, and those who followed the "indications" as to clearness of sky in 1893 achieved the best results.

In that year Prof. Todd wrote to the Director of the Imperial Japanese Weather Service, requesting observations similar to those he had obtained for 1893 at different points in the Hokkaido, and his suggestions have been carried out in every particular. Prof. Nakamura, Director of the Central Meteorological Observatory at Tokyo, has had printed and distributed to the different legations a pamphlet for the information of eclipse students, containing not only all the observations referred to, but a sufficiently minute discussion of them to enable all the astronomers to weigh most intelligently the probable chances of clear skies at every available point in the path of totality. The establishment of any station is thus made with full knowledge of whether it is best or worst in probable clearness; and if obliged to plant himself in some less hopeful location, the intending observer takes his own risks, with eyes wide open to the law of probabilities.

The three provinces of Yezo in which the shadow falls are Kushiro, Kitami, and Nemuro, each containing several towns, most of them, however, small and but little known to foreigners. Tri daily observations were made from July 25 to August 25 during three years, at two o'clock, half after two, and at three o'clock, at a number of these villages in the eclipse track, the results being carefully compared and comparative tables shown. From the percentage of cloud at the observation hour itself, Akkeshi, on the southeast coast, comes first in probabilities of clearness, and Esashi, on the northeast coast, second; but from the point of its constancy thirty minutes before and after the eclipse, Esashi presides over all the others, as shown by the full tables given for thirty-two days at seven towns. The selection of a station always involves much care and forethought, and responsibility enough to whiten the hair of any one except a philosophic astronomer, accustomed to take chances with nature. The probabilities at Esashi are considerably more than half in favor of clearness and, after studying the reports and tables carefully and consulting with the meteorologists here, Prof. Todd finally selected that as his observing station, although it is farther and more difficult of access than Akkeshi, of which he had thought for a time as a probable location. But the Imperial Government has been most courteous to the Expedition, affording every facility possible, which included, with a truly royal generosity, requests to both railroad and steamer corporations for free transportation for the whole party and the instruments to any point they might select, and many other favors without which our comfort and convenience would have been much less in every way.

The interest of astronomers in this eclipse is shown by the large number assembled here for its observation—French, English, American, Japanese, and perhaps others. Already, a little less than six weeks before the important day, most of the parties have already started upon their northward way. France is represented by M. Henri Deslandres of the Paris Observatory, who is accompanied by M. Millochau and the brothers Mittau. He left Yokohama July 1st in the French warship *Alger* for Esashi. Prof. Schaeberle, head of the Lick Observatory expedition, has also started for Yezo, and will station himself at Akkeshi with his party, consisting of Mr. Burckhalter of the Chabot Observatory at Oakland, Mr. Maston, and Dr. Shuey. Prof. Terao, Director of the Tokyo Observatory, will be at Esashi; and the Astronomer Royal of England, Mr. Christie, with two assistants, is expected very soon.

Prof. Todd left Yokohama for Esashi on July 1, with his principal assistants, and about five days will be occupied in the journey. Others of the party will proceed thither after two or three weeks. With special steamers and men-of-war on the sea and the several cheerful eclipse camps on shore, the northern side of Yezo will see a surprising summer, and the innocent Ainu will probably date future history from this peaceful invasion of the foreigner. But it is a happy thing that some spots are still left on this fair earth where modern enterprise and cosmopolitan life can still afford astonishment. Yokohama is far less Japanese than it was a few years ago. More English is spoken, higher prices for simple things prevail, and jinrikisha men and sampan coolies show possibilities of brotherhood with the New York and London cabman. Japan is obviously prosperous and very happy. But I have heard seven Japanese babies crying since I came to this lovely land, and at a delightful tea-house entertainment the other evening no painted lanterns swung in the breeze, but electric lights flashed forth from a bronze chandelier. MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

MARSHAL CASTELLANE.—II.

PARIS, July 17, 1896.

ON the 1st of January, 1813, Castellane was in Paris, "much surprised at his making visits on that day, when a month before he had found himself shoeless on the banks of the Niemen." He received his appointment as Colonel; nine years before he was a private, but, as he says, under Napoleon one had only to live to attain the highest rank. Napoleon was organizing new forces and preparing for a new campaign; he received on the 24th of January at the Tuileries the officers of the national guard of Paris, announced to them that he left in their protection the Empress and the King of Rome, that the enemy had offered him humiliating terms which he could not accept. "General Hullin, the Adjutant Laborde. Regnault de St.-Jean d'Angély, the Chamberlains Marmier, Janson, and others wept. Mme. de Marmier, who accompanied the Empress, fainted away. In the evening the household of the Emperor took the oath to the Empress, the new Regent." Castellane gives us day by day notes on the campaign of 1814, brief, but none the less eloquent. It is clear that he could hardly bear to enter into details on the terrible events which marked this year 1814. The notes become shorter and shorter as the end approaches: "March 18th. The Emperor is at Fère-Champenoise.—20th. The Emperor is at Arcis-sur-Aube.—25th. The Allies occupy Château-Thierry, La Ferté-Milon, and Soissons." On the 5th of April Castellane's regiment received orders to return from Tours to Versailles. It had not been engaged in the military operations in the East of France. On the 9th of April Castellane goes to Paris to secure the adhesion of his corps to a provisory government, composed of Talleyrand, Jaucourt, the Abbé de Montesquiou, the Duke of Dalberg, and General Beurnonville. "The sight of foreigners in the

capital," he says, "makes me ill. They told me at Talleyrand's, who is the sovereign *ad interim*, that I must leave off my tricolor cockade. I know no other; it made me angry. They pointed out to me that the marshals now wear white cockades. I submitted grumbling, but twenty-four hours afterwards my cockade left my calpac."

Castellane belonged, by birth, to the world of the émigrés, who were returning to the surface; but he had entered the army at eighteen, had followed the Emperor on many battlefields, and was a soldier *par excellence*. He had won every grade by hard work, and he was dissatisfied when "many men who never served are appointed lieutenants in the King's household. . . . Many people think now that the military career will be less fatiguing, less dangerous; they feel a surprising zeal for it." Castellane says in a note that if he had asked for promotion at this time, he could have been made *maréchal de camp* (the equivalent of brigadier-general). "I would not do it," says he, "as I was exasperated by all the grades bestowed by Louis XVIII. on his household troops, among which I saw improvised colonels who had never seen any service, and who thought no more of the Bourbons than we ourselves before their arrival. We knew nothing of the Bourbons, except that under the old régime the sovereigns bore that name; but these faithful servants were walking in the Bois de Boulogne while we were fighting."

Castellane's anger against the Duke de Berry was intense. The Duke was reorganizing the army and filling it with émigrés. "He is very obstinate, very rude; he thinks he can ape the Emperor (who was rude only when he thought it politic to be so). This does not give him the talent of Napoleon. . . . It is impossible to find a more stupid prince; he is mad, furiously mad—the Duke de Berry struck Meyronnet of the First Chasseurs with his sword. He called Colonel Robert and Major Villate d——d rogues, General Mensian a fat pig, etc." Castellane adds: "The Duke d'Orléans makes himself beloved by his politeness, his good manners; he is witty and well instructed." We can see in these notes the cause of the great unpopularity of the Bourbons in the army. "It is enough now to have done nothing for twenty years to obtain high grades. The reason given is that, if it had not been for the Revolution, these gentlemen would be *maréchaux de camp*, lieutenant-generals; but, if they had made war, they would not be so numerous! They complain of the bad spirit of the army. I think myself that the army is very patient to bear such things; if liberty of the press existed, such appointments could not be made; they would be exposed in all the papers."

When Napoleon returned from Elba, Castellane left Paris to join his regiment, the First Hussars. "I met at Meaux the First Lancers; the soldiers were anxious to see the Emperor Napoleon. They said openly: 'It was wrong to send us against him; we will join him.' Many soldiers showed their tricolor cockade concealed under the white cockade. They said: 'The weather is favorable for violets.' After a little while they called the Emperor 'Père la Violette.'" The Duke de Berry did not even attempt resistance in Paris, and left with the King for Lisle. Castellane learned on his way that his regiment, the First Hussars, had adopted the tricolor cockade at Metz. He returned to Paris. "From the 30th of March," says Castellane, "to the 1st of July, 1815, I took only a few notes in a pocket-book; very curious things are thus omitted." We must regret it, but we understand it.

Castellane was not a psychologist, an analyzer of human feelings, but it is easy to gather that his feelings were very mixed during the eventful period of which he speaks. He was quite unable to describe the conflicting emotions of his own heart, but we can, even at this distance, understand his perplexities. He had fought on the personal staff of the greatest military genius of our time. He had approached Napoleon familiarly, he had lived in the nimbus of those rays which had spread all over the universe. At the same time, he was quite shrewd and practical enough to see that all was lost for Napoleon, that the world was against him. He belonged by birth to a caste which was preparing to recover all it had lost, under a restored monarchy; he was a man of the world as well as a soldier, and he saw his best friends and relatives all ready to make room for him in the new order of things. He shared somewhat the views which Napoleon had on the subject of the Faubourg St.-Germain: "I offered them places in my army," said the Emperor; "they refused them. I offered them places in my anterooms; they all wanted them"—a rather exaggerated and unjust view, as Napoleon had on his own staff several distinguished officers, belonging, like Castellane, to the Faubourg St.-Germain. Still, the citations I have made from Castellane show how severely he judged the Bourbons in their relations with the army. In the conflict of his passions, Castellane had, fortunately, an unerring guide, the discipline of the army. This respect for discipline was his guide during all his lifetime; it was, with him, a sort of religion. He took no part in the last campaign of Napoleon; he remained with his family and nourished no illusions as to the end. On May 1, 1815, he writes: "The Government of the Emperor Napoleon is making great strides towards a fatal issue. Public opinion is against it. Desertion is considerable in the army. Except Champagne, Alsace, Franche-Comté, Lyons, Dauphiné, Lorraine, and a part of Burgundy, France refuses to move. La Vendée is on the point of revolting. Flanders and Picardy, on the point of being invaded, show no energy against the foreigners."

Castellane notes several times that Napoleon, though he had gone through the form of convoking a chamber, was now obliged to lean chiefly on the populace. "The Emperor has held a review, in the Place du Carrousel, of the faubourgs St.-Antoine and St.-Marceau. The spectacle was at the same time pitiful and laughable. This mob, mostly literally *sans culottes*, screamed, 'Vive l'Empereur! Down with the nobles! Down with the priests!'" After Waterloo, the note is very short: "We hear the news of the loss of the battle of Mont-Saint-Jean, called Waterloo by the Allies, on the 18th of June. The *matériel* of the artillery—the reserve park, the forage carts, the carriages—is in the hands of the enemy. The disorder was such that it was no longer possible to recognize a regiment. The Imperial Guard has been crushed; the rout was complete."

Castellane had to lodge twenty-five English soldiers in his house. "Their conduct is perfect," he says; "they pay for all they ask for. People compete for the English; they avoid, as much as they can, having Prussians, as these insist on being fed at the expense of their hosts." Castellane's father was president of the electoral college of the Basses-Pyrénées, and, before starting for the new elections, received his instructions from Prince Talleyrand, who told him that the ministry wished for Constitutionalists; that he did not conceal this fact, nay, was ready to proclaim it from the housetops. He begged him to "avoid electing pure Royalists as much as and more than Jacobins." These pure Royalists, sometimes called Ultras, headed by the Count d'Artois, wished to give the King an unlimited prerogative, and abhorred the Constitution. Talleyrand had succeeded in keeping the Princes from having a place in the King's Council. The Count d'Artois said to him: "Well, we have no thanks to offer *you*; you have put us out of the Council." The Prime Minister answered merely: "Monsieur will thank me for it when he is King."

Castellane expresses in his notes humane and creditable sentiments with regard to the condemnation and execution of Marshal Ney, the condemnation of Lavalette, etc. "Party spirit creates unexampled cruelty in the ranks of the ultra-Royalists. It is horrible to find in the world ladies of mild appearance speaking in favor of capital punishment, and complaining that there is not enough of it."

Castellane became, toward the end of 1815, an habitual visitor at the house of Talleyrand, where all the diplomatic society met every night. How could Talleyrand's health resist the life he led? "People arrived only towards one o'clock in the morning and stayed till four or five. This was the period of my life when I played most at cards and for the largest sums. M. de Metternich won much money from me at *creps*. Talleyrand used to throw the dice with the imperturbable tranquillity which never deserted him. The old Countess Tyokiewicz, sister of Prince Poniatowski, always, in her admiration for Prince Talleyrand, consoled herself for the loss of her money by the happiness of playing with him."

Meanwhile, Castellane had to form a new regiment of hussars, and took his recruits chiefly from Alsace and Lorraine; "the best men," he says, "for hussars." The regiment was formed at Provins and quartered at Soissons, and afterwards at Chartres. Castellane was able to spend much time in Paris, and he gives us many anecdotes on society during the years which followed the Restoration. His journal in these years savors a little too much of gossip, and I do not find much in it worth noticing.

In 1822 Castellane received his appointment as commander of Hussars of the Royal Guards. "Louis XVIII.," he says, "wrote my name with his own hand on the *ordonnance*—a thing he never does—adding: 'As for this one, people will not cry out; he has well deserved it.'" He parted with some regret from his pet regiment, the Fifth Hussars, which he had formed and disciplined. When the Spanish intervention was decided on, he hoped to be sent on active service to Spain; the regiments of the Guards drew lots for the occasion, and his regiment was not favored. So he remained in Paris while the bloodless expedition took place—an expedition very different in character from the war which Castellane had seen in his youth in the Peninsula. On his return, Oudinot said to him: "Console yourself for not having been in the army; I have not done any more than yourself."

Correspondence.

A GOLD STANDARD TICKET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Now that the Populistic portion of the

Democratic party has put in nomination for the Presidency a typical Populist, I think it is time the gold-standard Democrats were deciding whether they will put in the field a Presidential ticket. For one I am very strongly in favor of a ticket which shall truly represent the gold-standard sentiment of the country. I know there may seem to be danger of so dividing the gold vote as to allow Bryan to be elected; but I believe there are many Democrats who will refuse to vote for McKinley because they do not believe that he would be an obstacle to any iniquitous silver legislation which Congress might pass. It is so difficult to foretell the course of the campaign on the part of the Republicans, and it is so uncertain as to which they desire most, sound money or a high tariff, that I believe we ought to make sure of a rallying-point for the sound-money sentiment of the country. Many of the Republican papers are saying that before November the financial question will sink into insignificance and the tariff assume its rightful position of priority. So far as I am personally concerned, McKinley is to me one of the most objectionable men in the Republican party, on account of his protection principles and the narrowness of his mind. But I could subordinate personal feelings if I could be sure that he would stand as firmly against the silver lunacy as did Grant, Hayes, and Cleveland. This I do not believe, for I think there can be no doubt that, at heart, McKinley is at least a bimetallist, and that he will sign whatever bill Congress may pass. I never have seen in him any sign of firmness of character.

I do earnestly hope that those Democrats who have the ability and the influence necessary to carry through such a movement will start it at once. THEODORE ALVORD.

SANDUSKY, O., July 20, 1896.

GOVERNOR RUSSELL'S PROPHECY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Four years ago ex-Gov. William E. Russell, speaking in a manufacturing centre upon tariff reform to an audience largely composed of Republican protectionists, said:

"You are asking Government by law to add to your wealth and prosperity; to tax the people to give you profit; to burden them to make you rich. If she can do this for you, she can and must for any class who, by influence or corruption, can control her legislation. Take care. You are sowing the wind; you will reap the whirlwind. What will you say to the silver mine-owner who demands that Government by force shall add value to his product? What to the farmer who demands that Government shall take under its fostering care his grain and his cotton, and bank upon his crop? There is no answer to this question if Republican protection is a sound and safe principle."

The fulfilment of Governor Russell's prophecy seems dangerously near at hand. The wind has been sown, and now we are on the threshold of reaping the whirlwind. So dangerous seems the outlook that Republican protectionists are in desperation calling upon patriotic Democrats to help save the country from the wrath of the storm. And this in spite of the fact that the mine-owners are only asking what the Republican party has for the last ten years been vigorously protesting the manufacturer should have. If the Government is to make a market for the products of the manufacturer, there is no earthly reason why it should not do the same for the mine-owner, the farmer, and every other producer. If McKinley's theory of protection is right, Bryan's theory of free silver is right, and the many vagaries of the Populists are also worthy of consideration. They are all of a kind.

Evidently the Government ought to go out of the market making business entirely. This can probably not be done immediately, but, if we wish to prosper and not have our prosperity threatened by periodic revolutions and panics, we must have such an end in view, and patriotic citizens and a patriotic press ought to labor incessantly until such an end is attained. If protection is again fastened about our necks, free silver will surely follow, and the farmers and the laborers will also be heard from, and our destruction will be complete. We shall have sown the wind, and the whirlwind we shall surely reap. C. J. ALBERT.

ELMHURST, ILL., July 20, 1896.

THE COWARDICE OF HIS CONVICTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Not long since I had occasion to call at a bank which does a large business in one of the agricultural and mining districts of the West. Naturally the conversation turned upon the financial situation, and the president of the bank, as though it were the only attitude possible for a thinking business man, expressed himself in favor of the gold-standard as essential to our national credit and general prosperity. As I was about to leave, I noticed a pile of silver literature upon the counter, whereupon he said, with a meaning smile, "That is for distribution among my customers."

The bank president referred to holds an important State office and has further political aspirations. His customers, many of whom are interested in silver mines, and nearly all of whom are disciples of Teller, Tillman, and their ilk, must be humored or he will lose their votes; so he holds back what he believes to be the truth, and deliberately feeds his customers upon the false, meanwhile laughing at their gullibility. Thus does Bryan's popularity grow in the silver States.

A WESTERN GOLD BUG.

JULY 20, 1896.

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The quotation from Chateaubriand, communicated by Mr. Kuhns in the *Nation* of July 2, does indeed show that the idea of international arbitration is not new. If, however, we substitute a single arbitrator for a court of arbitration, we shall find the idea to be still older. *Cf.* Isaiah ii., 4 and Micah iv., 3, according to the rendering of the "American Committee" in the Revised Version. Moreover, these passages are the original from which our new wisdom is derived. All credit to these Hebrew prophets of old!

Yours truly, W. WILLNER.

MERIDIAN, MISS., July 17, 1896.

BRADDOCK'S DEFEAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the appendix of Winthrop Sargent's 'History of the Expedition to Fort Duquesne' are printed three French accounts of Braddock's defeat, and in No. 13 of J. G. Shea's "Cramoisy Series" several other French "Relations Diverses" on the same subject are given; but, so far as I have been able to discover, a French account recently procured in Paris has escaped not merely the attention of these two editors, but of Parkman and Winsor as well. It is a four-page quarto leaflet, with the lined heading given below. Judged from its wording, it must have been the earliest account printed in France, and the writer seems to have extracted part of it from some English version. It is remarkable also as being the only French narrative that names Washington or describes his part in the defeat, which it does with high praise. Thinking this alone sufficient to make it of importance, I copy the portion which deals with the actual battle. PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

Relation | De la Victoire remportée par les François, sur un Corps | de Troupes Angloises, commandé par le Général Braddock, | près l'Ohio dans l'Amérique septentrionale. |

Le Général Braddock vint camper dans les premiers jours du mois de Juillet au petit Meadows, en deçà du Fort de Cumberland à Wills-Chreck, avec son Corps d'Armée composé de deux mille Hommes, & avec l'Artillerie, les Bagages & les Munitions. Pour profiter de l'ardeur que marquoient les Troupes, il jugea ne devoir pas différer de marcher aux François qui avoient leurs forces rassemblées au Fort du Quesne Il s'avança vers eux avec 1200 hommes & dix pièces de canon, & laissa le reste au petit Meadows sous les ordres du Colonel Dumbar, qu'il chargea de venir le joindre aussi promptement qu'il lui seroit possible. Après avoir campé le 8 Juillet à dix milles de distance du Fort du Quesne, il se remit en marche le 9. pour s'avancer à ce Fort, en débouchant par un Bois qu'il étoit obligé de traverser, ses Troupes furent attaquées avec beaucoup de furie par des Détachemens de François & d'Indiens postés en embuscade sur des collines qui bordoient la liziere du Bois, & d'où ils fondirent avec tant d'impétuosité sur les colonnes qui exécutoient le débouchement, que la confusion se mit parmi les Troupes, nonobstant tous les efforts que le Général Braddock & tous les Officiers firent pour les rallier, deux des Régimens du Corps envoyés d'Irlande, qui lâcherent pied dès le commencement de l'attaque augmenterent le désordre, & précipiterent la déroute qui fut telle que les Officiers abandonnés de leurs Soldats se virent exposés seuls au feu de l'ennemi. Le Général Braddock qui se porta de tous côtés avec une activité des plus grandes, & qui eut cinq Chevaux tués sous lieu, reçut à travers le bras & la poitrine un coup de feu, que le mit hors de combat. Le Chevalier Pierre Halkette Colonel, qui le seconda avec beaucoup de bravoure, fut tué sur le Champ de Bataille, où près de soixante Officiers furent tués ou blessés; au milieu des efforts qu'ils faisoient pour ramener les Fuyards, le Colonel Washington se distingua encore dans cette occasion d'une maniere qui lui a mérité de grands éloges. Les débris de ce Corps d'Armée se retirerent à Wills-Creck auprès du Colonel Dumbar, obligés par la précipitation de leur Retraite d'abandonner Artillerie, Bagages, Tentes & Munitions qui tomberent entre les mains de l'Ennemi. Le Général Braddock transporté à Wuills-Creck y mourut le 13 de ses blessures, Messieurs Robert Orme & Roget Morris, ses Aydes de Camps, ont été blessés; M. Guillaume Chirley, Sécrétaire des Guerres dans ce Corps de Troupes, & fils du Gouverneur de la Virginie, a été tué; le Chevalier Jean Saint Clair second Quartier-Maître Général, & M. Mathieu Lecaley Assistant du Quartier-Maître Général, tous deux blessés; du Régiment de Halkette, dont le Colonel est resté mort sur le Champ de Bataille, M. Gage qui en est Lieutenant Colonel a été blessé, & deux Capitaines tués, des Subalternes du même Régiment il y a eu deux Lieutenans & deux autres Officiers tués, & huit Lieutenans ou autres Officiers blessés; du Régiment de Dumbar, M. Button Lieutenant Colonel, & M. Sparkes Major ont été blessés, le Capitaine Cholmeley tué, & les Capitaines Brouvrer & Noss blessés; des Officiers subalternes de ce Régiment, il y en a eu cinq de tués & huit de blessés; du Corps d'Artillerie, le Capitaine-Lieutenant Smith a été tué, & trois Lieutenans blessés; du Corps des Ingénieurs, trois Officiers blessés; du Détachement de la Marine, deux Officiers tués; du Corps des Volontaires, le Capitaine Stone du Régiment de Warbutton blessé; des

Compagnies indépendantes de la Nouvelle-York, le Capitaine Gates blessé, un Lieutenant tué, & deux autres Lieutenans blessés; des Troupes de la Virginie, le Capitaine Stephens blessé, & les Capitaines Poulston & Peronie tués, outre quatre Officiers subalternes tués & un blessé. On ignore à combien monte la perte des François, qui va à très-peu de chose; & nous aurions peut-être gagné, si les Troupes d'Irlande avoient tenu ferme.

Après que les débris ont été rassemblés à Wills-Creek, le Colonel Dumbar, & le Colonel Washington sont marchés avec les Troupes au Fort de Cumberland, d'où les derniers avis qui sont du 19 Juillet marquent qu'elles y étoient retranchées, qu'il ne s'étoit rien passé de nouveau dans l'intervale de ces onze jours. Que la nuit du dix-huit au dix-neuf on avoit été informé de quelques nouveaux mouvemens des François du côté de Monongehela; mais que comme on attendoit des Renforts au Camp, il y avoit lieu d'espérer que l'on seroit en état de leur tenir tête, au cas qu'ils revinssent à la charge. Si les rapports qu'on a eu des Indiens sont justes, le Corps des François avant l'action étoit supérieur en nombre, & montoit à 1100 hommes de Troupes réglées, soutenu de 600 Indiens. Leur perte, disent encore ceux-ci, n'a pas été bien forte par la furie avec laquelle les Américains répondirent aux premiers efforts des Assaillans; mais tout ce qui se publie à cet égard n'est que vague; & l'on n'attend par des Avis ultérieurs des détails plus exacts de ce Combat, & des suites qu'aura eue cette fatale ouverture de Campagne.

IS ESTHER WAKE A MYTH?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Joseph Seawell Jones, in his 'Defence of North Carolina,' states that the appropriation for Governor Tryon's costly "palace" was secured largely by the fascinations of the beautiful sister of "Lady" Tryon, Esther Wake, and that the county of Wake, in which is the capital, was named in her honor. Most of the old inhabitants of New Berne, which was, under Tryon, the seat of government, think that this tradition is true. On the other hand, William Gaston, a citizen of New Berne, one of the ablest judges of the Supreme Court our State has had, believed that there was no such person. He stated that he had often talked with his mother about the Tryon household, with whom she was well acquainted, and that she never mentioned Miss Esther.

A New Berne tradition in regard to her seems to negative the story of her influencing the votes of colonial legislators. This is, that "Lady" Tryon taught her sister an erect carriage by fastening a pointed stick under her chin. The subject of such heroic persuasion to good manners could hardly have been a persuader of men.

The present head of the house of Tryon, Richard Tryon, Esq., and the head of the house of Wake, Sir Hereward Wake, a descendant of Hereward the Wake of the time of William the Conqueror, have been applied to for information, but neither is able to furnish any. It occurs to me that if "Lady" Tryon had a sister with her in North Carolina, they must have been together in New York when Governor Tryon was transferred to that State. If so, it seems probable that some of the old families of your city may have contemporaneous letters describing the members of the gubernatorial household, which may throw light on the interesting question that forms the heading of this letter.

Truly yours, Kemp P. Battle.

Chapel Hill, N. C., July 23, 1896.

Notes.

In our late review of Stevenson's 'Vailima Letters,' the present publishers, Messrs. Scribner, should have been designated; they having, since the appearance of the work, acquired the rights to it, as well as to 'The Amateur Emigrant' and 'Macaire,' of Messrs. Stone & Kimball.

Macmillan Co. will shortly bring out 'An Introduction to the History of the Church of England, from the Earliest Times to the Present Day,' by Henry O. Wakeman.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'The Child-Life: A Primary Reading and Education Chart,' by Mary E. Burt.

'Bushy,' a romance by Cynthia M. Westover, is in the press of the Morse Co.

Miss Georgiana L. Morrill, who took her degree as Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Heidelberg this spring, was the first American woman to receive the degree at that university. Her edition of the important Middle English poem, 'Speculum Gy de Warwik,' will soon be issued by the Early English Text Society.

Pope's 'Rape of the Lock,' "embroidered with nine drawings by Aubrey Beardsley" (London: Leonard Smithers; Philadelphia: Lippincott), will take its place among all handsomely printed books, on the one hand, and on the other among historical curiosities of art. The poem has lent its full share to our stock of familiar quotations; were it otherwise, Mr. Beardsley would hardly serve as mediator between Pope's time and the present day. He has, however, subordinated his grotesque fancy to his duty as illustrator, and shows here his best manner of design and composition.

The versatile banker and member of Parliament, Sir John Lubbock, well known for his observations on flowers and insects, now surprises us with a most attractive volume on the 'Scenery of Switzerland' (New York: Macmillan), a subject to which he has been giving his attention in vacations for thirty years past. It is of somewhat the same order as the 'Beauties of Nature,' published a few years ago, but is more systematic and thorough, being directed to the explanation of the physical features of a single region. Less technical than Fraas's 'Scenerie der Alpen,' it is in all respects a most admirable book for the intelligent reader, indicating not only a thorough acquaintance with the subject, but also a sympathy with nature that must do more good than the great array of facts so compactly presented. With Baedeker as a guide and this book as a friend, Switzerland will be even more delightful than ever before.

'From Cairo to the Soudan Frontier' (London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams), by H. D. Traill, is a series of detached sketches of scenes and incidents of two recent visits to Egypt. They are varied in character, humorous, historical, imaginative, and descriptive, now giving the impressions made by the great hall of the temple of Karnak or a sunset on the Nile, now picturing the Christmas sports of the British soldier or the multifarious methods of the fellah for extracting bakshish. When the author has little to tell he indulges in a turgid style, known as "Telegraphese," after the paper for which the sketches were written; at other times he shows a keen appreciation of the fascination of Egypt, and enters fully into the spirit of both its ancient and its modern life, and then writes clearly and graphically. The sketches of greatest present interest are those describing visits to a Nubian village which was raided last December by the Dervishes, and the frontier post of Wady Halfa on the eve of the departure of the Anglo-Egyptian expedition for the Sudan.

The great undertaking of Dr. Giuseppe Pitrè to which we have so often referred in these columns, the "Biblioteca delle Tradizioni Popolari Siciliane," is drawing to a close. The nineteenth volume, 'Medicina Popolare Siciliana,' has recently appeared from the press of Carlo Clausen (Turin and Palermo). The preceding volumes have been of more general interest, perhaps, but none surpasses in value the present one. The collector is peculiarly fitted for the difficult task imposed by this division of his work, having been a practising physician in Palermo for thirty years. The work is divided into five parts: the first treats of the medical practitioners of Sicily, quacks, barbers, herbalists, etc.; the second, of anatomy, physiology, physiognomy, and hygiene; the third, of general pathology; the fourth, of special external medical and surgical pathology; and the fifth, of special internal pathology. This list gives no idea of the varied contents of the work and its wealth of proverbs and popular superstitions. The whole island has been ransacked to furnish materials, and a bibliographical note at the end mentions, for the benefit of those who wish to institute comparisons, the similar works published in other parts of Italy. An appendix contains the rude images of the saints most commonly invoked in Sicily by the sick, who carry them about with them or apply them to the diseased organs. Among these saints the reader of Dante will be interested to find Santa Lucia, who is the protectress of eyes as well as the patron saint of Syracuse. An excellent index facilitates reference to the manifold contents of the work, which contains countless points of similarity to the medical superstitions of other nations.

Students of finance will be glad to learn that Léon Say had completed before his death a work on the revenues and expenditures of the French Republic, which is now published in the *Vie Nationale* Series under the title 'Les Finances' (Paris: Léon Chailley). The subject is too technical to deal with here, but we cannot resist transcribing a few lines from the tribute paid by the editors of the series to the distinguished author, who devoted his last moments to the completion of this work. They say: "C'est ici comme le testament politique du meilleur ministre des finances de ce temps; de celui qui, pour les collaborateurs de tout rang qui l'avait vu à l'œuvre, et qui avaient connu tant d'autres chefs après lui, était resté le ministre par excellence; du seul, assurément, qui puisse être comparé aux grands ministres d'autrefois."

'La Société Américaine,' by Mlle. M. Dugard (Paris: Hachette), is the outcome of the visit paid by this accomplished woman to the United States at the time of the Chicago Exposition. Mlle. Dugard, who is a professor in the Lycée Molière at Paris, came here with the special purpose of studying educational establishments, and this in no perfunctory manner. She went to work in earnest, visited schools and colleges, questioned presidents, principals, professors, and teachers, studied programmes and delved into reports, attended classes and lectures, familiarized herself with the taught as well as the teachers, put aside prejudices, prepossessions, and misconceptions, and honestly tried to see things in this country as they are. Now she tells, in this interesting book of hers, the result of her labors, investigations, and experience. She gives infinitely more facts than impressions, aims at being exact rather than witty, and consequently

presents a truer and more thorough picture than any other we have had shown us for some time. Mlle. Dugard writes easily, intelligently, and pleasantly, and her book will command the attention of thinking readers here and in France.

Teodor de Wyzewa, whose articles are now well known to readers of the *Revue Bleue*, has published a volume of somewhat brief studies of 'Écrivains Étrangers' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.). The chapters on De Quincy, Edgar Allan Poe, and Walt Whitman are some of the more interesting. That on Whitman is almost enthusiastic, and he is called the only American writer worthy of the name of poet in recent years.

In a large thick octavo, with some admirable illustrations, 'Chateaubriand, sa Femme et ses Amis' (Bordeaux: Feret & Fils), M. G. Pailhès makes a noteworthy contribution to the literature of the Romantic movement in France which is inseparably associated with the name of Chateaubriand. M. Pailhès has had access to much unpublished matter, a large portion of which is valuable as casting additional light on the character and ways of the great Frenchman. He has composed a most interesting book, which must henceforth be consulted by all students of French literature at the beginning of this century.

Léo Claretie's 'Jean-Jacques Rousseau et ses Amies' (Paris: Chailley) is useful to students of Rousseau's works, inasmuch as it gives very full accounts of the different women whose influence made itself felt by turns upon the misanthrope. It is on Mme. d'Houdetot that M. Claretie has bestowed the greater part of his attention. His short account of Thérèse Levasseur is not very sympathetic.

A remarkable feature of the current proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society (2d series, volume x.) is the inclusion of a memoir of the society's late president, Rev. George E. Ellis, by the Rev. O. B. Frothingham, followed by one of Mr. Frothingham himself. The volume contains numerous papers of value, some of which we have already commented on in advance of publication, thanks to "offprints": such are Mr. Wm. S. Appleton's tabular "Century of the Senate of the United States," Mr. J. T. Hassam's list of confiscated estates of Boston Loyalists, and Mr. Edward L. Pierce's extracts from the Diary of John Rowe, this same writer contributing also a very salutary admonition about "Recollections as a Source of History." The chief plum of the inedited matter is beyond question the private letters of John Quincy Adams during his residence at St. Petersburg as United States Minister in the closing years of Napoleon's duel with Europe, and while the war of 1812 was in progress. They are characteristic of Adams's judgment and penetration, and fit in well with the present revival of interest in the great military genius who, in Adams's words, "will be ranged, not among the Alexanders, Cæsars, and Charlemains, but among the Hannibals, Pompeys, and Charles the 12ths." We detect a plausible typographical error on p. 379, eleventh line from bottom. "Little man" (as if Napoleon) should read "little men," and the comma deleted that separates "little men" and "little means" "by which the great powers and resources of England are wasted in this contest."

The Report of the Sixth International Geographical Congress, held in London in 1895, has lately been issued by the Secretaries, Keltie and Mill, in a large volume of nearly a thousand pages (London: Murray). The papers are printed in the language in which they were delivered at the Congress, and afford a pleasing polyglot exercise in the reading. Among many interesting items, a few may be mentioned: the map showing the numerous triangulation belts in the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India; Buchanan's retrospect of oceanography; the announcement by Lallemand, director of the French service of general levellings, that the Mediterranean and the Atlantic are, after all that has been said, really at the same level; Libbey's account of the Gulf Stream and the Labrador current; Penck's essay on geomorphological nomenclature, and several essays on the educational aspect of geography by Levasseur, Lehmann, Herbertson, and Henkel. Discussions on the polar regions, the habitability of Africa by white races, and other standard geographical subjects are duly represented. The resolutions adopted by the Congress are printed in full (pp. 779-787).

The principal article of the *Geographical Journal* for July is an admirable account of the Pamirs by the Right Hon. Geo. N. Curzon. It is largely descriptive of a journey to this region in 1894, and gives a clear idea of the Pamir, which is "neither a plain nor a down, nor a steppe, nor a plateau, but a mountain valley of glacial formation." The meaning and derivation of the word he regards as uncertain, notwithstanding the numerous theories of the philologists. The Pamirs are eight in number, and vary in length from ten to eighty miles, in width from one to six miles. Considerable space is devoted to a description of the *Ovis Poli*, which Mr. Curzon fears is in danger of extermination by British sportsmen, and to a discussion of the claims of a stream issuing from an ice-cavern in the Wakhan Pamir to be regarded as the true source of the Oxus. A fine map of this part of Central Asia accompanies the paper.

We read in the *American Amateur Photographer* for July of a collection, long in forming, but not yet exhibited, in the National Museum at Washington, "illustrating the history and methods of the art of photography." Some fifty prints were bought at the Washington Salon of the present season, and it is intended to keep the collection abreast of the development of the photographic art.

A correspondent writes to us from "Oxbow," Newbury, Vermont: "I have just noticed your letter from Mr. Albert Matthews about the word Oxbow. Here both the bend in the river and the land enclosed are spoken of as the Oxbow, and also the little settlement of five houses and a number of farms. For over a hundred years 'Oxbow mail,' 'Oxbow people,' etc., have been spoken of. The town is, however, Newbury, not 'Newburg,' as Mr. Matthews has it [a typographical error]."

—The latest volume of the Mermaid Series of Plays, "The Best Plays of the Old Dramatists" (London: Unwin; New York: Scribners), contains Sir John Vanbrugh's "Relapse," "Provoked Wife," "The Confederacy," and "Journey to London." None of them have held the stage, but this is not because they have no inherent principle of vitality. If the "Relapse" or "Virtue in Danger" could be acted now, we venture to say that it would draw a great crowd. *Miss Hoyden*, the heiress, daughter of *Sir Tunbelly*, is a capital character, and the scene between her and her nurse would send any audience into shouts of laughter. The difficulty is that no manager would dare to put it on the stage, and if any so bold could be found, the police would never allow a second performance—and this though the author assures us that any lady will find it so innocent that she will be quite ready to put it on the same shelf with her prayer-book. What was the idea of the contemporaries of Sir John on the subject of propriety? It has often been pointed out that what we call coarseness was not coarse to them; but no one, so far as we know, has made any thorough investigation into what did offend their sense of decency. Garrick, acting *Sir John Brute*, is said to have changed the disguise in the drunken scene from that of a clergyman to that of a woman of the town, "to suit the delicacy of the time." If he were acting to-day he would have to go back to the clergyman. The editor's notes are good, and Leigh Hunt's biographical notice is included. Vanbrugh's plays seem to have brought him more fame than his architecture, as to which, unfortunately, the only thing that most persons recollect is

> "Lie heavy on him, Earth, for he
> Laid many a heavy load on thee."

He was the architect of Blenheim, of which every illustrated paper in the world has lately had cuts, and his employment led to no end of trouble for him. Parliament neglected to supply the money to build it, the Duke of Marlborough protested it was no concern of his, the Duchess, after his death, tried to fasten some of the expense on Vanbrugh himself, and behaved in such a way that he expressed the opinion to his friend Tonson that she ought to be hanged. Blenheim was lampooned by Pope:

> "Thanks, sir, said I, 'tis very fine,
> But where d'ye sleep, or where d'ye dine?"

Indeed, almost everything that Vanbrugh built seems to have been pronounced fine and laughed at at the same time. The reason for this his critics do not make clear.

—Under the title 'Old French Romances' (Scribners), Mr. William Morris has reissued for the general public his versions of four mediæval French tales, already printed for the æsthetic few at the Kelmscott Press. The new edition contains also a brief but valuable introduction by Mr. Joseph Jacobs, of which we need say only that it displays its author's customary erudition in matters of this kind, not to mention his gay and at times even jovial manner. The stories chosen by Mr. Morris are four of the five in the little volume 'Nouvelles françaises en prose du 13ième siècle,' published as long ago as 1856 by MM. Moland and d'Héricault (the fifth tale in that collection being the delightful *chantefable* of "Aucassin et Nicolete," which Mr. Andrew Lang has done into English, as everybody knows). The present volume contains, then, the stories of "L'Empereur Constant," "Ami et Amile," "Le Roi Flore et la belle Jehane," and "La Comtesse de Ponthieu" (or, as Mr. Morris prefers, "Istore d'Outre-Mer"). In the case of the first two of these, readers of Old French will regret that the translations should be based upon the decidedly inferior prose forms of the tales rather than on the earlier and more poetical narratives in verse which are preserved to us. The last two exist in French only in prose, and we must perforce be satisfied with them as they are. All four stories are, however, in any form engaging and delightful. The first, "L'Empereur Constant," Mr. Morris has already retold (with some variations derived from other forms of the legend) in the 'Earthly Paradise,' as "The Man Born to be King." The second, "Ami et Amile," is the most famous mediæval representative of stories about perfect friendship,

like that of David and Jonathan or of Orestes and Pylades. The third, "Le Roi Flore et la belle Jehane," gives us one of the mediæval forms of the Cymbeline story of a wager about a wife's virtue. The last, "La Comtesse de Ponthieu," describes a strange and pathetic adventure extrinsically connected with the Crusades. It is probable that all the tales were originally Byzantine or Oriental.

—It is perhaps not a matter of consequence whether Mr. Morris's version is philologically sound or not (it really is not very bad from this point of view), for he does not profess to be a philologist. The question of the character of the English style he has adopted has, on the other hand, some interest. A German has already written a dissertation on the sources of the 'Earthly Paradise'; perhaps we may later get one on the sources of Mr. Morris's Romantic grammar. We should like to know, for example, how he came to be so fond of the ugly word "much" used as an intensive ("a *much* valiant man," "a *much* good dame," p. 119). His conjugation strikes us at times as having a curious similarity to that of the American negro ("And the Emperor Constans . . . did do christen his wife," p. 23; "The Emperor did do slit the belly of him with a knife from the breast down to the navel," p. 6). We are somewhat at a loss to translate into the vernacular such locutions as "much long aloof thence" (p. 13); and though the statement that the young Constans "entered into the garden all a-horseback" (p. 14) seems to reproduce the French *si entra ou gardin tout à cheval*, it can hardly be called a current English equivalent of it. But no doubt the style adopted by Mr. Morris, both here and in his translations of the Northern Sagas, is intended to be caviare to the general. One thing is sure, that the style of the Old French narrators stood in no such relation to the common speech of mediæval France as Mr. Morris's to our tongue. And if translation be reproducing as nearly as possible the manner and tone, as well as the matter, of the original, this is not translation at all.

—Mr. Poynter, the new Director of the National Gallery in London, seems anxious to prove his readiness to fill certain much criticised gaps in the collection now under his charge. The refusal of his predecessor to recognize any French painters later than eighteenth-century masters has long been a scandal, and, as yet, Mr. Poynter has done nothing to improve matters in this respect. But scarcely less serious have been the omissions in the Spanish room. Here, it is true, are two very fine portraits of Philip, as well as other fairly characteristic, if not very splendid, examples of Velasquez in different phases of his career; and here, too, are the inevitable Murillos. Hitherto, however, there has been little else. A poor specimen of Il Greco was added recently. But all the pictures of the Spanish school can still be hung in a small gallery, while the Italian Primitives alone monopolize three or four times as much space. One of the Spaniards whose absence until the other day was most conspicuous was Goya, but it is to make place for him that Mr. Poynter has set about the much-needed reform. The late Osuna sale in Madrid should have been an excellent opportunity for the director no less than the dealer. The Duke of Osuna, among his treasures, could boast of many of the finest canvases Goya ever painted, and, indeed, indignation throughout Spain was strong when it was found that he was about to part with his collection. As every one knows, there is not much wealth, public or private, just now in the country to be invested in art, and the scattering of the Osuna Goyas beyond the Pyrenees was inevitable. But at this sale Mr. Poynter managed to secure only two small paintings—"Merienda Campestre," a Watteau-like composition, not without charm in the landscape background, but hardly characteristic of Goya except in the central figure, and "El Hechizado por Fuerza."

—The tiara of Saïtapharnes is perhaps the most interesting and most precious of all the recent acquisitions of the Louvre. It is a crown of gold in the shape of an Oriental mitre, of most surprising workmanship, and of inappreciable value, both artistic and historic. It is certainly the finest known specimen of Greek art in this kind, and is in an absolutely perfect state of preservation. It has become so well known since its purchase last spring for the Louvre that there is no need of speaking of it in detail. Its authenticity has hitherto been undisputed, but the *Petit Journal* of June 27 puts it in question, relying upon a letter of a professor in the University of St. Petersburg, M. Vesselovsky, who challenges the genuineness of the tiara in the *Novoe Vremya*. "It is time," the professor writes, "to say that this tiara is a piece of the Otchakof work of our time. The manufacture of spurious antiquities has been going on at Otchakof for some years, and has reached such a point of perfection as to deceive archæologists. The famous tiara of Saïtapharnes is not the only object of this sort. There exists at Kherson, in private hands, a crown of the same workmanship, but of a different shape." By a lucky chance the crown of Kherson happens to be in Paris and not elsewhere—in private hands, indeed, but in hands which have already offered it to the Louvre, where it has been rejected. The comparison which was made between it and the tiara of Saïtapharnes showed at first glance that there was no likeness between the two objects, whether in workmanship or in style, and consequently no likelihood that they were of the same origin. M. Héron de Villefosse, keeper of antiquities at the Louvre, writes to the *Temps* in this sense, and adds that it does not appear that the Russian professor has ever seen the tiara of Saïtapharnes. He adds, with such tender mercy as now and then survives in the breasts of archæologists, that M. Vesselovsky finds full satisfaction in saying that they make a good many false antiquities at Otchakof, and goes on to say: "We knew that a good while ago. Such counterfeits are made also at Rome and at Naples; but until now it has never come into anybody's head to account an object spurious simply because it happens to come from Rome or Naples."

—The department of antiquities illustrative of legal usages in the Germanic National Museum has been recently enriched by a curious and unique collection of so-called "Leibzeichen" (body tokens), the grewsome heirloom of the town of Scheinfeld. The term *Leibzeichen* is common enough in old lawbooks, and is defined by Grimm, but will be looked for in vain in any ordinary German dictionary or in the omniscient "Conversations-Lexikon." In case of murder, German jurisprudence in the Middle Ages (and also in modern times as late at least as the first half of the eighteenth century) demanded positive and ocular proof of the commission of the crime in the form of a *corpus delicti*, which had to be taken from the body of the victim in the presence of a magistrate or other officer of justice. A finger, a foot, a fragment of the skull, a blood-stained piece of clothing served this purpose. One can easily imagine the hideous effect produced by a whole collection of such objects, each labelled with the name of the murdered person and that of the murderer, together with the manner and date of death, and signed by the "Centknecht" or reeve of the "Centgericht," corresponding to the hundred court of England and the district court of the United States. The oldest specimen in the Scheinfeld collection is of the year 1669, and the latest is dated 1731. From an historical point of view these "Leibzeichen" are interesting survivals of the painful and superfluous pedantry that once prevailed in German criminal courts and often hemmed and thwarted the course of justice. Such ghastly tokens are no longer required as evidence, but the spirit which found expression in them is by no means foreign to the judiciary of Germany at the present day.

—The European nations are keeping up a peaceful rivalry in laying the foundations for a nobler physical manhood in the rising and future generations. The Germans, through the Central Committee for the Advancement of Games for the People and for Youth, decided against participating in the Olympian Games at Athens (for reasons which will be explained in No. 3 of *Das Humanistische Gymnasium*); but the plans are being matured for instituting a German Olympia, a national festival after the manner of the Olympian Games, to be celebrated for the first time in 1900, and at regular intervals thereafter, probably at Leipzig, the spot "consecrated by the great Battle of Nations." The secretary of the above-mentioned committee, Realschuldirector Raydt, has published a brochure on the subject, 'Nationaltage für deutsche Kampfspiele' (Leipzig: Voigtländer). During the present month the second German congress *für Volks- und Jugendspiele* has been in session at Munich. A former congress, held in Berlin, was attended by representatives of fifty cities, of several hundred societies, and of ten German governments, so that a large meeting at Munich was anticipated. In France the question of public bathing and swimming and the establishment of baths in connection with the schools is seriously agitating the minds of reformers. Little has been done in this direction by French cities in comparison with those of other countries, notably in Belgium, England, Germany, Austria-Hungary (see the *Revue Pédagogique* for June). It appears that of Belgian soldiers 80 per cent. can swim, while in the French army scarcely 10 to 12 per cent. have learned this useful art. England spent for public baths the sum of 27,500,000 francs in the period 1883–89. In Budapest (Hungary) these establishments give out 3,000,000 tickets (at two cents) each year, a daily average of 7,000 in winter and 9,000 in summer. Reports from departments both in the north and south of France show that the agitation against the abuse of alcoholic drinks is not relaxing; lectures by specialists before teachers and students, and the forming of "ligues scolaires contre l'usage des boissons spiritueuses" are in vogue. The latter are affiliated with a central society in Paris at No. 46 Rue de Vaugirard, and make use of pledges which do not jar with national custom; the youthful signers simply binding themselves for a definite period (one year) to

abstain from the use of brandy and *liqueurs*, and to use wine, beer, and cider only in moderation.

WOMAN UNDER MONASTICISM.

Woman under Monasticism: Chapters on Saint-lore and Convent Life between A. D. 500 and A. D. 1500. By Lina Eckenstein. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896. Pp. 496.

MISS ECKENSTEIN'S book has involved a vast amount of research and of keen critical judgment; it is a splendid specimen of the result to be obtained by modern scholarship when applied to a fruitful theme which has had the chance to be strangely overlooked; it is, besides, a picture of absorbing interest, which can be read with delight by the plain person who gives no thought to the immense amount of labor involved in putting it together.

There is an increasing tendency, as a result of wider research and of a more unbiassed weighing of the plain evidence of contemporaries, to acknowledge the debt of gratitude which mankind owes to the monastic and religious orders. The present work deals with the subject only as it concerns the share of women in utilizing the religious retreats as a storehouse for the preservation, during troublous times, of the world's acquisition of learning and of the gentler ways of living; but it is the share of women in this good work which has been most conspicuously overlooked. To use the words of our author:

"The woman saint has met with scant treatment beyond that of the eulogistic but uncritical writer of works of devotion; the literary nun has engrossed the attention of few biographers. The partisan recriminations of the Reformation have been too widely prevalent. The saint is thrust aside as a representative of gross superstition, and the nun is looked upon as a slothful and hysterical, if not as a dissolute, character. She has been too long thought of as those who broke with the Catholic Church chose to depict her. As part of an institution which had outlived its purpose, she was perhaps bound to pass away, but the work she had done and the aims for which she had striven, contributed their share in formulating the new standards of life."

In the present volume it is the development and history of monastic life among German and English women only that is depicted; it is to be hoped that the subject will also be taken up as it concerns the women of Italy and France, where documentary evidence is still more abundant. This story begins, for the sake of completeness, with the position of women among the pre-Christian Germans. Early hagiology reproduces in many respects the incidents connected with the religious influence of women during heathen times. The chapter on the transformation of the tribal goddess into the Christian saint is particularly interesting. In the legends concerning the earliest women-saints, there is much that is pre-Christian, and even anti-Christian, in character. Usually the legend of a saint does not get written until after her cult has become of long standing, and then the legend-writer refers her life to a remote historical background, frequently to a time when Christianity was unknown in the neighborhood in which she was reverenced, and he blends with her story local traditions often of very discordant character. Her cult frequently centres, for instance, around a cave, a fountain of peculiar power, a tree, or some other site of primitive woman-worship, and there are survivals in many cases of details which can have had their origin only in the period of matriarchy.

We have no space to touch upon all the interesting topics discussed in this volume, from the establishment of numerous nunneries as places of retreat for royal maidens and widows after the Frankish invasion, through the important development of the religious life among the Anglo-Saxons, the interesting phase of conventual experience at Poitiers, and at Gandersheim in Saxony (where the learned Hrotsvith lived and wrote), the work of the nuns in art industries, in literature, and in philanthropy (under the auspices of Hildegard a book was compiled on the uses of drugs and simples which forms a landmark in the history of mediæval medicine), and finally the causes of dissolution (which were already effective before the Reformation, and which are here depicted in a masterly manner), and, as a closing scene, the heroic resistance to the breaking up of her nunnery made by Charitas Pirckheimer, Abbess of Nuremberg. The extent to which it is shown that learning was cultivated among the nuns will be a surprise to those who approach the subject for the first time. In the sixth century the royal abbess Radegund wrote epistles in verse under the tuition of an exiled Roman poet; to an Anglo Saxon nun whose name is not recorded we owe one of the earliest and most interesting accounts extant of a journey to Palestine; in the eighth century the nun Lioba was trying her hand at Latin verse in a convent at Thanet; in the tenth and twelfth centuries Hrotsvith and Herrad made their better-known contributions to literature. The curriculum of study in the nunnery was as liberal as that followed by monks, and embraced all available writing, whether by Christian or profane authors. Cicero, Virgil, and Terence were read as zealously as the writings of the Fathers of the Church. From remarks made by Hrotsvith, it is plain that the coarseness of the later Latin dramatists was not held to be a reason for their being forbidden to nuns, though she would have seen it otherwise; and Herrad was so impressed by the wisdom of the heathen philosophers of antiquity that she pronounced it to be the "product of the Holy Spirit also."

The most interesting chapters of the book are those devoted to the lives of the two learned women whose names we have just mentioned. The literary work of Hrotsvith was of three forms—metrical legends written for the edification of members of convents; seven dramas in the style of Terence; and contemporary history in metrical form. As a writer of legends and of history, she ranks with other authors of the time; as a writer of Latin drama, she stands alone. Between the comedies of classic times and the miracle-plays (which consisted at first of only a few scenes, with dialogue of the baldest kind), there are no other dramatic compositions except hers. Ebert, the historian of the literature of western Europe, writes of her: "This fruitful poetic talent, which lacks not the inspiration and the courage of genius to enter upon new ground, evinces how the Saxon element was destined to guide the German nation in the domain of art." The modesty with which she speaks of her own work is very charming. Like many another woman, she wrote, at first, "unknown to others, and secretly." A letter to some friends, now unknown, who had engaged to criticise her plays, shows the attitude of the religious woman towards profane learning. She writes:

"Till now I have dared to show my rude productions only to a few of my nearest friends. From you I take confidence, and feel strengthened by your approval. And yet I am divided between joy and fear, which contend within me; in my heart I rejoice, praising God through whose grace alone I have become what I am, and yet I am fearful of appearing greater than I am, being perplexed by two things, both of which are wrong, namely, the neglect of talents vouchsafed to one by God, and the pretence to talents one has not."

There has recently been a revival of interest in Hrotsvith's work, and much has been written about her during the last thirty years.

Herrad, the abbess of a nunnery in Alsace, conceived the idea of making for the use of her nuns an encyclopædic book, which should embody, in pictures and in words, all the knowledge of her time. The importance of this work has long survived its original purpose; with its hundreds of illustrations and its copious text, it has afforded a wealth of information on the customs, conceptions, and mode of life in the twelfth century which is not to be obtained elsewhere. The work itself is no longer in existence; the manuscript was destroyed in the fire which broke out in the library of Strasbourg when that city was bombarded by the Germans in 1870. The Society for the Preservation of the Monuments of Alsace is at present collecting and publishing a reproduction of all existing tracings and copies of the pictures or of parts of them. This collection already numbers nearly two hundred; they are mere fragments of the work itself, but they are of the highest interest. Gérard, who was probably the last to see and handle the work of Herrad, was especially struck by her pictures of the Last Judgment and of Heaven and Hell; on the strength of these pictures he numbers Herrad among the most imaginative painters the world has known. She also wrote verses; this couplet of hers deserves to be remembered:

"Spernere mundum, spernere nullum, spernere sese,
Spernere sperni se, quatuor haec bona sunt."

These are specimens of the learning which was open to women and was seized upon by them with avidity and enthusiasm five hundred and a thousand years ago. By a curious fatality, the very cause which made learning freer and more untrammelled for men, and started it upon the immense developments of modern times, was what rendered it inaccessible to women—the growth of the great universities. In the eighth century Bede could be a learned man though he never stirred from his convent; in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries this was no longer possible: the centre of education was the disputations of the lecture-room. The monasteries of men secured houses at the university centres, to which they sent their promising pupils; but the tone at the universities was such that no attempt was made in this direction by the convents of women. As a result, their standard fell. There followed a want of interest in intellectual acquirements among nuns, and this was accompanied by a growing indifference in the outside world to the intellectual acquirements of women in general. Thus the preservation of a higher moral tone among women has been at the cost of their participation in the intellectual interests of men. As has been pointed out upon occasion in these columns, the restriction of women to the frivolous interests of life has in the end acted adversely upon an ideal moral tone for men and women alike.

Miss Eckenstein's book is an earnest of the contributions to knowledge which will result from the revival of learning among women at the present time. She is conversant with

classical, mediæval, and ecclesiastical Latin, and the voluminous original sources of her subject are familiar to her. She is, moreover, keenly alive to the important bearing of her picture of mediæval activity on the part of women upon the question of the status of women at the present day. The right to self-development and social responsibility which is asked for by the modern woman is analogous to the right which the convent secured to her eight centuries ago. Provided she agreed to forego the claims of family and sex, an honorable independence was assured her, and she was brought into contact with the highest aims of her age. Such was the prestige enjoyed by the heads of religious settlements that kings and queens frequently installed their daughters as abbesses instead of seeking matrimonial alliances for them. Many married women left their husbands for the purpose of founding and governing convents; sometimes they intrusted their management to others, and themselves retired to them later in life. The career which was open to an inmate of a convent was greater, both in England and on the Continent, than any other ever thrown open to women in the course of modern European history. In the Kentish charter the names of the abbesses follow those of the bishops. In Saxony it fell to an abbess to act as representative of the Emperor during his absence. As independent landowners, who held their property of and from King and Emperor, abbesses took rank with the lords temporal and spiritual, and shared their right of being represented in Parliament or at the Imperial Diet.

The causes for the change that ensued in this state of things were at work long before the wholesale suppression of the monasteries at the time of the Reformation. Quite in accord with the discovery made by those who have investigated the historical development of marriage, it appears here also that it is only to the extent to which women have been able to keep the control of their property in their own hands that they have been able to preserve their independence. Consequent upon the spread of the feudal system of land tenure, which, in the interest of an improved military organization, reserved the holding of property for men, women forfeited their chance of founding and endowing independent monasteries; the houses founded after the monastic revival of the 12th century were of decreasing influence, and their heads were more and more subjected to the domination of the monks. The lesson to be drawn for modern times is plain.

RECENT FICTION.

Embarrassments. By Henry James. Macmillan.

His Honour, and a Lady. By Mrs. Everard Cotes (Sara Jeannette Duncan). D. Appleton & Co.

In a Dike Shanty. By Maria Louise Pool. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

The Way They Loved at Grimpat. By E. Rentoul Esler. Henry Holt & Co.

THE critic in the first of the four stories in Henry James's latest collection, 'Embarrassments,' who scratches his head and asks, in regard to the mysterious secret of Hugh Vereker's literary quality, "Is it something in the style or something in the thought—an element of form or an element of feeling?" puts a question over which, as regards the author himself, many have puzzled. The material for judgment is amply spread in this volume. That style and form count for a vast deal with Mr. James is evident. Such verbal niceties and felicities, such crisp compactness varied by such leisurely lingering over evanescent detail, are not the offspring of an effortless imagination. They betray the patient and watchful artificer. But there is something in the thought, too, in these stories which makes the style seem to fit it like a glove. Two of the themes are subtly psychological—one, in fact, psychical-researchical—and two propound vague literary problems. They are well named 'Embarrassments,' and to almost any other writer would have proved such. But Mr. James plays with his mysteries so deftly and delicately, seems so on the verge of disclosing them as you think he easily might, only to leave the veil over them finally, as you see, on reflection, that he really has to do, that his very elusiveness and indefiniteness of effect somehow prove his mastery. If you are slightly mystified, it is because he meant you to be. The last story, "The Way It Came," is a *tour de force* in one particular at least: none of the characters is named, yet by use of pronouns alone the somewhat complicated interplay is kept perfectly clear, so neat is the management.

Ever since Thackeray led the way in spitting Anglo-Indian officers and their ladies on the darts of satire, writers of fiction have been quick to perceive how openly human nature exposes its foibles in India, where, in military and civil service circles, the full blaze of tropical day shines down on every one's passions and jealousies. Among the colony of exiles in her Majesty's service whose social focus is Government House in Calcutta, Mrs. Everard Cotes naturally finds several who are irresistible objects of ironical pleasantry. But snobs are not her first consideration; they are merely sport for lighter moments. Hearts are the stuff of serious argument, and if one—warmest though most erring of all—is caught and crushed between the upper and nether millstones of ambition and treachery, this might as easily have happened in a climate of fogs as in a setting of pipal trees and dusky syces and coolies. Judith Church, whom destiny thus singles out to suffer and grow strong, and whose explation for having failed in the spirit while keeping the letter of her marriage vow, it would be interesting to follow in a sequel, is not merely ornamental in her rôle of heroine and temporary great lady, but is also an animate and palpable person. In this respect her whilom rival, Rhoda Daye, has not fared so well at the hands of her delineator. "You can't have it, mummie; it isn't a nice book for you to read." Such are the terms in which Rhoda Daye protects her mother from the contamination of 'Cruelle Énigme,' and from which it may be clearly inferred that she represents the typical young woman of the period. Very typical indeed she is in her nonchalance and self-poise and with her unbridled tongue. On this basis she will be cheerfully accepted by the experienced reader, who knows that the novelist's type can seldom be at the same time a creature of unmistakable flesh and blood. There is plenty of smart writing, about her as about others; and smartness, there is good reason to suspect, is the fault of Mrs. Cotes's style. Something, at least, there is in it which produces after a while a sensation of ennui and a desire to stretch the limbs and rest. Nevertheless, as stories go nowadays, 'His Honour, and a Lady' holds its own in interest, and the catastrophe which follows the exposure of the Chief Secretary's disloyalty, though saddening, gives rise to the conclusion that an involuntary deflection from the line of duty, if duly repented of, need leave behind it no weakening of the moral fibre.

'In a Dike Shanty' deserves appreciation for the humor, cheerful and hearty, with which the peculiarities of gnarly country character have been observed and recorded. Whatever is oddest or most provocative of a smile in the sayings and doings of the natives of an outlandish corner of New England has been gathered together, freely intermingled with fictional invention of her own, by their note-taking neighbor of the shanty. In many respects the dike folks will be found to resemble their country kindred the world over, particularly in their prejudice against the race of trained nurses, led with the energy of a war-cry by the veteran July Burns, and shared by her neighbors far and near. Fresh air and hay-making are always good things in their way, even in a book, but the dike haymaking has features it would have been agreeable to dispense with. Mirth at the expense of an idiot is necessarily, indeed, of doubtful expediency, and it is not surprising that, in making merry with Ozias Baker and his unfortunate parent, Miss Pool has not been able to steer altogether clear of the disgusting. Entirely false in pitch are the descriptions of the dangerously magnetic young person who sustains the sentimental parts of the piece. She is "Southern New England," has a smile which causes "a permeable and pleasurable knowledge," a face and eyes of "delicious suggestions," and various other disqualifications—if there is anything in heredity—for playing niece to Rodge Peake's wife and heroine to a quiet tale of plain country ways. Her "Tallahassee gentleman" puts a finishing touch to her incongruities. But for whatever acquaintance is given with the idiosyncrasies of a shrewd and simple people, before an intrusive and progressive age has wiped out their local character, there is reason to be grateful to any writer.

Grimpat is not a name that is English in sound, though it figures effectively as an English village in the handful of short stories to which it gives a background and a common title. Grimpat lovers are, with few exceptions, modest folk, whose historian has happily known how to unfold the simple annals of the poor in plain and unaffected language. Let fortune treat them well or ill, or the course of true love run smooth or troubled, the how and the why of it are set down with the perfection of unpretending directness. Or if my lord or my lady chance to be drawn into the noiseless current of obscure events, as happens in the story called "Linnet's Lover," the same homely simplicity suffices to give them the desired air of reality. Lady Courtland is one of the gracefully sketched figures it is a pleasure to watch in the pages of fiction; while Lady Joanna, into whose startled ears the country-girl Daisy Wynn flings the name of "My cousin, Lord Glenheather," is another of the imaginary persons who, if they could be transferred to actual life, would, with all their faultiness, add largely to its attractions. Stories so void of sensationalism, and dealing so modestly with the romance of humble destinies, are, as a rule, the natural growth of an Old World, where the knowledge, religiously inculcated and cheerfully accepted of the limitations of lowly station, has given to character an outward and inward finish rarely seen in the New. They raise anew in the mind the long-mooted question whether all

the blessings of uniformity to be enjoyed in a democratic world, where never a pretty girl need drop a curtsy to her betters, will ever serve so well the purposes of imagination as the piquancy of contrasts in social levels. Let this be as it will, these are tales that may act as a reminder to all whom it concerns that the way to avoid commonness, if not to achieve distinction in fiction, is never, in writing any more than in manner, to strain after effect.

GIDDINGS'S PRINCIPLES OF SOCIOLOGY.

The Principles of Sociology. By Franklin Henry Giddings. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THOSE who have perused what philosophers have heretofore offered the world under the title "sociology," must have been frequently tempted to repeat the question which Kant so often put concerning metaphysics: How is it any way possible? Whatever form of definition be adopted, it is evident that we have in some way and to some extent to deal with the sum total of knowledge. Nothing human can be excluded from the field. According to the French saying, man is born in society and there he remains. No such thing as an isolated human being can be found in all our experience, or can even be conceived. The necessity of being born involves some form of the institution of the family; and the existence of the family involves in embryo all the phenomena of human society. All our knowledge is therefore attained through a medium that inevitably colors it, and in a sense every human event is a sociological datum.

The author of this work supplies us with some instances of the failures of various writers in their attempts to grapple with so vast a theme. "No image has been too fantastic," he tells us, "no speculation too mystical, no belief too absurd, to enter into the description and philosophy of society." Comte's objective interpretation was "extremely crude." The subjective explanation has become "a tiresome endeavor to enumerate all the motives that actuate man in his varied relations and in the satisfaction of all his wants." Those who have identified social statics with an account of social structure, and social dynamics with an account of social function, have been guilty of "profound misconceptions," and have propagated "subtle and misleading errors." Some attempts to state the first principles of sociology have approximated to success, but they have failed to attain it. Nevertheless these essays have brought us gradually to the point where success is attainable. "Sociology must go right from this time forth, . . . because it has tried all possible ways of going wrong." The strait gate and the narrow path are at last before us.

What, then, is sociology in this purified and sublimated form? "It is a science that tries to conceive of society in its unity, and attempts to explain it in terms of cosmic cause and law." "It is the systematic description and explanation of society viewed as a whole. It is the general science of social phenomena." "It is an interpretation of human society in terms of natural causation." "It is an attempt to account for the origin, growth, structure, and activities of society by the operation of physical, vital, and psychical causes, working together in a process of evolution." "It insists, also, that one fundamental logic underlies the objective or physical, and the subjective or volitional, explanations of social phenomena." "A true sociology must combine the subjective and the objective interpretations." In order to accomplish this combination, we require some fundamental postulate, "which can be no other than this, namely: The original and elementary subjective fact in society is *the consciousness of kind*. By this term I mean a state of consciousness in which any being, whether low or high in the scale of life, recognizes another conscious being as of like kind with itself." And a society "is a naturally developing group of conscious beings, in which converse passes into definite relationships that, in the course of time, are wrought into a complex and enduring organization."

It cannot but be regarded as unfortunate that, in the definition of the sociological postulate, the vital word "kind" should be used to define itself. We have searched for some clear and precise statement of its meaning, but in vain. It is probable that in the author's mind it is generally synonymous with species; that the recognition of kind takes place when one cat or one man sees another. But species is a word not free from ambiguity, and we do not feel sure that we are justified in attributing any meaning to this postulate except the very general one of the perception of similarity among conscious beings. If we are correct, the science of sociology consists of the observation and classification of such perceptions, and the deduction of laws and principles therefrom. But it would seem to be necessary to add the impulses and actions associated with these perceptions, which practically turns us loose in the whole field of human activity. We must then, we suppose, abstract from this vast aggregate of phenomena such acts as are especially suggestive of the "consciousness of kind" and take them for our subject matter.

It is obvious that we must have further guidance before we embark on such a boundless ocean as this. The mere enumeration of what we may call social acts would be an endless labor. We may reduce it by appropriating the results of the other sciences, especially biology and psychology, to say nothing of the aid to be had from general history, from ethics, and from politics. These sciences, however, have for the most part found progress possible only by limiting their scope. They have been obliged, as a condition of advance, to confine their attention to certain comparatively narrow classes of phenomena. If now we reverse the process, and endeavor to generalize from them, what are we doing but going out of the door at which we entered? We learn that our postulate is true, and that one of the common features of all these sciences is the "consciousness of kind"

But are no other generalizations possible? They are, by the introduction of other postulates. Prof. Giddings lays it down that the sociologist has three main quests. He must discover the conditions that determine aggregation, the law that governs social choices, and the law that governs the natural selection and the survival of choices. This certainly promises better results. By the use of existing knowledge we are able to say that social aggregations depend on conditions of food supply; that pleasurable social relations are preferred; and that these preferences may be prejudicial or beneficial to particular societies. But here we are at once met by the shadow feared of all investigators, the plurality of causes. Prof. Giddings is not unaware of this. He admits that Mill's chapters on the logic of the moral sciences must be the foundation of sociological method; but we fear much of his own work rests on a different substructure. To attain the empirical generalizations without which sociology is impossible, he finds it necessary to assume what we cannot but regard as the true sociological postulate, that we may make "a preliminary elimination of possibly coöperating causes." Thus, if we wish to explain the prosperity of a country, we must not be hampered by Mill's logic. "Prosperity is the effect of a bewildering plurality of causes, but among them not half-a-dozen are commensurate with any great, sudden, or long-continued increase of material well-being. All others may be eliminated at the outset."

The opening of Pandora's box did not let loose a greater variety of mischiefs than follow from this proposition. Were it sound, science would be at the mercy of every sciolist. Upon this principle more fallacious arguments than can be counted have been constructed. It is the principle on which every half-educated legislator shapes his conception of public policy, and every fanatic defends his measures. It is at the bottom of the prohibition craze, the silver craze, the tariff craze, and the military craze. Grant any orator the liberty of eliminating such causes as he does not believe in, and his flights will soar far beyond all reason and experience. "What do we care for abroad?" shouted Stanley Matthews, and eliminated at a whiff all inconvenient and "incommensurate" arguments; and half the speeches in Congress are equally logical. It avails nothing to reply that the elimination must not be arbitrary. Who is to decide whether it is arbitrary or not? Unless we have a new set of canons of "elimination" we are altogether helpless. We are set afloat, without pilot, chart, or compass, and the severe methods of science give place to the freaks of human conceit.

If it be urged that without this process of elimination no sociology is possible, we shall not dispute it. But we are unable to accept results so obtained as science, and are therefore disqualified from criticising the conceptions of "sociality," "propriety," "institutionality," "ideality," and "conventionality," as corresponding to stages of historical evolution known as zoögenic, anthropogenic, ethnogenic, and demogenic association. Under these classifications Prof. Giddings has accumulated many facts of greater or less interest, and it would be ungracious to deny him the merits of patient industry and of careful elaboration. Many of the generalizations from history which he offers are true and suggestive. Many are the baldest platitudes, posing as oracular wisdom. But as to the future of the human race, we confess that it appears to us to be shrouded in as dense obscurity as it was before the appearance of this volume. We know something of what has taken place in the past, and if the conditions remain unchanged we may forecast what is to be. But we cannot forget the terrible warning presented by Mr. Spencer's example. Just as he had brought his system of sociology to perfection, and shown how the reign of justice and freedom must necessarily result from the evolution of the social organism, society took a perverse list towards socialism, and he was obliged to drop to the humiliating rôle of a Hebrew prophet cursing the chosen people for turning aside after Baalim and Ashtaroth. The task that sociologists set themselves is too great for their present equipment. Let them provide themselves with a *novum*

organum adapted to the requirements of their stupendous problem before they offer us its solution.

Early Long Island: A Colonial Study. By Martha Bockee Flint. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

MOST of the local history of this country is written from such a purely antiquarian standpoint as to have interest only for the locality chronicled, but the author of the present work has written for a wider audience. Avoiding both the pitfalls of purely local concerns and dry genealogy, on the one side, and the temptation to pick out the exceptional in order to be picturesque and quaint (a now prevailing disease in a number of our "old-time" writers), Miss Flint clearly distinguishes the forces which went to make the history of Long Island. Her book is never dull—quite the reverse—and the trials and sacrifices, daily life, and relation to the world of the people stand out very clearly and correctly in the mind of the reader. Even without the long list of authorities, the work manifests the care with which it has been prepared.

The early contest between the Dutch and New Englanders, the resulting religious toleration, equalled only in Rhode Island, and the whaling and the smuggling which so much contributed to Long Island's material prosperity, are all well set forth. The political struggles, in which Stuyvesant complained that in elections "by the populace, each would vote for one of his own stamp—the thief for a thief, the rogue, the tippler, the smuggler, each for a brother in iniquity—that he might enjoy greater latitude for his own offences," bring home how little humanity has changed in the interval, however much conditions have varied. Perhaps even these are to the mass of mankind not so different, for as early as 1737 there were market-gardens on the island, and the lines along which most of the developments of the last hundred years have proceeded, even to the manors and country houses for New Yorkers, were already marked out.

The author, following other writers, believes that the Howes lost their opportunity, after the battle of Brooklyn, by neglecting to bring the British fleet into the East River and carry the American works by assault. This entirely overlooks the fact that, during the three days between the defeat and the retreat, the wind was adverse, and it was quite impossible to move a vessel. For the second point, the British had had a lesson in assaulting earthworks at Bunker's Hill, and at Brooklyn there were no trenches the work of a single night, but elaborate lines, the work of months. Had Howe's army only made the attempt, instead of adopting the more prudent course, the story of those few days would have been very different. During the whole war the Americans were never beaten when they were fighting behind breastworks, and Howe proved his good sense in nothing more than by not assaulting them at Brooklyn, at White Plains, and at White Marsh. Again, Miss Flint's account of the American treatment of the Tories under the famous "fifth clause" of the treaty is open to criticism. The English understood thoroughly that all the treaty bound the Americans to was to "recommend" to angry tigers that they be merciful to their prey, and the outburst in Parliament when that clause was read showed that they, as well as the Americans, understood that the Loyalists had been sacrificed in order to obtain peace. The conduct of the Whigs was merciless and outrageous, but it was no breach of the treaty.

An error into which the author has been led by Lossing is the ascribing of the lines from "M'Fingal" to Judge William Smith of New York, when they really belong to Rev. Dr. William Smith of Philadelphia. Minor errors are references to the Simstiere collection, for Simitiere, and to H. M. Murphy for H. C. Murphy.

Cyrus W. Field: His Life and Work [1819-1892]. Edited by Isabella Field Judson. Illustrated. Harpers. 1896.

MRS. JUDSON has succeeded in giving an account of her father which all who knew him will value, and which the public at large will find of considerable interest. His life was a strange blending of prose, romance, and tragedy. The story begins in one of the quietest New England villages in the year 1819. The father of Cyrus Field is the "dominie" of Stockbridge, wielding an authority, religious and secular, now already long obsolete. He offers up prayers for the sinful in church by name; he determines when the Sabbath begins and ends—he seems to have rather inclined to the theory that it lasted for one day and two evenings; he stops little boys who play marbles in the village street at improper times. He brings up a family of children with the rigidity of discipline befitting the town in which Edwards taught, but destined soon to vanish before the advancing spirit of laxity. There is something pathetic in the *res angustæ* of the parsonage, and something inspiring in the strict honesty of the New England Puritan village atmosphere. The little account which the boy sends back to his father from New York of the petty sum given him to get there was worth preserving; it is a glimpse behind the scenes which reflects the times. In that remote New England, people brought up their children to be scrupulous about small sums of money.

Cyrus begins life as an errand boy on $50 a year. It is not long before his restless energy enables him to accumulate a large enough sum of money to embark in business, and no sooner does he do this than he fails. Nothing daunted by a disaster for which he is not to blame, he settles with his creditors (they are all afterwards paid in full) and begins again. This time he is more successful, and he accumulates what, for the first half of the century, is a fortune. This success, however, merely fires his ambition, which must always have been boundless, and it is about this time that he first turns his attention to the project of a telegraphic cable between the old and the new worlds. To this scheme, which to the general public appeared at the time utterly chimerical, he devotes twelve years of his life, struggling unwearied through every sort of difficulty and disaster to the triumph which he seems to have been inspired to foresee, predict, and make his own. For it is not a triumph of scientific knowledge over popular ignorance (there does not appear to have been at the time any means of knowing whether his plan was feasible or not), but rather the unerring insight of a man possessed. To John Bright and other orators his success recalls that of Columbus—one had brought the two worlds into communication with each other; the other moors them side by side.

While engaged in this gigantic enterprise he again fails in business, and again he is able later to repay his creditors in full. His daughter, with natural pride in this unusual feat, prints some of the acknowledgments received by him. We fear that their tone will be, for the historian of our period, proof that Mr. Field's act was not an every-day tribute to integrity. In this part of his career, however, success is sure in the end to be his, whatever he undertakes. He not only wipes out his debts, but makes another fortune, and, moreover, by the time the cable is finally laid, has come to have an international reputation. He is as well known in London as in New York; his name he has made a household word throughout the world.

But this is not enough. Always driven forward by an enthusiasm and optimism which make him typical of his times and country, he is not capable of being content, and is determined to have all or nothing. Everything is embarked in a new venture, and again, while visions of colossal wealth float before his eyes, everything is lost. But this time is the last. Mr. Field is an old man, broken by domestic sorrows of a kind harder to bear than loss of money, and he cannot survive the shock. In closing the book the reader cannot but feel that the event is too recent to enable us to estimate with critical accuracy how Mr. Field's career will look to the generations to come; but no one who sympathizes with daring and ambition can read the story without being moved. The volume contains a valuable letter from Mr. Gladstone, hitherto unpublished, defending and explaining his attitude towards the United States during our civil war.

A History of Modern Banks of Issue. With an Account of the Economic Crises of the Present Century. By Charles A. Conant. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

THE principle adopted by Mr. Conant as his guide in this historical investigation is that "the currency of a commercial country should be regulated by commercial conditions and not by the whims of politicians." Stated in this way, we may admit that it is an "axiomatic truth"; but the statement is not a fortunate one. It puts Mr. Conant in the position of a sentimental opponent of the issue of currency by Government, whereas his book is conspicuously free from sentimental prejudice or emotional criticism. He lets the facts speak for themselves, and they speak loud enough. Their lesson is that the safest currency, so soon as metal is displaced by credit, is furnished by the private enterprise of banks subject to the ordinary laws of business liability, and that the interference of Government has almost without exception been prejudicial, and prejudicial in proportion to the extent of the interference. The most disastrous results have taken place when Government has issued its own notes as currency; and when it has limited itself to establishing or aiding banks, the least injurious results have followed when the banks have been most left to themselves.

We are so accustomed to the limited liability of the stockholders of commercial corporations that we are apt to forget that the common law knows nothing of this principle. Those who associate themselves in any business enterprise, unless protected by statute, are partners, and their whole estates are subject to the claims of their creditors. Where this principle has been applied to banks, as in Scotland, the security of noteholders has been practically complete. It has often been found possible to depart from it with a considerable degree of safety, and in practice the partnership principle in banking is obsolete; but un-

less the laws under which banking corporations are formed are extremely conservative, there is sure to be trouble. Mr. Conant's book is a commentary on such legislation, and it is deserving of high praise. He has brought together the principal facts concerning banks of issue throughout the commercial world—facts in many cases inaccessible to American readers—and has produced an encyclopædia of the subject, brought down to the present year. It contains much matter that is outside the strict limits of bank currency, but the activity of government has been so incessant and so potent that it would have been impossible to ignore it.

The history of banking in this country and in the United Kingdom may be presumed to be familiar to most readers, and Mr. Conant's account of it calls for no particular comment. His description of the banking experience of the kingdom of Italy, especially in recent years, might well have been more detailed. The lessons to be derived from it are precisely those which the American people must somehow learn, and would do well to learn from the experience of other nations. Concerning the Bank of France it is perhaps worth while to note that its charter expires in 1897, and, with the present constitution of the French legislature, it is appalling to think of what may be proposed when that period is reached. We can only say that concerning the banks of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia Mr. Conant writes in an interesting way, and that he furnishes but meagre information concerning the banks of Latin America, Africa, and the Orient. The chapters on commercial crises are of course germane, but it would perhaps have been better to give the space to more particular details of some of the institutions concerning which we know little. The concluding chapter, on the advantages of a banking currency, is excellent, and the essence of the matter is well expressed in an observation of Lord Sydenham's, that "nothing is easier to conduct than the business of a banker, if he will only learn the difference between a mortgage and a bill of exchange." Altogether Mr. Conant's book is to be heartily recommended.

Lectures on the Darwinian Theory. Delivered by the late Arthur Milnes Marshall, M.A., M.D., etc. Edited by C. F. Marshall, M.D., etc. London: D. Nutt; New York: Macmillan & Co. Imp. 8vo, pp. 236, illustrated.

Prof. Marshall says the best that has been said for the Darwinian theory. His exposition is better adapted to general readers than that of more prominent authorities. He has a charming style; his lectures are models of lucidity and compactness. That he is a partisan is evident, but not disagreeably so. There is a familiar appearance in many of his statements, and perhaps we cannot do better than bring together such a number of them as will define the theory as he saw it. "The theory of natural selection teaches that there are in nature causes which act in much the same way as man acts when selecting artificially for breeding purposes; causes which must lead to structural modifications." (Man's principal function in this connection may rather be likened to isolation, in that he provides opportunity for the action of evolutionary factors.) "Natural selection is a slow process, depending on the gradual accumulation of small variations for the acquirement of which we have no actual standard of time"; it "accounts for any amount of modification in an organ when once established, modification in any direction, either of increase or decrease, but does not offer any explanation of the first appearance of such an organ"; it "can only act on an organ after it has already attained sufficient size to be of practical importance and utility"; it acts "by the continuous preservation of a series of very minute variations." (Hence, all variations have equal chances of preservation until one or more is made use of. "Sports" are neglected here; and a tendency to sport and to accumulate such variation is outside the limits.) "The vast majority of animals and plants that come into the world are doomed to die early"; "the more favored ones will not only survive, but will tend to hand down to their descendants their special advantages"; "the struggle for existence results in the survival of the fittest"; the theory "does not say that the ideally best survive, but those most in harmony with their surroundings for the time being"; "the real struggle is between the most closely allied and therefore competing forms." (The inference that the early death of the vast majority is caused by closely allied forms is not warranted.) "Natural selection does not of necessity involve progression or change of any kind, and is quite consistent with a stationary condition, provided that the environment, or at least all the features of the environment affecting them [the persistent types], remains unchanged." In mimicry, "at first there is more or less accidental resemblance"; "the mode of acquisition of mimicry is by the gradual action of natural selection, and must have been accidental in the first instance"; "the colors of animals and plants are no mere accidents, and are not created for our special benefit, but are directly useful to their possessors and have been acquired because they are useful." "Every species is for itself and for itself alone"; "natural selection acts for the good of the species"; "it will tend to preserve the instinct because it is *advantageous to the species, although of no benefit to the individual.*"

The following extracts, for comparison, are from Darwin: "Although natural selection can act only through and for the good of each being, yet characters and structures which we are apt to consider as of very trifling importance may thus be acted upon." "Natural selection acts only by the preservation and accumulation of small inherited modifications, each profitable to the preserved being." "As the individuals of the same species come in all respects into the closest competition with each other, the struggle will generally be most severe between them." The subjoined quotation, also from Darwin, is of a kind which our author considers to be most in need of proof: "There can be little doubt that the tendency to vary in the same manner has often been so strong that all the individuals of the same species have been similarly modified without the aid of any form of selection."

A eulogistic notice of Darwin's life and works concludes the series of lectures.

Notes on the Text of the Book of Genesis. With an appendix. By G. J. Spurrell, M.A. Second edition, revised and corrected. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

These "Notes," the first edition of which appeared in 1887, are, as is frankly professed in the preface, substantially a compilation from the commentaries of Tuch, Delitzsch, and Dillmann, and are intended for the use of beginners who take Genesis for a first reading-book in Hebrew. For the benefit of this class, the forms of words and the structure of sentences are very minutely explained, with superabundant references to various grammars. The appearance of a second edition proves that the book has not been found useless; but it is very ill adapted to its primary purpose. The author's "beginners" are supposed not to know their paradigms or the rudiments of syntax, and at the same time to be able to profit by extracts from the Targums and the Syriac and Arabic versions in the original, and to digest etymologies in all the Semitic languages and alphabets. Much space and time is wasted on the etymology of rare or foreign words and of proper names. Thus, of the word "cherub" no less than eight explanations are quoted, six of which the author himself dismisses as "precarious and improbable," the other two being unproved; the only thing reasonably certain is that it is a foreign word. Much of this matter, like the six etymologies of "cherub" exhumed from Gesenius's 'Thesaurus,' is sheer rubbish, and hardly any of it is of any conceivable use to the beginner.

The second edition is enlarged by an Introduction on the sources and composition of Genesis derived chiefly from Holzinger and Driver, which takes the place of the very inadequate treatment of the same subject in Appendix I. of the former edition. Some additions have been made to the text and some errors corrected; but it can hardly be said that the work has been thoroughly revised and brought up to date. We miss references to many important recent discussions of points treated in the notes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Advertising in New England: A Complete Handbook for 1896-7. Boston: C. H. Guild & Co.
Alden, Mrs. G. R. Making Fate. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Andrews, G. A. Composite Geometrical Figures. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55c.
Bardeen, C. W. A Manual of Common School Law. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Barker, Wharton. Bimetallism. Philadelphia: Barker Publishing Co. 50c.
Benson, E. F. The Babe, B. A. Putnams. $1.
Bétis, Victor, and Swan, Howard. The Facts of Life. Part I. Scribners. 80c.
Blossom, H. M., jr. Checkers: A Hard-Luck Story. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Boothby, Guy. Dr. Nikola. Appletons.
Bunner, H. C. The Suburban Sage. Keppler & Schwarzmann.
Castries, Comte Henry de. L'Islam: Impressions et Études. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Colt, J. O. The Religion of Manhood. Putnams. 75c.
Curtis, W. E. The Yankees of the East: Sketches of Modern Japan. 2 vols. New York: Stone & Kimball.
D'Almazan, La Duchesse. Mémoires du Baron D'Haussez. Tome premier. Paris: Lévy; New York: Brentano's.
Du Bose, Rev. W. P. The Ecumenical Councils. [Epochs of Church History.] New York: Christian Literature Co. $1.50.
Eckoff, Prof. W. J. Herbart's A B C of Sense-Perception. Appletons.
Eddy, Rev. D. C. Saxenhurst: A Story of the Old World and New. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.50.
Eigennamen, L. van F. Friesch Woordenboek. Aflevering 1. Leeuwarden: Meijer & Schaafsma.
Fisher, G. P., jr. Out of the Woods: A Romance of Camp Life. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Fitch, Clyde. Some Correspondence and Six Conversations. Stone & Kimball. $1.
Goodwin, Rev. T. A. Lovers Three Thousand Years Ago. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 15c.
Hale, W. B. Handbook on the Law of Damages. St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $3.75.
Harris, Rev M. H. Selected Addresses. New York: Philip Cowen.
Hawthorne, Julian. Love is a Spirit. Harpers. $1.25.
Initiatory French Readings. W. R. Jenkins. 75c.
Lavedan, Henri. Les Petites Visites. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's.
Le Gallienne, Richard. Prose Fancies. Second Series. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Lubbock, Sir John. The Scenery of Switzerland, and the Causes to which It is Due. Macmillan. $1.50.
Massie, D. M. Nathaniel Massie: A Pioneer of Ohio. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $2.
McPherson, L. G. The Monetary and Banking Problem. Appletons.
Moulton, Prof. R. G. Biblical Idyls. Macmillan. 50c.
Nietzsche, F. Thus Spake Zarathustra: A Book for All and None. Macmillan. $2.50.
Parsons, Cornelia M. A Secret of the Sea. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 50c.
Pemberton, Caroline H. Your Little Brother James. Stamford, N. Y.: *Recorder* Book Press.
Poot, Miss M. L. Mrs. Gerald. Harpers. $1.50.
Remords d'Avocat. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Thackeray, F. St. J. Memoir of Dr. Hawtrey of Eton. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Twain, Mark. Life on the Mississippi. Harpers. $1.75.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 6, 1896.

The Week.

THE practical failure of the New York city loan of $3,800,000 and the similar failure of the $1,500,000 loan in Brooklyn must be ascribed to the silver scare, for, although the bonds are specifically payable in gold, people who have money are very loath to part with it in squally times. They prefer to "keep themselves strong," as the saying is. This is especially true of savings banks, which are usually glad to get New York city bonds bearing 3½ per cent. interest. If they find their customers in an uneasy frame of mind, they fortify themselves with cash, not with securities, even of the gilt-edged variety. The Comptroller says that if he cannot sell the bonds, the city improvements must stop. Precisely so. The public business is getting into the same condition as other business. People will not invest their money in private enterprises till they know what the standard of value is to be. If that question is settled satisfactorily, there will be such an outpour of capital for American investment as has not been seen since 1879-82, when specie payments were resumed. Then everything that has a substantial value behind it will sell, and investors will climb over each other to get city bonds bearing 3½ per cent. interest.

Mr. McKinley is to be congratulated on having at last screwed his courage to the sticking-point and actually pronounced the dread word "gold." On the ears of some Pennsylvania pilgrims to Canton the word first fell on Thursday, and they did not blanch or tremble, but loudly cheered the gallant Major. He said "gold," it is true, in a casual and somewhat furtive way, looking around, as it were, for something to catch hold of when the crash came, and also hastening thereafter to take a good pull at the tariff to steady his nerves. But no crash came; the sun kept on shining and the earth did not rock. The next day, accordingly, Mr. McKinley rose fairly and squarely to the demands of the situation, declaring that in the future every dollar paid out by the Government, whether to bondholders or pensioners, should have the value of a gold dollar, as it had had that value in the past. He was especially happy in recalling to the old soldiers the distinguished services of their great commander, Grant, in vetoing the inflation bill and in signing the act that at once made the credit of our country unsurpassed by restoring the gold standard of value. It is greatly to be desired that in this campaign the issue of national honor shall be made prominent. Appeals to the selfish interests of classes may be effective, but they cannot arouse much enthusiasm. But appeals to loyalty and patriotism will be irresistible. They cannot be met by the free-silver advocates. The strongest motives to which they can appeal are the desire to get gain by dubious measures, and the emotion of envy. These are at times powerful motives, but they stand no chance of prevailing when honor is on the other side. Many plain people are confused by the intricacies of numerical ratios of values and coinage, and by confounding money and capital; but they can grasp the simple issue of maintaining the good faith of the Government. On this ground an aggressive campaign can be fought, and the advocates of cheap money compelled to explain away their own proposals.

Those who have been shuddering for fear the ship of state might be driven from her moorings by the cyclonic blasts of Bryan, may be counselled to read the calm utterances of Secretary Morton. He has a way of packing about as much good sense in his speeches as plain words will convey, and it is to be remembered that he is a Nebraskan, that he has been long prominent in political life, and that he has been very popular. It is certainly a cause for gratification that the issues of the present election are to be presented to Western farmers by so able and persuasive a speaker as the Secretary for the Department of Agriculture, and Mr. Bryan may find, when he undertakes the invasion of the Eastern States, that his enemies have captured his own stronghold. Mr. Morton brought out very forcibly, in the speech that he has just delivered at home, the influences that led to the demonetization of silver. If there was a conspiracy in 1873 against silver, he said, there was a crime against the flatboat by the steamboat, and a crime against the steamboat by the railroad, and against the horse by the trolley car and bicycle. We have enough silver dollars now, he said, to put $5.50 into the hands of every man, woman, and child in the United States. But they will not circulate. Modern business cannot be done with ancient appliances. A mowing-machine costs more than a scythe, but no farmer thinks that a scythe is cheaper because it costs less. A locomotive may cost $10,000 and a horse but $100; nevertheless the locomotive is a more economical instrument than the horse. Money does not differ in this respect from other tools. No one who wielded an axe would choose one thirty times as heavy as one that was equally good, although the latter cost thirty times as much. Every one who drives a plough selects the lightest one that will do the work. The term "cheap" applied to money is no recommendation unless we take efficiency into account. Such plain truths as these need to be repeated, line upon line, and we are glad that Secretary Morton has taken up the work.

Mr. Bourke Cockran has lost no time since his return from Europe in choosing and stating his position in the pending electoral contest. He squarely repudiates the repudiating candidates and platform of his party, and announces his intention to do all in his power to secure the election of Mr. McKinley. He has already offered his services as a stump-speaker for the honest-money cause, and no one who knows his capacities as a popular orator, and especially his great effectiveness in dealing with economic questions, can fail to regard this reinforcement as a notable one. Mr. Cockran also reminds Tammany how large a share of its brains it lost when it lost him, by pointing out to the eager Sheehans and Purroys that what they have done by their endorsement of Bryan is really to declare in favor of incorporating into the statute law of the country doctrines which they themselves had denounced as a singular combination of lunacy and villany. On the question of a third ticket Mr. Cockran takes a somewhat novel line. He agrees that there should be a convention of gold-standard Democrats to assert the true party creed and to associate themselves in an effort to bring about the defeat of Bryan. But he thinks that they should not nominate independent candidates of their own. They should, he believes, make an explicit avowal of their principles and of their determination to oppose Bryan and the Chicago platform at all hazards, and then simply endorse the McKinley electors. This, it seems to us, for reasons already set forth in these columns, betrays a somewhat defective grasp of the case for a separate Democratic ticket, with separate candidates pledged to make an aggressive fight.

Senator Jones of Arkansas occupies an uncomfortable position. It was a thankless task to attempt to guide such a horde of discordant and opinionated human beings as were gathered at the Populist convention at St. Louis, and the result achieved has been so embarrassing that apparently neither Mr. Bryan nor any one else knows what to do about it. The terrible Watson is openly defiant, and, being the most prominent representative of the Populists, he can make the diplomatic politicians of the Bryan party a great deal of trouble. In fact, Mr. Watson appears to have exhausted the stock of patience with which Senator Jones was provided, and the latter has been guilty of the extraordinary mistake of holding a "conversa-

tion with two newspaper men" which he "regarded in the light of a private conversation." The two newspaper men, true to their nature, took a different view of the matter and gave the conversation a most awkward publicity. According to their account, Senator Jones gave the Southern Populists a very bad name, and intimated a willingness to have them "go to the negroes, where they belong." Probably nothing more offensive to the Southern Populists could have been said; and as they have the uncomfortable feeling of being really engaged in pulling the Democratic chestnuts out of the fire, they are sufficiently ready to take offence. It is but justice to Senator Jones to say that he denies having used the expression in question.

The election in Alabama on Monday seems to have resulted in an honest victory for the Democrats. The Fusionists will, of course, cry fraud, now that they have been beaten, but the evidence appears overwhelming that a good majority of the voters of the State preferred the Democratic ticket to the Republican-Populist combine. There was every reason why an intelligent man should make this choice. Johnston and Goodwyn, the Democratic and Fusionist candidates for Governor, are equally strong free-coinage men, but the influences behind Johnston promise a far better administration of State affairs than could have been expected from the "combine." Sound-money men, like Secretary Herbert, therefore, supported the Democratic ticket, and its success is undoubtedly best for the State.

The point raised in the arbitration correspondence between Lord Salisbury and Mr. Olney by the former—that it is important in a general treaty of arbitration to provide means in advance for withdrawing from it—is one which ought not to stand in the way of an agreement. A treaty of arbitration is like any other treaty, binding only so long as both parties feel bound to adhere to it. If either party becomes thoroughly convinced that a treaty imperils its substantial interests or honor, it will infallibly withdraw, and if necessary go to war. No treaty can prevent this, and it is therefore unnecessary to agree that it shall not be prevented by a treaty. One or two notorious instances in our own history illustrate this. The controversy over the claims for damage done by the *Alabama* created a state of popular irritation between England and the United States which threatened war. To avert this danger the claims were referred to arbitration, and hardly had this been done when the presentation of what were called our "indirect claims" made feeling on the English side run high again—the English grievance being that claims, enormous in amount, and not intended to be included in the treaty, ought not to be discussed at all. England threatened to withdraw. Had she withdrawn, the arbitration itself, the object of which was to secure peace, might have ended in war, and the arbitration treaty would have been mere waste paper. The knot was cut by the tribunal at Geneva deciding in advance that no such claims could be entertained. To this we voluntarily submitted, but no one could have compelled us to do so. In the same way the United States withdrew from its treaties with France of 1778, on the ground that France had violated some of their provisions. The important thing is to agree to arbitrate. Elaborate machinery to enable people to break a treaty is something new in diplomacy.

Such machinery in a treaty of arbitration is especially out of place because it tends to give the document an air of unreality. The essence of arbitration is that both parties agree in advance to *submit* to the award, and hence Lord Salisbury's suggestion of an agreement that any difference whatever (*i. e.*, such as involves honor or national integrity) may be submitted, with the proviso that the award shall not be valid unless accepted by both parties, is really a suggestion not of arbitration, but of escape from arbitration. Mr. Olney's suggestion in reply that it should be agreed that either party may withdraw in advance, on declaring its honor or integrity involved, is unnecessary, because this is what will be done whether it is provided or not, and it would seem as if final submission was not the whole object of the treaty. The fact is, that the ways of escape from arbitration are so unlimited in number that neither party risks anything in submitting to it, except the danger of being prevented by a sense of duty from committing a wrong—the very danger which it is desirable to prevent.

The proclamation of President Cleveland warning all persons of the consequences of violating our neutrality laws by rendering active assistance to the Cubans, is certainly a very commendable exercise of the power of the executive. Coming immediately after the wholesome result of the trial of the "filibusters" led by Dr. Jameson, it is calculated to promote respect for the obligations of international law, and to restrain the sympathizers with Cuba within bounds. It is quite probable that, before the recent decision of our Supreme Court, many of these persons believed that they might organize expeditions to land arms and forces in Cuba without danger except from the Spaniards. Mr. Cleveland points out that the organization of such expeditions, or the furnishing arms therefor, or the aiding in their transportation, is punishable and will be punished under the statutes of the United States. The proclamation is thus an act of mercy towards ignorant persons who are in danger of being misguided by the Cuban agents, and it can hardly fail to have a good effect upon Spanish feeling, as showing that the gratuitous expressions of hostility by Congress will not affect the punctilious discharge of our international obligations by the Administration.

There are two important points which lie at the root of the New York charter question, yet which down to the present moment have received little or no intelligent discussion. The first is, that, as matters now stand, the same body which has power to adopt a charter for Greater New York has power also, except so far as restrained by the Constitution, to amend, alter, or even repeal it the next day. One of the things which make it so difficult to get any good government in the city at present is the constant meddling of the Legislature with the form of government. Only last winter we barely escaped a complete remodelling of the Police Board to satisfy the private ends of Platt, whose relation to the legislative control of New York was much the same as Sheehan's or Croker's would be were Tammany in power. Now the object of a new charter is, in part, to give the public at large the control of city affairs, and to take it away from both machines, Republican as well as Tammany, and this will not be attained by any new form of government which does not take away from the Legislature at Albany all control over the charter. This control of the Legislature, which is in reality the control of a boss, will not be done away by the adoption of a new charter, either by popular or legislative vote. Nothing short of a constitutional amendment forbidding special legislation at Albany with reference to the city will accomplish this. The city of Chicago has been entirely freed from its former legislative incubus by this means, and it is conceded that the change has been followed by just that sort of stimulus to municipal spirit and growth of corporate responsibility and energy which everybody desires so much here.

The other point is, that experience proves that the work of a city like New York is not legislative but administrative in its character; and hence we do not need a local legislature, like the British Parliament or the Congress of the United States. Opening, paving, lighting, cleaning, and watering the streets, taking care of the public money, protecting the city's legal interests, policing it, taking care of the poor, insane, and criminals, putting out and preventing fires, preventing disease, taking care of the parks and docks, are all matters of administrative business affecting the whole city. They have been attended to now for twenty years by administrative bodies called commissions, which have only been hindered and

interfered with by legislation at Albany. Even the taxes have been successfully raised during this period by a similar board only in part elective. For nearly a generation the whole legislative branch of the city government, which once consisted of two large popularly elected bodies, has withered away and lost its powers by a kind of atrophy because the organs are no longer of any use. To go back now to this antiquated form of government, as Messrs. Dean and De Witt's first charter draft seems to contemplate, would merely be to set on foot again a species of government which experience shows we have outgrown. Their proposed borough boards, for example, are to have local powers over matters which are not local at all, such as streets and avenues, and which are now satisfactorily discharged by the Police Commissioners and the Commissioners of Public Works. Such boards are merely superfluous, resembling in this respect the old school trustees, and could only tend to confusion and corruption.

They have strange ways of administering justice in England. We are supposed to have substantially the same criminal jurisprudence in this country, but if Dr. Jameson and his associates had been put on trial in New York, no one can say how long the trial would have taken, or whether a conviction would not have been upset by the higher courts, and it is very doubtful if a conviction could have been obtained anyway. In the first place, it would probably have taken a month to get a jury. Everybody that had any business of his own would have tried to escape serving, knowing that it would be several weeks, probably, before he would be discharged from his attendance at court. Everybody that manifested any degree of intelligence would have been excluded, and whoever had any clear convictions, as in such a matter as the Jameson raid people who keep informed of the course of events must have, would have been challenged. After a jury entirely free from every suspicion of intelligence and independent judgment had been obtained, the lawyers would have had unlimited opportunities for irrelevant inquiries and magniloquent speeches, and the incompetent jury would have been so thoroughly confused as to be unable to agree on a verdict. The expense of all this would have been enormous, and the law would have been brought into greater contempt. But in England the whole thing is over in less time than it would have taken here to secure a couple of jurymen; and, the court being strongly constituted, there is no reason to expect a pardon. The sentences were certainly light in view of the bloodshed that was occasioned by the raid, but, considering all the influences and sentiments involved, it must be said that the majesty of the law has been vindicated, and that too with most satisfactory promptness.

Mr. Gerald Balfour has had little better luck with his Irish Land bill than his brother Arthur had with the Education bill. The failure in either case has been due mainly to the fact that the legislation attempted was class legislation. The Education bill was shaped to meet the views of the bishops, and the Land bill, for a time, to meet the demands of the landlords. The crux of the bill was that old and familiar crux of all Irish land legislation—the question of tenants' improvements. These seemed to be safeguarded in the first draft of the bill, but suddenly a lot of amendments were put down on the paper by the Irish Secretary, the intent of which was practically to confiscate all tenants' improvements in the fine old Irish way. Then came on a tremendous row, extending to the sacred precincts of the cabinet. T. W. Russell, who had accepted a place in the Government on the distinct agreement with Lord Salisbury that the new Irish Land bill should afford complete protection to tenants' improvements, was bitterly outspoken against these landlords' amendments, and had the quiet but powerful aid of Mr. Chamberlain. The result was such a pressure on the ministry that they incontinently withdrew the very amendments they had put forward. But their vacillation has aroused all sorts of angry suspicions, one of the most generally believed being that the offensive amendments will be tacked on in the House of Lords.

It is not very surprising that the anarchists of Europe should have been tempted to insist on participating in the counsels of the International Congress of Socialists and Trade-Unionists at London. Perhaps their inflammable imaginations were fired with the reports of Gov. Altgeld's remarkable achievement in this country, whereby he captured in a day a great political organization. This international congress was really a gathering of some importance. The number of representatives from Great Britain was large. Some years ago the Socialists succeeded in getting control of the Trade-Union Congress, and although they were shaken off by skilful management, they have maintained a great deal of influence, and apparently represent the sentiments of a pretty large body of workmen. Probably half of the British delegates to the recent congress were elected by socialistic organizations, the other half being direct representatives of trade-unions. The Social Democratic Federation and the Independent Labor party each had more than 100 delegates. The French Labor party sent its representatives; quite a number of the Socialist members of the Chamber of Deputies were there, and many of the Socialist mayors and councillors. From Belgium there came seven representatives of the Society of Socialist University Students, and of course a large contingent was present from Germany. Delegates were in attendance from Austria, Italy, Hungary, Sweden, Denmark, Russia, and even the Balkan States; Australia and the United States being scarcely represented.

The attempt to establish "International Socialism" has encountered so many difficulties of late as to have become almost hopeless. Some of the German Socialists have advanced so far as to prefer the interests of mankind to those of their own country, and at the recent congress at Lille they assured the delegates from France of their disapprobation of the conquest of Alsace and Lorraine. The allusion, however, was too much for the impetuous Gallic temper, and the enlightened Germans were informed that the era of universal brotherhood would be postponed until revenge had been taken for the "crime of 1871." This outbreak of chauvinism naturally has had the effect of causing the Germans to withdraw their fraternal suggestions as premature, and the prospects of "internationalism" are again beclouded. Of course the fierce quarrels at the London congress have contributed to this result, and a tone of discouragement is notable in the Socialistic journals; the gloom being intensified by complaints from all quarters that the funds of the party organizations are running low.

It is somewhat surprising to find a man like Leroy-Beaulieu defending the French annexation of Madagascar on the ground that only in that way can French trade enjoy a monopoly in the island. If a mere protectorate were to be assumed by France, as was at first proposed, the existing favored-nation treaties with England, Germany, and the United States would be still in force. By making Madagascar a French colony outright, however, the slate is sponged clean, and French commerce, under French protective tariffs, given first chance. After losing 7,000 men and spending $30,000,000 in conquering the island, it would be the most exquisite simple-mindedness, argues M. Leroy-Beaulieu, to pursue any other course. Shall Frenchmen labor and then stupidly allow Englishmen and Germans and Americans to enter into their labors? Yet just this exquisite simple-mindedness has always marked English colonial policy, the success of which contrasts favorably with the rather painful results of French colonizing experiments. In an English colony one nation has as good a chance as another, and somehow the plan has worked well. Strangely enough, the more the foreign capital that has been brought in to develop the colonies, the more rapidly they have developed, and the better it has been both for the colony and for England. Colonial monopoly, on the other hand, is as bad in practice as it is in theory.

MR. REED'S SPEECH.

Mr. Thomas B. Reed made the opening speech of the campaign at the town of Alfred, Maine, last week. By "opening speech" we mean the first one made by any man, on either side of politics, that can be considered a thoughtful argument appealing to the human reason, and treating its hearers as men assembled together to consult for the common good and not as mere "hollering" machines. In this respect it forms a happy augury and suggests the campaign of education, about which we hear so much promise and meet with so little performance. It is a long time since we have heard a Republican stump speaker allow that there was any good in the Democratic party. Mr. Reed's discoveries in that line have been rather meagre in former campaigns. It is all the more to his credit that he now recurs to the Democratic support extended to President Lincoln in the war for the Union in such strong terms as these:

"I have said that it would be unwise, unjust, and senseless to confound the Democratic organization with individual Democrats. I have said, also, that that would be flouting a part of our own history, and a glorious part of our history, too. Why, it is within the memory of a third, and perhaps half, of this very audience which listens to me, that when the terrible war of the rebellion burst forth, tens of thousands of Democrats—politicians, strong party men—sprang to their feet, representing hundreds of thousands, aye, millions, and thenceforth and always were part and parcel of the bone and sinew of the victorious republic. What matter if the party had gone wrong? They were right. One man among them, one man alone, by a single sentence gave aid and succor to this Government which outweighed a whole army corps of veterans, musket on shoulder. When Stephen A. Douglas declared, after Sumter was fired on, that 'thenceforth there could be but two parties, patriots and traitors,' he won the respect even of foes and an imperishable place in history. We shall certainly welcome all such men to-day—not that they are to be Republicans, for they will not be, but because they are patriots, for that they must be."

Mr. Reed's references to the tariff question were not in any sense offensive to those who consider protective tariffs a delusion. All persons recognize the fact that if the Bryan ticket is to be beaten in this campaign, it must be beaten mainly by Republican votes, and that the kind of campaign necessary to hold those votes together and make them conducive to success must be made. The Republican leaders ought to know best what kind of campaign is needed to secure this part of the common result. We think that Mr. Reed has hit the mark pretty well in putting the tariff first in the order of his discourse, but making it second in the amount of time bestowed upon it. At least two-thirds of his speech was on the money question, and here he was very strong.

He plunged *in medias res* by showing the effect of a cheap dollar on the wages of laboring men. This, as we have heretofore pointed out, is the keynote of the campaign. "Wages," said Mr. Reed, "in greenback times, did not go up as other things did. They went part way, but not all the way up, and were very slow about that." This is the exact truth. Every experiment with depreciated currency in our history—and there have been many such in colonial as well as later periods—has had that invariable result. The prices of commodities have risen at once because there was no resistance to a rise. Indeed, they have generally risen in anticipation, before there was any actual need of a rise. They have done so because people knew beforehand that there must be a rise, and have bought on speculation to get the advantage of it. But there is always resistance to a rise of wages. The rate of wages is a matter of agreement between two persons or two classes. Wages are never advanced merely because the workman's expenses have increased. Other considerations come in, and principally the employer's ability to pay an increased rate. Now it almost always happens that a depreciation of the currency, instead of making business better, and thus enabling the employer to pay more, makes business worse because investors are alarmed. They either hoard their money or send it out of the country. This is generally the first consequence, so that the advance in prices of commodities is accompanied by a loss of employment for a certain number of laborers at the outset. What the wage-earner has to look forward to, as an immediate result, if the silverite policy is adopted, is a 53-cent dollar at the pay-table in place of the 100 cents he now gets, and an increased price of the goods he buys. What will happen afterwards is a matter of conjecture. Our conjecture is that the next step will be a paper dollar more depreciated than the silver one, and that there will be no end short of the fate that overtook the Confederate currency and the Continental currency and the assignats of the French Revolution. This is what the Populists want now. What they want to day the Populist-Democracy or Popocracy will want to-morrow, because it is only on such terms that the two wings can be held together, and in fact the difference between them in this matter is a difference of degree and not of kind.

We cannot point out all the excellences of Mr. Reed's speech. One effect it will have most undoubtedly: it will confirm the intentions of those sound-money Democrats who are inclined to vote the Republican ticket this year. Those who cannot do so will be equally confirmed in the purpose to support a third ticket. It would be possible for a man in Mr. Reed's position to make himself and his party offensive and thus send votes back to Bryan and close up the ranks. The tone which he has adopted ought to be the tone of the Republican campaign throughout. If it is so, the happiest results may be expected. The sound-money Democrats will go their own way, but none of them will be goaded to the support of Bryan by reason of anything done or said by the Republicans.

SECRETARY CARLISLE'S LETTER.

Secretary Carlisle has written a letter to F. W. Alsop of Little Rock, Ark., on the effect which the free coinage of silver would have on policies of life insurance, and incidentally on all money payments whatsoever. The letter was written officially in response to a request for information regarding the powers and duties of the Government. President Greene of the Connecticut Life Insurance Co. had written a statement, which had been widely published, saying that if the policy of free coinage of silver were adopted, his company would be compelled to pay its policies in silver dollars worth only a little more than fifty cents each. Mr. Alsop cut out this statement, sent it to Secretary Carlisle, and asked whether this were true. The Secretary replied that it was true, because the insurance companies and all other institutions would continue to make their payments by drawing checks on the banks; and that under free coinage "the whole volume of our currency would sink at once to the silver basis, and these checks and drafts would be paid in silver dollars or their equivalent, instead of gold or its equivalent, as is now the case." Here the Secretary might have stopped, as he had answered the specific question put to him, but he went on and gave some explanations that are particularly needed at the present time. Already in this campaign it has been made abundantly manifest that a great many people think that the Government would "stand behind" the silver dollar and keep it at par with gold if a free-coinage law were passed, just as it does now. One of the hardest things to make people understand is that the Government could not possibly do such a thing. The strongest Government in the world could not do it, since it would be no less a task than to give a full dollar for every 53 cents' worth of silver in the whole world, including all that is worn for ornament in India or sold as sycee bars in China, and all that may be mined hereafter. The Government is able to keep at par the silver dollars heretofore coined for its own account, because the number of them is limited to about the amount that will circulate from hand to hand. If the amount were materially increased, it could not do so. If it were indefinitely increased, they would fall to the value of the bullion contained in them.

"I presume," says Mr. Carlisle, "no one supposes for a moment that it would be the duty of the Government to attempt to keep the standard silver dollar, coined free for private individuals and corporations, equal in value to a gold dollar—or, in other words, that it would be the duty of the Government to attempt, under a system of free coinage, to maintain the parity of the two metals. The dollars would be coined on private account and delivered to private individuals and corporations as their own property, the Government having no interest whatever in them, and being, therefore, under no obligation to sustain them by guaranteeing their value."

Mr. Carlisle might have said much less

than this while fully answering the question put to him. The fact that he went into explanations somewhat lengthy indicates, at all events, that he is not going to support Bryan and Sewall in the campaign, for he could not deliberately advocate a policy which, as he shows, would result in cheating widows and orphans out of nearly one-half of the money laid up for their benefit by the toil and savings of their deceased husbands and fathers.

Why could not the insurance companies pay as good money as they have received in the past? Simply because what they have received in the past they have already paid, minus what they have accumulated as surplus. Their past claims have been paid with their past receipts. Future ones must be paid with their future receipts. No company or person can pay out 100 cents where he receives 53 and continue long in business. If we should see any merchant doing so now, we should know that his name would soon adorn the list of bankruptcies. It would be possible for the companies to issue gold policies thereafter on condition that the premiums should be paid in gold, and by making their loans and other investments specifically on the gold basis. This would be possible under present laws, but we cannot overlook the fact that both of the platforms on which Mr. Bryan is running for President call for the passage of laws by Congress to prevent people from making gold contracts. Any other kind of a contract may be made, and the law will enforce it—contracts for stone, iron, whiskey, or dynamite—but a contract for the one article which constitutes the money of civilized mankind, including ourselves, must not be tolerated if the Popocracy carry the election.

It is needless to say that all principles governing life-insurance policies govern all other financial institutions—fire, marine, and accident companies, truat companies, savings banks, national banks, and the whole list. These are your true debtor class. These are the concerns that owe the largest sums of money to the people of the United States. They represent fully one hundred times as much debt as all the farm mortgages in the country. Why are they not usually classed as debtors? The fact that they are debtors is notorious, and is acknowledged by every one who bestows any thought on the subject. The reason why they are not so classed must be because they are in the habit of paying their debts promptly. The popular conception of a debtor, or at all events the Populist conception, is one who does not pay promptly. The ideal debtor is one who does not pay at all. It is for the benefit of this interesting class that all the business of the country is to be turned upside down.

THE SOUTH IN THE NEW WARFARE.

It is not without significance that the defenders of our national honor find themselves confronted with a "solid South." The Southern States for many years practically controlled the policy of the general Government. Seeing the control passing away from their hands, they attempted to dissolve the Union, and since the failure of that attempt they have been powerless to a humiliating degree. The bitter memories of the civil war made it impolitic to nominate Southerners for high national office, or for Southerners to make themselves prominent in support of any policy. They had to play the part of repentant prodigals, who may be welcomed back to the family circle, but who are expected to maintain a submissive and unobtrusive behavior. They were miserably poor, but they had to support the pension acts of Congress, which taxed the South practically for the exclusive benefit of the North. At any aggressive action of theirs they were liable to be called rebels and traitors, and altogether their political leaders were compelled to pick their way with the utmost caution.

So long as the old aristocracy of the South maintained its traditional authority this policy was skilfully carried out. But this aristocracy was doomed by the loss of its slaves, which involved the loss of its land. As Tocqueville says, there is no real aristocracy but a landed aristocracy. Only land secures at the same time prestige and loyalty, and the great families of the South were gradually dissolved among the people. So far as they were educated and intellectually gifted, their members had influence; but the "poor whites" could not indefinitely tolerate the assertion of a superiority which had no more substantial basis to rest upon than the traditions of a former generation. They revolted, and during the last few years the Southern States have sent to Congress many representatives of a very degraded type — men like Tillman and Watson, whose intemperance of language shows their ignorance of the very elements of statecraft. It is hardly necessary to add that the illegal practices connected with the suppression of the negro vote were not of a nature to develop statesmanship of the purest order.

The mischief of this result is now clearly apparent. So long as the policy of the "solid South" was directed by statesmen, the country was in no danger from the fact that the vote of a large section was controlled by one party. There was sufficient wisdom among the leaders of that party, whose principles were on the whole sound and conservative, to prevent any distinctly sectional legislation. But with the disappearance of the old-fashioned Southern statesmen the management of the party became more difficult. Mr. Cleveland succeeded for a while, and to a certain extent, but the demagogues, knowing that they were the people, and that wisdom would die with them, finally revolted. They have overborne by numbers and clamor the counsels of the former leaders, and, intoxicated with apparent success and the hope of power, have unfolded a political programme worthy of the French Convention of 1793.

In the remarkable letter written by Mr. Cleveland to Justice Lamar in 1892, which has just been published, this situation was clearly predicted.

> "Forces are at work," he wrote, "which certainly mean the complete turning-back of the hands on the dial of Democracy, and the destruction of party hopes. . . . Our Southern friends, if they persist, will be left alone with their free-coinage heresy. The danger is that another Southern idea and a charge of heedlessness for the public safety on the financial question will do service in the place of the memories of the civil war."

That danger has not been escaped, and we once more behold the Southern States assuming an air of hostility to the civilization of the North. Our institutions are based upon the idea of freedom of contract, and we are threatened with laws prohibiting contracts payable in anything but what Congress shall from time to time declare legal tender. Our wealth has been developed by the just and generous remuneration of labor by capital; and in the section where formerly laborers were slaves, and where they are now scarcely free citizens, a policy is proclaimed which would injure every laborer in the land.

A still more remarkable warning was long since uttered by a sagacious man, Samuel J. Tilden, to which attention was called last week by a correspondent of the New York *Times*. In a conversation, the date of which is unfortunately not given, with a gentleman from one of the seceding States, the latter remarked that the Democratic party appeared to be permanently disabled. Mr. Tilden replied:

> "It seems to be broken down at present, and it is broken down; but it will come up again, and will once more gain control of the Government. But this situation will not be permanent. In order to come into power the Democracy must have the support and assistance of the Southern States, and that support and assistance may very soon prove to be its ruin. The Southern States will insist upon ruling the Democracy utterly, and, being poor, they will try to foist into the Democratic programme ideas and measures contrary to all Democratic principles. Against this the whole country will protest. The United States will never consent to be governed by the South or by such Southern ideas. The Democracy will be voted down, and then its last situation will be worse than the first."

It is true. The Southern States have insisted on ruling the Democracy utterly, and because they are poor they have attempted to commit the Democratic party to the principles of communism. This so-called Democracy will be voted down; but it will be voted down by a combination of the honest and conservative men of both parties, who, after agreeing to sink their political differences in their devotion to the welfare of their country, may find that, after all, there are practically no differences to sink, and that the establishment of the national finances

and the money of the people on a firm and permanent basis will constitute a party platform broad enough for all genuine patriots to stand on.

THE QUESTION OF HONESTY.

MUCH has been said of the danger of applying unpleasant epithets to such of our fellow-citizens of the West and South as favor the free coinage of silver. We are warned that they are perfectly sincere in their convictions, that they are to a large extent moral, law-abiding, and God-fearing people. When such persons are called anarchists and repudiators, they are naturally indignant. Conscious of the purity of their motives, they repel the charge of dishonesty, and vituperation only intensifies their devotion to their cause. They are sustained by an overwhelming public sentiment in their own regions, and to question the virtue of their financial policy is like questioning the truth of their religion. Some doubt may therefore be felt concerning the hopefulness of converting such firm believers from what we consider the error of their ways, but even if converts are to be made only from the ranks of the undecided, it is undeniable that the true way is to appeal to reason rather than prejudice. If the free coinage of silver will lead to repudiation, it is better to show just what it will lead to, and to let the hearer characterize the result for himself. If it is a dishonest policy, let it be thoroughly explained and understood; and if, when clearly understood, men will calmly and rationally maintain that they see nothing dishonest in it, it is vain to denounce them. The question would become a mere dispute concerning the meaning of words.

Let us strip the matter of all technical and perplexing details. Let us narrow it down to the closest and clearest issue. Let us dismiss all other questions, and ask simply, "Will it be an honest thing for Mr. Bryan to pay the notes and bonds of the Government in silver?" That is the issue in a nutshell. Mr. Bryan is committed to doing this thing. It is immaterial that the principal of the bonds is not now payable; the money that is used to pay the interest will fix the value of the principal. Whoever votes for Mr. Bryan, votes beyond question for this policy, and he cannot claim to be an honest man unless he holds this to be an honest policy. We do not see how any one can conscientiously hold such a view, and we shall state what it implies in a few simple words.

The silver dollars under free coinage will not be worth so much as the gold dollars. They will not buy so much bread, or fuel, or clothing, or pay so much rent. There is no disagreement about this. Those who want silver coinage say distinctly that they want it because it will make prices higher—that is, because silver dollars when coined freely will not purchase so much as the gold dollars. That is the reason why they want free silver, and that is the reason why their opponents do not want it. If prices were not going to rise under free coinage, no one would care whether we had it or not. So much, then, is beyond dispute: with free coinage, prices would rise—that is, the dollars that we should have would not buy so much as those we have now.

Let us now, for the sake of simplicity, suppose that the bonds of the Government are all held by the savings banks. No doubt many of them are held by other banks, trust companies, fire and life insurance companies, and by individuals. But let us keep to the case of the savings banks alone. For nearly twenty years all our dollars have been as good as gold dollars. Every one who had a silver or a paper dollar could get the value of a gold dollar at any time, and debts due to people in other countries could practically be settled with our dollars at a par with gold. During this time the savings now held by the banks must all have been paid into them; if there are any accounts of longer standing than this, they have been drawn down and replenished within that period. Hence it is true that all the dollars of deposits now in these banks have been paid in gold dollars, or in dollars equal in buying power to gold dollars. And all the Government bonds bought with these deposits have therefore been bought and paid for with gold dollars, or with dollars equal to gold dollars. Moreover, the people who, through these banks, converted their savings into Government bonds, supposed that these bonds were to be paid in gold. Such bonds always have been paid in gold, or in dollars convertible into gold, whenever they have been paid, and the interest has always been paid in gold or its equivalent. And this interest was so paid when the Government had practically to buy the gold to do it, and when the war taxes were higher than now, and when there were not so many people in the country as now, and when the people were not so well off as they are now. There was some talk at one time of paying the interest in paper, but it was shown that this would be a breach of good faith, and the people voted it down.

Now, what Mr. Bryan proposes to do is to pay off the people who lent gold dollars to the Government through the savings banks in silver dollars; to give them back dollars that will not buy so much as the dollars they lent. Perhaps prices have fallen since 1873. But these savings, setting off the withdrawals against new deposits, have all been made within a few years, and gold has not risen perceptibly in value in that time. And during recent years the Government has paid off its old bonds and issued new ones bearing very much lower interest, so that the savings-bank depositors have lent their money to the Government with less gain to themselves than before, even if gold has risen in value. On the other hand, the silver dollars will be worth very much less than the gold dollars. The silver in one of them if melted would sell for only 53 cents in gold just now, and would probably be worth not much more if silver dollars were coined freely. Suppose it would sell for 60 cents; then every one who had bought a Government bond, paying for it 100 gold dollars, would be paid off in 100 silver dollars, which would be worth 60 gold dollars. The savings, therefore, would buy perhaps three loaves of bread when they would have bought five if the Government had paid back what it borrowed, three tons of coal instead of five, three months' rent instead of five, etc., etc.

The people who put their dollars in the savings banks, and in that way in the bonds of the Government, are for the most part plain people, workingmen, domestic servants, teachers, and old people, who have never thought about bimetallism, or the act of 1873, or the appreciation of gold. Least of all have they thought that their Government would commit a breach of faith. The proverb "Good as a Government bond" expresses their simple confidence, and probably most of them have no idea now what Mr. Bryan proposes to do or how it will affect them. But the believers in free coinage know what he is going to do, and if they say that what he is going to do is honest, they must offer some explanation of its effects as described above. They must convince the people who have put their money in the savings banks that it is right and just that they should get back what is worth little more than half what they put in, in full satisfaction of their claims. This matter has got to be explained, and not slurred over, if Mr. Bryan expects to make converts in this part of the country, and if it is ignored, it will be treated as a confession of dishonesty.

A PATRIOTIC DEED.

THE conduct of the bankers in parting with gold for the purpose of maintaining the credit of our Government has occasioned some embarrassment to those who are in the habit of denouncing the "money power," "selfish wealth," "corporate greed," and other abstractions. These critics have been unable to deny that the proceedings had a generous and patriotic look; that the bankers really gave gold in exchange for promises to pay "dollars" which may possibly in a few months be worth much less than gold. They have, however, hastened to point out that the unselfishness of the act may have been more apparent than real; that it is greatly to the advantage of the bankers that the solvency of the Government should be maintained; and that really their action was forced on them by self-interest.

We do not question the justice of these

considerations. The interest of the bankers we know to be promoted by the maintenance of the financial honor of our country. We regard it as bound up with the prosperity of business men in general, with the welfare of merchants and manufacturers and farmers, and with that of all the workmen employed by these classes. When the bankers make a sacrifice such as they have made they are benefiting all their fellow-citizens, and in that way benefiting themselves. But we may be allowed to point out that self-sacrifice is very apt to have precisely this tendency. Soldiers are frequently called upon to breast the attack of the enemy, knowing at the time that, unless they expose their own lives without flinching, such demoralization will take place among their comrades as will result in universal slaughter. Sailors run the greatest risks, knowing that if they shrink from them they will be drowned as well as the passengers. Doctors expose themselves to contagion, knowing that if they let pestilence spread they may become its victims. The world is so constituted that brave and benevolent and patriotic acts have a tendency, directly or indirectly, to benefit those who do them as well as those for whom they are performed, and it seems ungracious to stint our praise because we are not quite sure that we behold the exhibition of purely altruistic motives.

We are, however, aware that some of our contemporaries are occasionally troubled with the suspicion that we are the advocates—possibly the paid advocates—of "plutocracy," and that whatever we may say in praise of the present or any other action of bankers will be attributed by them to unworthy motives. This might not materially restrain us did we not think that sensible people appreciate the conduct of the bankers as it deserves. Their action is the talk of the world, and it requires no commendation of ours.

Not so, however, with the action of a humble citizen reported in the *Sun* of the 25th inst., the story of which we reproduce. Michael Murphy is an elderly man, a native of Ireland, who has been an American citizen for fifteen years. During that time he has saved from his wages the sum of $820, which he has kept in gold coin. Last Friday he went to the sub-treasury and exchanged his gold for Government notes, making a plain statement of the reasons for this proceeding. He declared that this country had been good to him, "as it is the friend of every laboring man." He declared that he loved its institutions and its freedom, which were in danger because of a class of men who would ruin its credit and reduce the dollar in which wages are paid to nearly 50 cents if they had their way.

"Since this agitation of the currency question has begun," he continued, "it has scared a great many people, but all I have I owe to my country. Therefore I desire to show my confidence in the Government and in the good people of this country by depositing in the sub-treasury all of my earnings which I have accumulated, amounting to $820 in gold, during the fifteen years I have been here, to sustain the credit of the Government during this perilous time. While the Government issues all kinds of currency—silver notes, Treasury notes—I know that the bullion in the silver is worth about 53 cents, and I also know that by keeping the reserve of gold in the Treasury the Government will be enabled to maintain all the dollars it issues at par with gold. I therefore desire to make this offering to the Treasury, and thereby show my appreciation of the Government so free and so beneficent to me."

Cynical observers may be inclined to suggest that a deposit of gold of this magnitude would not go far to replenish the gold reserve. Neither did the widow's mite go far to fill up the poor-chest in the Temple; and yet perhaps the mere story of that mite has brought forth more abundant contributions to charity than any other influence. Prudent men might have advised Mr. Murphy to keep his gold and make sure of having something to live on in his old age. But Mr. Murphy cared less for such security than he did to show his confidence "in the good people of this country." And in our opinion the good people of this country owe Mr. Murphy a considerable debt of gratitude. It is to men in his position that we must look to save the country from ruin. Never more than at the present crisis does our fate depend on the good sense and the patriotic feeling of the common people. It is very well to point out where the interests of people lie in the present contest; but we should be glad to see higher considerations more generally appealed to. Mr. Murphy has made such an appeal and we honor him for it. He is more creditable to the land of his adoption than many who were born citizens. He appreciates what our freedom and our institutions have done for workingmen, and he stands ready to sacrifice his savings in defence of liberty and good faith. His action will cheer many despondent hearts, and we rejoice to believe that it represents a spirit among the masses of the people that will display itself on a grand scale as soon as the nature of the present crisis is clearly understood.

HENRY CLAY AND HIS FRIENDS.

NEW YORK, July 27, 1896.

THERE has come into my possession an unpublished letter of Henry Clay's, addressed to the late Robert S. Hamilton of this State. This letter was written shortly after the failure of the attempt, in which Mr. Clay was so deeply interested, to change the Constitution of Kentucky so as to provide for the gradual abolition of slavery in that State. In January of that year, 1849, he addressed a letter on the same subject to Richard Pindell, which is published in part in Schurz's Life of Clay. The Hamilton letter differs somewhat from that, and from anything else of Mr. Clay's which I have seen, in the peacefully philosophical view which it takes of the certainty of the extinction of slavery through natural causes. The next to the last paragraph of the letter reads now as a prophecy of the civil war, which is foretold as inevitable unless some intelligent means should be found to take hold of the institution of slavery and dispose of it cautiously and safely. It will be remembered that Mr. Clay was reëlected to the United States Senate in that year, 1849, in spite of the fact that he was diametrically opposed to the general sentiment of his State on the question of slavery, and although he had some time before announced his intention of withdrawing into private life, and had for a time put that intention into execution.

ASHLAND 2nd Oct, 1849.

DEAR SIR,—

I have received and thank you for "The Scheme of African Colonization," presented by you in a Discourse delivered at Xenia in July last, which I have perused with much satisfaction. It is distinguished by eloquence, public spirit and ability, and I think most of the principles which it developes and enforces are founded in truth.

After the recent failure to establish a system of gradual emancipation in Kentucky, I confess that I have not much hope that Slavery will ever be extinguished in any of the States, by legal enactment, at least for a long time to come. That failure may be attributed to the violent and indiscreet course of Ultra abolitionists in the North, to the great amount of property invested in Slaves, and to the repugnance with which a People change long established habits.

There remains in prospect the other mode, the natural extinction of slavery, treated by you. Whenever the rearing and maintenance of slaves become unprofitable, as it will be, when there is a certainty of the supply of cheaper free labor than Slave labor, the institution of slavery will decline and finally terminate. That may happen, either by the increase of the colored population, or by the increase of the white population of the U. States, or, as is most probable, by the increase of both.

You have considered the subject in the form of demand and supply of labor. That is a modification, with some variation, of Malthus's principle of population, founded on the quantity of human food or subsistence.

In December 1829 before the Colonization Society of K. I pronounced a discourse, in which I treated of the natural termination of Slavery founded on the reduction of the wages of labor. I am sorry that I have not a copy of it by me to send you. It was published in Niles's Register, in the African Repository and in other periodicals. If you can lay your hands upon it, you will be struck with the coincidence in our views, although we express ourselves in different terms.

It is a consoling reflection that, altho a system of gradual emancipation cannot be established, Slavery is destined inevitably to extinction, by the operation of peaceful and natural causes. And it is also gratifying to believe, that there will not be probably much difference in the period of its existence, whether it terminates legally or naturally. The chief difference in the two modes is that, according to the first, we should take hold of the Institution intelligently and dispose of it cautiously and safely, whilst according to the other it will some day or other take hold of us, and constrain us, in some manner or other, to get rid of it.

I apprehend that you are mistaken in supposing that the greater ratio of increase, in the colored race between 1800 and 1810 than in other decimal periods, was owing to the importation of slaves from Africa. It was owing to the acquisition of Louisiana, whose slaves were enumerated in the census of 1810.

With great respect
I am Your ob°. Serv'
H. CLAY.

Robert S. Hamilton, Esq.

I have also in my possession a narrative of the life of Mr. Clay's intimate friend and correspondent, Judge Francis T. Brooke of Fredericksburg, Virginia, composed by Judge Brooke himself, and printed for circulation in his own family only. A considerable number of the published letters of Henry Clay contained in Colton's Life of Clay, as well as in Schurz's more recent Life, were addressed to Judge Brooke or to his brother Robert Brooke,

once Governor of Virginia. The originals of these letters were in the Brooke homestead, St. Julian, seven miles from Fredericksburg, when the Union army occupied the latter place. The house itself was not destroyed in any of the various battles in and about the town, but it was thoroughly rifled. All the books in the library were carried away, and it is possible that Henry Clay's letters to Judge Brooke were carried off at the same time and are still in existence somewhere. It is equally possible that they were burned as waste paper. Henry Clay studied law in the office of Gov. Brooke, Judge Brooke's elder brother, and was Judge Brooke's most intimate friend He always maintained an active correspondence as well with Judge Brooke as with his brother, Gov. Brooke. Judge Brooke's narrative has nothing at all to do with Mr. Clay, but it is very interesting in itself on account of the notices therein contained of various famous men of the first days of the republic, with whom Judge Brooke was intimately acquainted.

He devotes the following paragraph to George Washington:

"I personally knew, (as well as so young a man could know,) all the eminent military characters of the Revolution, with the exception of Alexander Hamilton and General Knox. I knew Washington, Green and Gates—I knew Washington in my boyhood. He came to Smithfield with General Spotswood, in 1773, I think it was. He was then a Colonel in the British army. I remember his dress; he wore a deep blue coat, a scarlet waistcoat, trimmed with a gold chain, and buckskin small clothes, boots, spurs, and sword; he had with him a beautiful greyhound, was fond of the sports of the field, and proposed to my father, who had a tame deer, to try if the greyhound could not catch him; to which my father assented, and after leaping over the yard palings they went through the garden where they leaped the palings again; when the deer turned towards the river, he got a start of the greyhound, and got into the river before he could catch him. General Washington was afterwards at Smithfield two or three times; he was fond of horses, my father had some excellent ones, so had Gen. Spotswood; they took the horses to the road, and mounted the boys upon them, to try their speed. General Washington, in the year 1774, came to Fredericksburg to review the independent companies. After the review, they gave him a collation in the old market-house, where he had all the boys of a large grammar school, of which I was one, brought to him; gave them a drink of punch, patted them upon their heads, and asked them if they could fight for their country. After the war he frequently came to Fredericksburg, where his mother resided, and his only sister, Mrs. Lewis. He attended the ball of the 22nd of February, opened it by dancing a minuet with some lady, then danced cotillons and country dances; was very gallant, and always attached himself, by his attentions, to some one or more of the most beautiful and attractive ladies at the balls. The next day, his friends gave him a dinner, at which, after the cloth was removed, and the wine came on, a Mr. Jack Stewart (who had been Clerk of the House of Delegates), a great vocalist, was called upon for a song; and he sung one from the novel of 'Roderick Random,' which was a very amusing one Gen. Washington laughed at it very much, and encored it. The next day, when I went to his sister's to introduce strangers to him, I found him one of the most dignified men of the age While he was President of the United States, at the instance of my father-in-law, General Spotswood, he offered me the collector's office, at Tappahannock, but I preferred my profession, and declined it; though the office at that time was a very lucrative one. Washington was undoubtedly a great man, and there was a sublimity in his greatness, which exceeded that of any of the great men of ancient or modern history."

Fancy the outcry if the present incumbent of the Presidential chair were to do what the Father of his Country is here reported to have done—treat all the boys of one of our large grammar schools to a drink of punch!

In view of the present interest in the Monroe Doctrine, the following statement, made by Calhoun to Judge Brooke with regard to the responsibility for the authorship of that doctrine, possesses considerable interest:

"I knew Mr. Monroe, practised law with him, and I think, though a slow man, he possessed a strong mind and excellent judgment. When I was at York, in 1824, with General La Fayette, Mr. Calhoun, then Secretary of War, was there, and I asked him the question, whether it was the President Monroe, or his Cabinet, who were in favor of that passage in his message which declared to the Holy Alliance, that America would not be indifferent to any attempt to aid the Spanish Government to prevent the enfranchisement of the South American Provinces, then at war with Spain; and he replied, that it was the President's own sentiment, and that though he was a slow man, yet give him time, and he was a man of the best judgment he had ever known."

Of Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Madison he says:

"I knew Mr. Jefferson very well. The first time I saw him was at the magazine, at Westham, above Richmond, as I have mentioned before. I was afterwards often at Monticello, and saw much of him there; and while he was President of the U. States. He was a man of easy and ingratiating manners; he was very partial to me, and I corresponded with him while I was Vice President of the Society of Cincinnati; he wished the funds of that Society to be appropriated to his central college, near Charlottesville, and on one occasion I obtained an order from a meeting of the Society, to that effect; but in my absence the order was rescinded, and the funds appropriated to the Washington College, at Lexington, to which General Washington gave his shares in the James River Company, which the State had presented him with. Mr. Jefferson never would discuss any proposition if you differed with him, for he said he thought discussion rather rivetted opinions than changed them. When I was elected Speaker of the Senate of Virginia, he sent me his parliamentary Manual, with a very flattering note wafered in it, which is now in the possession of my son, Robert. Of Mr. Madison, I personally did not know as much; his manners were not so fine or insinuating as Mr Jefferson's; he was devoted to Mr Jefferson, but differed with him in some respects; he never shunned discussion, but courted it—told many excellent anecdotes of times past—and was among the purest and ablest statesmen we ever had."

Following out the implied advice of Washington to the boys of the grammar school to whom he had given the drink of punch, Judge Brooke entered the Revolutionary army at the earliest possible age. He was appointed lieutenant in Gen. Harrison's regiment of artillery at the age of sixteen, in the year 1780. He fought under LaFayette during the invasion of Lord Cornwallis in 1781, and gives a most interesting account of the campaigns in Virginia and the South during that and the succeeding years, in which he took an active part. A note in his diary with regard to the depreciated currency of the time is interesting in view of the proposition of the Populists to bring back similar conditions by introducing fiat money:

"The troops at Cumberland old Court House, were at length ordered to join Gen. Green, under Col. Posey. Having received no pay, they mutinied, and instead of coming on the parade with their knapsacks, when the general beat, they came with their arms, as to the beat of the troop. A sergeant named Hagaritoy was run through the body by Capt. Shelton, and Col Febiger ordered the barracks to be set on fire, and we marched about eight miles in the evening. I have said the troops received no pay; one company of them, commanded by Alex. Parker, had been taken prisoners in Charlestown, and had been very lately exchanged, when it received orders to return to the South; the officers received one month's pay in paper, which was so depreciated that I received, as a first Lieutenant of artillery, thirty-three thousand and two thirds of a thousand dollars, in lieu of thirty-three and two thirds dollars in specie; with which I bought cloth for a coat at $2,600 a yard, and $1,500 for the buttons. Nothing but the spirit of the age would have induced any one to receive money so depreciated; but we were willing to take any thing our country could give."

Judge Brooke married as his first wife the "eldest daughter of Gen. Spotswood and Mrs. Spotswood, the only whole niece of Gen. Washington." JOHN P. PETERS.

THE FIRST ACT OF SOCIAL JUSTICE TO SICILY.

ITALY, July 13, 1896.

BY a majority of ninety-three votes the ministry has carried through the House the bill for the legalization of a civil Commissary for Sicily, despite the organized opposition of all the political opponents of the ministry, and, sad to say, of most of the Sicilian Deputies. In my letter on social regeneration in Italy the duties of the Commissary were defined and the reasons for the remedial measures shown; but as the project has been considerably modified by the commission selected by the offices to report on the bill, and as we have before us the report of the majority of five who approve, of the minority of four who disapprove, with all the reasons pro and con given during the debate, it is interesting to note the causes and reasons that have led up to the final victory.

The reasons given by the opponents of the measure are summed up by Deputy Spirito, reporter for the minority of the commission. They affirm that the institution of a civil Commissary for all the provinces of Sicily will revive the regional hopes and sentiments of Separatists, offend the unitarian sentiment of the population, and weaken and strain the moral, political, and administrative ties which bind those provinces to the rest of the nation. They admit that Minghetti's regional system proposed in 1861 was similar, but argue that while it would have given a governor to every region in Italy, Rudini allows one to Sicily alone. They oppose it also as an exceptional measure, implying that the laws of the whole land are insufficient for a portion. They admit the necessity of exceptional laws and measures such as states of siege and military tribunals, for the restoration of public security and order, but find it impossible to justify exceptional, temporary, and local laws of a purely civil, political, and administrative nature. Affirming that the evils under which Sicily groans are due to agricultural and industrial crises, and to superfluous expenditure, as a remedy they suggest waiting patiently until the natural force of great commercial currents shall resolve the crisis in the wine, sulphur, and fruit markets, while institutions of credit, public works, etc., shall correct administrative disorders. They demand decentralization for the entire kingdom; for Sicily they consider that better civil servants, and especially better prefects, would completely suffice. They object to the subordination of the seven prefects of the isle to this Royal Commissary. "The long and short of it is," writes Spirito, "that the Government has chosen to create a new and high

political office in order to be prepared for all possible eventualities of general elections."

These are the principal objections of the opponents specified and elaborated by the ten orators who presented ten separate, hostile orders of the day. We come now to the report of the majority, drawn up by Deputy Franchetti, whom you will remember as the author, with Sonnino, of the two exhaustive volumes on the social, economical, and political position of Sicily in 1875, and later as the organizer of the agricultural colony in Eritrea, which, had it been organized in Sicily, might have had more lasting and beneficial results. He admits that the general conditions, from an administrative point of view, are unsatisfactory throughout Italy, and seems really to share the opinion of your correspondent "X." in his intensive and extensive application of the word *Camorra;* but he affirms that in no portion of the new kingdom have the multiform grievances weighed so heavily or produced such disastrous consequences as in Sicily during the last six and thirty years. So far from attributing the disorders to the Fasci or Socialistic propaganda, Franchetti says, "Probably not one of those who were condemned by the military tribunals was born when the same sentiments in a different form provoked the popular tumults which convulsed the island in 1860—tumults, alas! all alike inspired by the sentiment, so bitterly profound among the agrarian plebs, of wrongs suffered too long without any hope of redress; wrongs inflicted by those who, placed over them and living in their midst, administered the provinces, the municipalities, the communal lands; who disposed, in short, of land and of labor, and who also imposed the taxes." Franchetti demonstrates the enormous excess, in Sicily, of the taxes on food over the land tax as compared with the other provinces of Italy; the enormity of the poll or hearth-tax; the concentration of all public offices in the hands of the *clientels* or rings; the creation of new and useless offices by them for themselves; the usurpation, by these factions, of lands belonging to the commune—of lands belonging by right, by law, and by recent adjudication to the poor of each commune.

In order to break the bonds which have leagued together many of these local administrations, it is deemed necessary to impart a uniform impulse to all. Hitherto all the worst civil servants, prefects on trial, prefects in punishment, or prefects awaiting promotion, have been drafted off to Sicily, and there become subjects of the local rings and subservient to the orders of the central Government, which, especially on the eve of elections, has found itself compelled to yield to all their demands and satisfy all their exactions. In sending one man invested with the title of minister to investigate, to suspend (not dismiss) public servants, to examine the budgets, the local taxes, and especially their incidence—a man who cannot be influenced by local factions—it is hoped that the ring of illegitimate influences and abuses will be broken. One other important function is to examine the administration of the charitable institutions, to compel the obstinate administrators to send in their balance sheets; to execute the existing law concerning the division of the communal lands among the people to whom they belong. The Commissary must reorganize public security, receive the reports of the prefects, and add his comments before transmitting them to the Minister of the Interior.

The following is the order of the day presented finally by the commission:

"The House, considering the mission of the Royal Commissioner for Sicily indispensable to remedy the chief grievances that afflict the island, and to render possible the alleviation of others, invite the Government to prepare, during the present year, a law for the regulation throughout Italy of agrarian contracts, based on the studies already made, in order to prevent unjust and usurious contracts which are injurious to the tillers of the soil; secondly, to initiate a large experiment in internal colonization under the form of concessions on the part of the State to the peasants, as freehold or on long leases, subsidized by the advance of capital sufficient for the preliminary expenses—such lands to be cultivated exclusively by the peasants with the assistance of their own families."

The discussion lasted six days. All the speeches delivered were monotonous. The only ones worthy of note were those of Fortunato, a well-known patriot and writer of Calabria, and Filippo Turati, the scientific expounder of collective Socialism, editor of the *Critica Sociale*, elected by an immense majority last month at Milan, despite a formidable coalition of all parties. Fortunato said that he should vote for the commission's order of the day, and for all the measures proposed by the Minister of Agriculture, though he was aware that all remedies would be useless until the system of protection and privilege was abandoned and an end was put to international adventures. Italy must establish an honest budget in which income and expenditure shall be really balanced. A rigid inspection and control of local taxation and expenditure would prevent ulterior spoliation of the rural classes. On these lines in a few years the Government would be able to resolve the economical problem throughout the whole of Italy. Turati regarded the question from a political point of view, opposing the Ministry because the amnesty granted was partial and insufficient, because the iniquitious deportation of hundreds of innocent men remains unrevoked, and because the present Government persecutes the press and denies the right of public associations and pacific propaganda, with the same zeal as former governments.

The President of the Council, Minister of the Interior, Marchese Rudini, who had listened attentively to all the speeches, making only an occasional comment, summed up the arguments pro and con in a sober, serious, sometimes dryly humorous speech, set aside the accusations of leze-unity as a bogey that had ceased to frighten even children. As to the accusation formulated by the minority of the commission that the commissaryship is destined to become an electoral manufactory,

"Allow me," said Rudini, "to record my conviction, founded on experience, that the result of governmental interference in general elections is the preparation of a majority for the opponents of that government. It is quite possible that were I to put in motion the orthodox electioneering machinery I could secure a House, ostensibly exclusively Rudinian, which in a month or so would inevitably enthrone my successor—possibly Sonnino!"

Then Rudini frankly and simply explained why, instead of awaiting the consent of the House, he had obtained a royal decree for the immediate dispatch of Codronchi to Sicily.

"The amnesty for political prisoners condemned by the military tribunals, which I found it my bounden duty to recommend to his Majesty, had created such agitation in Sicily that the prefects and all other authorities implored me to send military reinforcements. Such was the panic generated that for a moment I thought I should be compelled to endow General Pelloux with the same authority granted last year to General Mirri. But the idea of a second military occupation of Sicily was repugnant to me; therefore I committed the irregularity—call it by its right name, the *illegality*—of obtaining a royal decree for the instant dispatch of the civil Commissary."

He then announced his intention of proposing the reform of the entire land tenure in Sicily. Referring to the criticisms on Codronchi for receiving the memorandum of the Socialists, he said that many items therein were worthy of consideration. They demanded the abolition of the *dazio consumo* (tax on retail food). This reform could be effected only gradually, but all are agreed on the fact that the working and rural populations, compelled in Sicily to inhabit the closed communes, were taxed to a point beyond the power of endurance. Other items, such as the exemption of the poorest from the poll or hearth tax, of workmen and microscopic proprietors from the income and land-tax, were reasonable demands. So the abolition of the truck system and the weekly payment of the miners, the freedom of the cooperative system, the concession of certain public works to properly organized coöperative societies, the exemption of the poor man's ass or mule from taxation, he likewise considered just demands. After reiterating his intention to oppose the re-formation of the Faschi or the formation of associations of workmen (similar to the English trades unions), he ended his speech "loudly applauded and congratulated."

After the victory it was the intention of the Minister to present at once the bill for the abolition of the export duty on sulphur and other practical measures for Sicily. But Ricotti, the Minister of War, insisted in the Council of Ministers on the presentation of his bills for military reform and reduction. His colleagues entreated him to defer the debate until November, pleading the impossibility of detaining the Deputies at Rome during the dog-days. Ricotti refused and resigned. Rudini, who has always upheld ministerial solidarity, presented the resignation of all to the King. This is a mere formality. The Minister of War, and possibly one or two others, will be at once replaced. The Sicilian bills discussed, the House will adjourn for the summer vacation.

"Cosa fatta capo ha," and this first act of social justice to Sicily, which has secured the immediate and complete pacification of the island, will, if followed up to its natural and legitimate issues, mark a new departure, not only in Sicily, but in the entire social and economical policy of Italy. I forgot to say that the entire Extreme Left voted for Rudini's project—even to Napoleon Colajani, the "reasonable Socialist." J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE ONE ISSUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have recently received letters from four friends, all of whom may be partially described to readers of the *Nation* by my saying that they read the *Nation*. They are men occupying honorable and responsible positions. They are men of education, open-minded, and solicitous for good government. In the early days of civil-service reform each of them was an active worker in its behalf. They have been earnest supporters of Mr. Cleveland on

the tariff issue, but were disgusted with the last Democratic Congress for its tariff timidity. At heart each of them is a free-trader. They represent three distinct parts of the country, north, south, and west, and I think they might be taken as representative independents of their respective sections.

Now these four good citizens all inform me that they expect to vote for the Chicago ticket. One says that he has recently become converted to the 16-to-1 doctrine. Another says that he considers the money question unimportant, that he is uncertain what the result of free coinage of silver would be, and that he will vote for any reform ticket rather than support McKinley. The other two say outright that they are opposed to the free coinage of silver, but that they will "swallow anything to down McKinleyism." One of them goes so far as to say that he believes the "independent coinage of silver at 16 to 1 will do great harm."

These letters confirm the opinion I had formed in talking with people at several points in a recent trip from New Orleans to this place, namely, that many people have not yet defined the issue in their minds as one of sound money alone, and that the "friends" of sound money have all to gain and nothing to lose by insisting more and more upon this question as the sole issue of the coming campaign.—Respectfully,

JAMES H. DILLARD.

AMHERST, MASS., July 29, 1896.

SOUTHERN EXPERIENCE THROWN AWAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We of the old Confederate days remember it was a common saying that a man went out in the morning with his market-basket full of banknotes and returned with it half-full of food. Granted that we get free coinage of silver, and considering the potential output of silver by the Western States, then we may see history repeat itself. Only this time the man's load would be more cumbersome and more ridiculous, for instead of being an indication of a sentiment of patriotism, it would be the badge of a nation of dupes. AN OLD READER AND ADMIRER.

SEVENOAKS, KENT, ENG., July 22, 1896.

DYNAMITE AND THE DECLINE OF SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the many agencies contributing to the fall in the value of silver, the principal one seems to me to have been least observed. In 1873 the miners of the West were using black powder almost exclusively. During the two or three subsequent years nitroglycerine, or dynamite, came gradually and generally to be used. While black powder was in use, the average contract price for driving tunnels and drifts in mines was $15 per foot; with the advent of dynamite the price dropped to $10 and less. I make this statement as a practical miner working then and now, and fully aware of the local variations in prices, but venture to say that no miner will deny that the use of dynamite effected a very large average reduction in the cost of metal-mining.

As formerly the world's yield of gold was principally from alluvial washings, the influence of the new explosive on gold was slight; but now that gold is being increasingly sought in reefs and veins, the effect must soon become manifest. The New York *Engineering and Mining Journal* of the 18th inst., in an article on the difficulties incident to mining in the Transvaal, is my authority for the statement that the tax on dynamite alone yields the Transvaal Government $2,405,000 a year. The South African ore is not high-grade, and without the use of dynamite it is doubtful whether those mines could be profitably worked at all. Four-fifths of the gold yield of the world is now obtained from fissure veins or rock in places requiring the use of dynamite. If, in spite of the tremendous demand for gold for the war-chests of Europe and for various economic requirements, such as resumption of specie payments, changes from silver basis, etc., its value has not measurably appreciated, then we must attribute the result to the invention of dynamite, and we may deduce that, the more urgent demands being satisfied, gold will be cheapened with the inevitable increasing production.

Gold, being the final measurement of value for all countries, whether gold or silver-using, must always be in demand. Its apparent value remains constant; its real value fluctuates relatively to the price of any one commodity, or of all commodities taken in aggregate. The discovery and exploitation of new and rich gold-fields create an immediate and pressing demand for the products of art and industry, and the result becomes visible in rising prices.

The silverite is loath to admit that silver has become too cumbrous a medium of exchange between nations. He complains of an appreciation in the value of gold, and yet wants his silver raised to that value. He does not ask that the value of gold be made less, but wants that of silver made more. He demands a double standard (a manifest absurdity), and will not see that a world-pulsating cause, as potent and insidious as the law of gravitation, will regulate values in spite of legislation or standards of any kind.

It is commonly asserted, and perhaps believed, by silver men that silver was never demonetized before this century. The historical variations in the ratio coming down through the ages from 8 to 1 to the present legal 16 to 1 and real 30 to 1, do not seem to suggest anything to their minds. Senator Wolcott, whom we might suppose to be a man of some learning, made a grandiloquent assertion in the Senate to the effect that the Cæsars never dared to tamper with the sacred functions of silver, and his statement went unrebuked and uncontradicted by the venerable Solons, his associates. As a matter of fact, silver was demonetized by the Roman Government early in the third century. I would refer Mr. Wolcott and others to so easily accessible and indisputable an authority as Gibbon. As early as the time of Constantine, gold was required in payment of taxes and imports, and as late as the time of Justinian gold alone was receivable in payment of all taxes and dues to the Government. If that be not demonetization, it would certainly be very injurious discrimination; and as the Roman Government coined only such silver and copper as it deemed necessary, and never entertained the idea of free coinage, silver must have stood a very poor show in those days.

There are some things to be said about the ancient production of silver and the decline thereof, but that is another story.

GEORGE EVERETT ROBIN.

HILLSBORO, NEW MEXICO, July 25, 1896.

THE PRODUCTION OF GOLD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article in the edition of July 9, 1896, entitled "Cornering Gold," has caused some difference of opinion in this office. Will you kindly give figures and authorities which lead you to say that the total amount of gold produced since 1492 has been between nine and ten and a half billions of dollars? How much of this amount of gold do you now consider is in circulation, or could be considered as gold money? Do you mean to imply that the total amount of gold produced since 1492 is available or in use as gold coin? Please produce authorities and figures to show that the Imperial Bank and Treasury of Russia has a larger amount of gold than the Bank of France.

The writer is thoroughly with the *Nation* in favor of sound money, and writes this letter at the request of a rabid silverite.

Yours very truly, P.

BALTIMORE, MD., July 29, 1896.

[We gave our authority for the amount of gold in the world—that of Mr. Charles S. Gleed, in an article in the *Bond Record* for April—but without endorsing it. Estimates of the amount of gold in the world, even those of trained statisticians, must be regarded as largely guesswork. Our arguments on "cornering gold" would not be essentially impaired if Mr. Gleed's estimate were reduced one-half. The amount of gold in circulation is purely conjectural. Our authority for the amount of gold in the Imperial Bank and Treasury of Russia was an article by M. Leroy-Beaulieu, published in the *Forum* magazine a few months ago, in which the amount was put at $400,000,000. The Bank of France has now reached this figure, but we have reason for thinking that the Russian accumulation is considerably larger than the amount stated by M. Leroy-Beaulieu.—ED. NATION.]

TEACHING HISTORY IN THE SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter entitled "Our Schools and Chauvinism" in your issue of July 16 has moved me to reply. Any thoughtful person must agree with its writer in deeply regretting the time worse than wasted by our schools in the study of dates and wars, not only in the history of our own country, but in all so-called historical studies. No one can deprecate more than the intelligent teacher, "usually a woman of limited attainments," the instilling of the blind egoism which we call patriotism, and the unutterable folly of the flood of bombast and stupidity let loose upon our children about "Old Glory." But let the blame rest where it belongs, upon the male "educators." *They* make the examination papers and pass or reject our pupils over whom we toil and pray and—yes, weep. For we, with our limited attainments, love them and would fain use those poor attainments to make peace-loving, honorable men and women; but at the order of our men superiors we are training them into machines full of dreary facts and unreasoning prejudices. Given, for instance, the Regents' Examination (and it is worthy of

capitals, for it has slain its thousands and tens of thousands), and the time usually allotted for the study of history, and what can the bewildered, overworked teacher, bound with red tape, forbidden to discuss political issues, do except stuff the unfortunate little manikins with dates and names and plans of fortifications such as the text-books and examination papers call for?

This matter of history-teaching has been a source of much grief to me, and fate has always thrown some exceptionally dull class in my hands. I have tried various methods to teach what I called history and arouse the interest of my somnolent pupils. The latter I can do. But this time, my dear old superintendent, with a look of affectionate solicitude, admonished me, after an active discussion on the part of the pupils in regard to the difference in the formation of the civil code in English-settled States and French Spanish territory, that it might excite comment. Again, discussion of the tariff is politics, I am told. Another time, in regard to the same "little *pasear* into Mexico," my principal informs me that he wishes patriotism taught, and does not consider that drawing out criticisms upon the Government from a class in their teens is the way. A discussion of banks and banking which a class had looked up for days is criticised by a school official as tending to produce a lack of respect for the States, as that section had repudiated after the crash of State banking—a fact which, knowing, I had absolutely forgotten in the discussion. A still more lofty official, after hearing my class, complimented it highly, wished I could show his teachers how to inspire a class—it was excellent, etc., etc.; but—er—wasn't it—er—unusual, so to speak, revolutionary? And probably if my position depended upon him I should have lost it.

Now give us a chance, an object of ambition, and we will work up to it. We would rather teach what is true and good, and if we do not know how yet, we can learn. Only let us be sure our position depends upon our good work, not upon freaks; let us know that, if we are able, principalships, superintendencies, commissionerships are open to us women as to men. Give us intelligent, practical, liberal supervision with men or women who have experience and brain; not conceited, ignorant boys or reactionary "cranks" whose one qualification is masculinity. Then we will try to do our part.

I do not pretend that all or any women teachers can discuss with their classes ably "financial, social, and economic events," besides teaching competently some twenty other things, including usually drawing, coloring, and music. But, if a woman teacher may be pardoned for criticism, candidate Bryan is said to have devoted his life to the study of American economic conditions (politics), and yet his utterances are not fraught with wisdom nor characterized by exactitude, and he has been paid five thousand per year and more, we five hundred and less, and he has not been called upon for intelligent instruction in the twenty other branches. Let each teacher in graded schools teach a related group of subjects in which she is interested, and not waste energy in a treadmill round of duties to her as distasteful as they are burdensome, and we will give you as results work worth our doing, and it will secure to us what now we alone of laborers cannot hope for—success, hope, health, and content.

A Woman of Limited Intellectual Attainments.

THE ETHICAL VALUE OF MEN OF LETTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "Department of Publicity" of a prominent "Manufacturing Company" in Hartford sends, to writers who are supposed to have the ear of the public, a circular asking the recipient to write a contribution "bringing in" a certain article made by said company. After this contribution has been printed and paid for by "some leading magazine or other periodical," the writer, who is to keep the money, is to be rewarded for his service by allowance to that amount on the article itself, when he may learn what its merits are after he has aided in advertising it.

Has anything in the conduct of American men of letters encouraged those who hold this peculiar view of the integrity of their aims; or are the agents of departments of publicity alone to blame for the outrage? It may, at least, be well for those who receive the circular, or others like it, to consider these questions. K. S.

July 28, 1896.

Notes.

In view of a contemplated 'Life and Letters of Mrs. Stowe,' it is requested by her family that any persons having letters from her will send them for examination, copying, and possible use to Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 4 Park Street, Boston, Mass., or to Mr. A. P. Watt, Hastings House, Norfolk St., Strand, London. They will be carefully returned.

A Life of Richard Cobden, by John Morley, is announced for publication in the fall by Macmillan Co.

'The Bay Colony,' by William Dummer Northend, a history of colonial Massachusetts to the death of John Winthrop, is in the press of Estes & Lauriat, Boston.

Copeland & Day will publish 'A Boy's Book of Rhymes,' by Clinton Scollard.

The title, 'Le Premier Théâtre Parisien et les Arènes de Lutèce,' by Charles Nórmand (Paris: *Ami des Monuments et des Arts;* New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer), of a forthcoming work on Parisian Gallo-Roman antiquities, has a piquant reference to discoveries made from 1870 to 1892 of a theatre and amphitheatre in one. The work will be fully illustrated.

A selection from Goethe's Poems, 327 in number, by Karl Heinemann, with nearly 200 illustrations in the text and twelve full-page photogravures by Frank Kirchbach, in folio form, is promised for monthly issue ending October, 1897, by Adolf Titze, Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Buechner).

A monumental systematic work, 'Das Tierreich: eine Zusammenstellung und Kennzeichnung der recenten Tierformen,' under the general editorship of Franz Eilhard Schulze, and the auspices of the German Zoölogical Society, will bear the Berlin imprint of Fridländer & Sohn (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). A great corps of specialists will collaborate, and a quarter of a century from January, 1897, must elapse before the completion of the work, which will appear in parts, sold separately. It will be thoroughly indexed. If subscriptions warrant, a one-page impression on writing-paper will be issued.

A timely popular edition at a low price of Mr. Horace White's 'Money and Banking' has just been put forth by Ginn & Co., Boston. The chapters on Money will be found to satisfy by far the greater number of *relevant* questions now being asked regarding the burning issue of the hour.

Mr. William Eleroy Curtis, the veteran correspondent and the manager of the Bureau of American Republics under Mr. Blaine, was last year sent to Japan, by Mr. Victor F. Lawson of the Chicago *Record*, for a three months' sojourn, and his letters are now republished by Stone & Kimball, in pleasing form, under the title of 'The Yankees of the East: Sketches of Modern Japan.' Mr. Curtis's sketches cover many things not before brought into a traveller's journal, and in novelty of material and range of topics make perhaps the most interesting of recent books of the sort; the effort, also, at fairness of view is unusually successful. The work is, however, chiefly a recension of various untested hearsays, such as the hasty sojourner has always to be contented with (except that this author has shown more than the usual traveller's recklessness in publishing unfounded and misleading statements), and must not be taken in any degree whatever as an authority.

The story of the Ashanti expedition is well told by Lieut.-Col. R. S. S. Baden-Powell in the 'Downfall of Prempeh' (Philadelphia: Lippincott). After a clear and satisfactory statement of the reasons for the expedition, the author describes in detail the careful preparations made to lessen the dangers and difficulties of the march through the bush. Though these were most efficiently and successfully carried out, still fifty per cent. of the men and about eighty per cent. of the officers were attacked by fever. The author was placed in charge of the native levies, and his description of the methods by which he brought his motley command to obey orders shows that he possesses no small degree of tact, humor, and sympathy for the negro. The incidents of the march 150 miles through the forest to Kumassi differ in no respect from those of every other large Central African expedition, and the abject submission of the king gave no opportunity for the narration of striking events. Little is added by the author to our knowledge of Kumassi—literally the "deathplace"—or of the Ashantis, who are so imbued with a lust for blood through the extent and frequency of their human sacrifices that their existence as an independent nation was a nuisance which had to be abated in the interests of mankind. The book, which contains several illustrations, closes with an encouraging chapter, by Sir George Baden-Powell, on the development of Ashanti.

The 'First Theatre in America,' being New Series No. 1 of the issues of the Dunlap Society, whose earlier publications were formerly noticed in these columns, marks a phœnix-like revival. Judge C. P. Daly's paper was privately printed a number of years ago, and is now reissued, unchanged, but with a "supplement" which adds a hundred pages to the original sixteen and shows how much further light has come to the author. Even now the account is very fragmentary—one is tempted to say scrappy—and proves clearly that Judge Daly has used only such material as he has stumbled upon, making no attempt to dig out the facts for a real history of the early American theatre. It is, however, a good basis for some more exhaustive account. As to dates, the work must be used with care; a Virginian newspaper of 1732 would be indeed an historical find, as would a 1736 edition of Graham's History. The long extract from Cooke's 'Virginia Comedians,' a pure work of

fiction, and the lengthy "Considerations of the Objections to the Stage," are so aside from the subject of the essay, and of such trifling value, that they savor strongly of padding.

The Museum of Fine Arts in Boston has just issued a new edition of Mr. Edward Robinson's admirable 'Catalogue of Casts from Greek and Roman Sculpture,' first published in 1891 (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The original work was reviewed at length in these columns. The new issue has been subjected to a thorough revision, and almost every page testifies, not only to the progress of archæological research during the past five years, but to the author's growth in mastery of his subject. In its present form the book is one of the few first-rate catalogues of Greek and Roman sculpture (whether casts or originals) in existence, and we warmly recommend it to every student of the subject, whatever his other appliances for study may be. We note that Mr. Robinson, like Mr. Ernest Gardner in his 'Handbook of Greek Sculpture,' though for different reasons, maintains a sceptical attitude regarding the Phidian character of the statue restored by Prof. Furtwängler and identified by him with the Lemnian Athena of the great Athenian sculptor.

A few weeks ago we remarked in these columns, in connection with Miss Tarbell's biographical study of Madame Roland, that "a volume of Madame Roland's unedited letters with notes" would be of value. We were then unaware that precisely such a volume had just appeared, 'Le Mariage de Madame Roland: Trois années de correspondance amoureuse (1777-1780),' published, with an introduction and notes, by A. Join-Lambert (Paris: Plon). This correspondence leaves no question that the marriage was due to the ardent wishes of Mlle. Phlipon, and that her view of it in later years was a complete misconception.

Among several works of older date to which renewed interest has been imparted by their relation to questions of our day, Th. G. von Hippel's 'Über die bürgerliche Verbesserung der Weiber' is one of the most curious. The book was first published in 1792 by Voss of Berlin, the title-page bearing a pretty vignette in place of the author's name. It is remarkable for its full line of arguments in favor of the advancement of woman; few new ones have been added since. In moral elevation and loftiness of air Hippel resembles Condorcet, who pleaded for woman's civic rights two years before the appearance of the Königsberger's book, and who may have inspired him.

Few families, we trust, are visited with more tribulations than M. Maubert's, in Henry Gréville's 'Céphise' (Paris: Plon); but the heroine of the story, with a rare combination of fortitude and womanly tact and gentleness, succeeds in averting the worst, and, by harmonizing discordant elements, restores peace and comparative happiness to the family. Finally, her own good fortune comes to her as the just reward of unselfish devotion and renunciation. The story is full of incidents, and is told with the animation to which the reader of Mme. Durand's books is accustomed.

E. Rodocanachi's 'Renée de France, Duchesse de Ferrare' (Paris: Ollendorff) is an historical study of a great protectress of the Reformation both in France and in Italy, and is a conscientious yet brilliant piece of work, written in a clear, picturesque, and taking way that holds the reader with absorbing interest.

'Le Cœur de Régine,' by Jean Rameau (Paris: Colin & Cie.), is a charming novel, full of the beauty of the Bearnese land and of human interest; absolutely pure, well constructed, and touching, told with simplicity that conceals art. Régine herself, her farmer father, the brilliant and artificial Countess de Thorn, are excellently drawn characters.

Mr. John Bartlett, the veteran author of 'Familiar Quotations,' four years ago presented to the Library of Harvard College his exceptionally fine collection of works on angling and cognate themes. The group of works on angling proper was reinforced by the Library's own possessions, and the collection as a whole has now been catalogued by Miss Louise Rankin Albee among the Library's "Bibliographical Contributions." A subject-index is subjoined.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July opens with an account of explorations made in Celebes during the past three or four years by Messrs. P. and F. Sarasin. Their latest discovery is of a lake in which was a village on piles. The inhabitants manufactured "earthenware and bronze utensils similar to those found in European lake-dwellings." The slave-trade prevails, notwithstanding the efforts of the Dutch Government to repress it. There is also an abstract of M. Raoul Pictet's paper on irrigation by solar energy, read before the Geneva Geographical Congress. Basing his theory on the observation of the sand-spouts in the desert near Cairo, which sometimes attain a height of 13,000 feet, with funnels having a diameter of 2,000 feet, he says that if an area of one hectare (two and one-half acres) were covered with blackened plates of sheet iron under which water was conducted, a huge boiler would be constructed capable of heating the water by the solar rays alone to 150° Fahr., and thus developing two thousand horse-power, by means of which the Nile water could be raised to the proper height and poured over the desert.

The article of most general interest in the sixth number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* is Dr. Baumann's description of a small lake in German East Africa. Though it has neither inlet nor outlet, its waters are drinkable and abound in fish and hippopotami. Finding a village on the shore whose inhabitants cultivated manioc, he refers to the immense increase of this American plant in Equatorial Africa, due probably to the fact that the locusts spare it. An excellent geologic and tektonic map of Venezuela is accompanied with notes and profiles.

The Russians are displaying great vigor in the construction of the Siberian Railway. From a report to the committee of which the Czar is president, it appears that 918 miles were built last season, and that the road is now completed to the River Yenesei, more than a third of the whole distance. The great engineering difficulties in carrying the road around Lake Baikal are to be avoided by ferrying the trains across the lake, a distance of twenty miles. It is probable that the surveyed route from this point will be abandoned, and, thanks to the new relations with China, that the line will be carried directly through Mantchuria. Not only would this shorten the distance to the Pacific by 663 miles, but the road would pass through a densely populated region, rich in natural products and lacking in manufactured goods.

—Natives of Maine who are sometimes at a loss for illustrations of the appropriateness of the motto on their State seal, will take satisfaction in examining Judge Joseph Williamson's 'Bibliography of the State of Maine from the earliest period to 1891' (Portland: The Thurston Print). For this work, though not above criticism from the standpoint of the professional cataloguer, must be awarded leadership in scope, in completeness, and in fulness of entry over every previous attempt at the bibliography of an entire State. The eleven thousand entries contained in its two substantial volumes aim to give the full title of every book, pamphlet, and magazine article, either printed in Maine, or referring to that commonwealth, or written by a resident thereof. The intentional omissions are certain public, municipal, and legal reports, together with pamphlets relating to organizations not of an historical, literary, charitable, or religious character. The plan of the book also excludes—unfortunately for the literary fame of Maine—publications of natives issued after they ceased to be residents. Within these limits the work seems fairly exhaustive. Certainly it is an invaluable catalogue for use in historical and genealogical or in literary investigation. On comparing it with that helpful tool, the Boston Public Library Index to American Local History, by means of an examination of the references under the names of three Maine cities chosen at random, the writer finds that in the same field the Bibliography records one-third more articles than the Index, and that the number of historical books and essays cited is thrice as great. Under the respective localities described are found references not only to well-known novels like Hawthorne's 'Fanshawe,' Mrs. Stowe's 'Pearl of Orr's Island,' and Howells's 'A Modern Instance,' but also to a large number of stories and poems of places that may hardly rank as literature, yet are of interest to residents and sojourners in the Pine Tree State. The compiler's carefulness is shown by the inclusion of the full title of Longfellow's rare 'French Exercises,' one of his educational books, that is almost invariably omitted in bibliographies of the poet. In many cases Judge Williamson notes the successive editions of a popular work. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, Rev. Samuel Moodey of York appears as the favorite Maine author. His 'The Vain Youth Summoned to Appear before Christ's Bar,' issued in 1707, reached a third edition in 1760, and his 'Judas the Traitor, Hung up in Chains,' met with similar honor. At the end of the nineteenth century his successor in popular esteem is a lady living in the adjoining town, Miss Sarah Orne Jewett, whose 'Deephaven' reached its twenty-fourth edition in 1892.

—Charles Scribner's Sons have recently put on the market two sumptuous and excellent books of adventure. The one is Mr. W. A. Baillie-Grohman's 'Sport in the Alps,' and the other is Mr. E. A. FitzGerald's 'Climbs in the New Zealand Alps.' Mr. Grohman has probably a better knowledge of the whole range of Alpine shooting than any other Englishman. Seven or eight years ago he had brought down his hundredth chamois, and ever since boyhood he has had the run of the preserves of dukes and princes, besides the freedom of many communes. He is, moreover, a delightful writer, and many readers who never saw a chamois or heard of a steinbock will linger over the pages of the present volume. Mr. Grohman's 'Camps in the Rockies' introduced him to the sportsmen of this continent, but long before its publication he was

well known to lovers of the eastern Alps. He now recurs to his old theme of the Tyrol. Switzerland is left out of sight because of the comparative inferiority of its shooting. "Republican equality of civil rights and game-preserving cannot, we know, exist side by side." The chamois takes first place in any account of Alpine game, and Mr. Grohman gives more space to it than to all other species. The best chamois preserves are situated in the north Tyrol limestone group of the Karawendel Mountains, along the march-line between Austria and the Bavarian Highlands. Over 8,000 chamois are killed in Austria annually, and this district in proportion to its extent heads the list. Mr. Grohman discusses the history of chamois-hunting, the nature and the present number of the animal, chamois-driving in the preserves, stalking in peasants' shoots, and stalking in winter. A chapter is devoted to the late Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha and his shoot in the Hinter-Riss. The Prince Consort's elder brother was no less a born Jäger than a born gentleman, and Mr. Grohman's sporting reminiscences of him are among his best touches. The remainder of the volume deals with the other principal species of Alpine game, to wit, the red deer, the roe-deer, the black-cock, the capercaillie, and the practically extinct bouquetin or steinbock. Throughout, Mr. Grohman enlivens his text with many of the good stories which we have come to expect from him in every new book. His sketches of the art of Alpine venery in the past are also very entertaining.

—Mr. FitzGerald is a geographical pioneer as well as a climber. The Alps of the southern island of New Zealand were visited in 1882 by the Rev. W. S. Green with Emil Boss and Ulrich Kaufmann of Grindelwald. This party got to within a stone's throw of the summit of Mount Cook, 12,349 feet, but were obliged to retreat at the last moment. No serious attempt was made to explore the glacier region above the Hermitage till 1894, when Mr. FitzGerald went out with Mr. C. L. Barrow and the now famous Mattias Zurbriggen of Macugnaga. The snow-line is extremely low in the New Zealand Alps, and Mr. FitzGerald's results, measured in terms of exertion, equal the more showy record of many a Caucasian or Himalayan expedition. Zurbriggen was, of course, indispensable, and his unaided ascent of Mount Cook is a splendid exploit. He and Mr. FitzGerald nearly lost their lives on Mount Sefton, and were saved only by the third strand of their rope after two had broken. Mr. FitzGerald's geographical novelties are the more thorough examination of the Tasman glacier and its lateral ice-fields, and the discovery of a pass across the ranges between the Tasman and the Copland Rivers. Five important peaks were ascended, and Mr. FitzGerald's account of the attractiveness of New Zealand climbing will probably draw more Englishmen to the same group. Suitable appendices on geology, flora, and fauna are added to the narrative of adventure, and the illustrations are among the best ever presented in a book of the kind. The photogravure of Mount Cook from the summit of the Silberhorn is the limit of what this art can do in the way of faithful delineation. A large folding map of the New Zealand glaciers accompanies the volume.

—Dr. George Clarke's little monograph on 'The Education of Children at Rome' (Macmillan), originally prepared as a dissertation for the degree of Ph.D. in the University of Colorado, contains a clear summary of the facts, and is written in a bright and not unentertaining style. The first chapter sets forth the purpose of education at Rome; the most original of the following seven is that entitled "Pedagogical Ideas of the Romans"; the others treat of home training, the curriculum of primary and secondary schools, school buildings, and the status of teachers. There is really nothing else in English which covers the ground so thoroughly, and Dr. Clarke's book will therefore be useful in many quarters as an introduction to the subject. Naturally, he makes much use of Quintilian, whose criticisms on the evil influences which in his day beset the sons of the rich, both at home and in the streets and schools, often read as though addressed to the same class in our own time and country. Many, too, who have lately joined in the hue and cry against the neglect of English in our schools might profitably take to heart what Cicero says in the *Brutus:* "It is of great moment whom one hears every day at home, with whom one speaks in boyhood, and what sort of language is used by one's father, mother, and pedagogues [*Anglicè*, "nurses," not "teachers"]." On the other hand, the Roman fault of banishing all but the eminently practical from the curriculum should be a warning to those modern teachers whose sole aim seems to be not to educate but to "prepare for college." Dr. Clarke is in general well acquainted with the material, although we miss in his bibliography the names of several recent writers, such as Pottier, Rossi, Rothenberg, Budaker, and Bresnik. Ussing's book, too, is cited in its Altona translation of 1870 instead of in the Berlin version of 1885. With his interpretation of the authors we have little fault to find. The quotation from Pliny on p. 6 is perhaps a little out of place, since in that passage Pliny is not speaking of the education of children. Of the trick practised by Persius, who says that when a boy he used to rub his eyes with olive oil to prevent his being "called up" on declamation days, Dr. Clarke remarks that this was done "to give him the appearance of illness, though how oil would have that effect is not apparent." But the point here is that oil was a common remedy for *lippitudo;* the boy (though we can't believe that the goody-goody Persius ever really did it) would apply the remedy to help out his pretence that he had the disease. We note these misprints: 223 for 223 on p. 63; 24 for 44 on p. 68; *Instaur.* for *Restaur.* on p. 55.

—That the merit system pays is rather strikingly shown by a recent publication of the United States Civil-Service Commission, from which the following statistics are taken: In 1883, when the civil-service law first went into effect, the 5,530 places (salaries attached $7,035,820) made subject to competitive examination were in the departmental service. Under the merit system, in the face of normal increase in business, the number of these classified departmental officials has been decreased 2 per cent., with a present salary cost of $6,960,602, or at a yearly saving of $75,218. In this same departmental service, the unclassified employees numbered 7,847 in 1883 and 10,760 in 1896, while the salary charge has increased from $6,792,877 to $9,746,252. The full bearing of these figures, however, is brought out only when compared with the statistics of other branches of the public service. In 1883 there were 154 Senate officials, total salaries $276,044; in 1896 there are 326 such employees, salaries $432,228. The House of Representatives in 1883 employed 197 officials, salaries $364,028; by 1896 the number had risen to 591, salaries $624,022. In the judicial department of the Government the officials have increased during the past thirteen years from six to eighty-nine, their salaries from $15,000 to $114,150. We find, therefore, that in 1883 there were, in the legislative, judicial, and unclassified departmental services, 8,204 employees, receiving salaries amounting to $7,447,449, and that in 1896 these figures have risen to 11,766 employees, salaries $10,916,652. Even admitting that the work assigned to the unclassified positions has grown more rapidly than that of the classified (of which there is no pretence), these official returns should supply food for thought to the non-political mind.

—The seventeenth volume of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch* (1896), the midsummer gift of the Goethe Society to its members, is this year of especial interest. It contains the eleventh annual report, in which the work of the first decade of the society's existence is reviewed. Since last year the membership has fallen off; on December 31, 1895, there were 2,693 members—only sixty-four more than in the year when the society was founded. It may, therefore, safely be assumed that the present membership is practically permanent, and the treasurer's report shows that the income thus assured is adequate to the actual needs of the society. During the past ten years 345,953 marks have been expended, more than half of which has been devoted to the two annual publications; the assets are set down as 106,650 marks. When, in connection with this satisfactory showing, we consider the uniform excellence and public value of the work done and the unrivalled facilities afforded to students by the archives, we must assent to the complacent claim of the committee that the Goethe Society is one of the most flourishing literary organizations in the world. Besides the bibliography, which is always a model of classification and completeness, the present *Jahrbuch* contains the usual mass of interesting and more or less useful material. From the archives there are numerous hitherto unpublished letters to Goethe from Tieck, Brinckmann, and the elder Voss, together with several bits of Goethe's own writings, principally relating to art. There are also seven original treatises. One, dealing with Goethe's masterly exposition of Leonardo's "Last Supper," is accompanied by reproductions of that composition in three forms: the original painting, the copy in the Brera, and the engraving by Morghen. Max Friedlaender's essay on "Goethe's Gedichte in der Musik" furnishes much curious information concerning the fate of Goethe's songs in the hands of various composers, and there is a valuable bibliography of the musical settings which his best known lyrics have received. This is a forestudy to an exhaustive work, which is soon to appear, on German song in the eighteenth century. Among the countless "Miscellen" we note especially a carefully reasoned article by an Englishman on the chronology of the first paralipomenon to "Faust," which is here reproduced in facsimile. The writer's conclusion is that, although in the autumn of 1773 "Faust" had been begun, the Gretchen episode had not been clearly thought out, but that the poet had already recognized the necessity of a second part. This deduction coincides with Goethe's express statement towards the close

of his life, and is further evidence of the trend of modern criticism which, Prof. Dowden to the contrary notwithstanding, is to establish the view that the entire "Faust" is, in its essential features, the outgrowth of a single original conception.

CHARLES BULFINCH.

The Life and Letters of Charles Bulfinch, Architect; with Other Family Papers. Edited by his Granddaughter, Ellen Susan Bulfinch. With an Introduction by Charles A. Cummings. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. Octavo, pp. xiv-328.

THIS life of the first American architect of distinction appeared at a most opportune moment, when the question of the virtual destruction of his principal work, the Boston State-house, was a burning one. It was well that we should be reminded at this time what manner of man was this true artist and good citizen, who "has fairly earned, by his respectful treatment of old historical monuments, a similar treatment of his own buildings." The material for a biography of him seems unfortunately scanty, and the present volume attains its handsome proportions by dint of large draughts upon "family papers" which have little direct bearing upon his own life and work, but which give us full-length portraits of his mother and other relatives. Slight as is the sketch of Bulfinch himself, however, it is prettily touched, and reveals to us a personality of much charm.

Charles Bulfinch may almost be included in that list of amateur architects which would embrace the names of Michelangelo and Perrault and many another to whom the world owes notable buildings. Architecture was rather a pastime with him at first than a business, and it was only after his dallying with it had brought financial ruin that he made of it a bread-winner. Born in Boston in 1763, the son of a physician of repute, his boyhood was coincident with the Revolutionary war. His father did not wish him to pursue the profession of medicine, and after his graduation from Harvard in 1781 he was placed for a short time in a counting-house, where he seems to have done little work, devoting himself rather to cultivating that taste for architecture which had shown itself in his earliest scribblings in his school-books. A trip to Europe in 1785 fostered this tendency still more. Late in life he wrote: "These pursuits did not confirm me in any business habits of buying & selling; on the contrary, they had a powerful adverse influence on my whole after life." His portrait, painted in London at this time, shows a pleasing and refined face of no great power. "You will find it very rough," he writes, "but that is the modish style of painting, introduced by Sir Joshua Reynolds. Mr. Copley, indeed, paints in another manner, his pictures are finished to the utmost nicety, but then—they are *very dear*." On his return to Boston he married and lived the life of a gentleman of substance and of leisure, dabbling in architecture, designing the Beacon Hill monument, and so forth.

In 1789 he was elected one of the Selectmen of the town, and his relations with the municipal government of Boston continued with a brief interval for twenty-nine years. He was chairman of the Board of Selectmen for twenty-one years, from 1797 to 1818. In his quality of artist and dilettant he was much interested in the founding of the Boston Theatre, was one of its original trustees, and the designer of its building, which was first opened in 1794. The plans were presented to the trustees, and a gold medal, which shows the design of the theatre, and which served as a perpetual ticket of admission, was the only remuneration received for them. It was his love for architecture rather than for speculation in real estate that led him into the scheme of building Franklin Crescent, which brought about his first bankruptcy. "With what remorse," he says, "have I looked back on those events, when, blindly gratifying a taste for my favorite pursuit, I involved for life myself and wife with our children—my Father and Mother and Sisters, who all held the utmost confidence in my measures and pride in my expected success."

But if "these pursuits" had exercised "a powerful adverse influence" upon his life and had led him to financial disaster, they were now to become the means of his livelihood and to give him a reputation which is likely to be enduring. For the rest of his life he was a professional architect. He had no professional training whatever, was never an accomplished draughtsman, and his architectural library was very meagre. With so slight an equipment he produced a series of buildings which not only are the best of their period in this country, but are intrinsically beautiful. A transparent rectitude, an admirable simplicity, and a gentle refinement and dignity seem to have been the most marked characteristics of the man himself, and these characteristics he translated into the terms of his art. Sincerity, simplicity, dignity, and refinement mark everything he produced. Much that he designed is now destroyed, and much of what is left is of extreme simplicity and almost bareness. It was the day of small things, and often, as Mr. Cummings remarks, "a little architecture was made to go a long way." Even in more elaborate works his materials were generally plain brick and wood. But, as the same writer puts it, "out of his slender resources he created . . . a body of architecture which possessed the grand qualities of simplicity, dignity, repose, not without a certain modest elegance which was of the nature of the man himself." Purity of taste and an unfailing sense of proportion made the plainest of his buildings interesting. His first truly professional undertaking and his best work is the Boston State-house. The professional standing of the President of the Boston Society of Architects makes his judgment so authoritative that we shall quote once again from his introduction his estimate of that building:

"Measured by the modern standard, it is by no means a large building: its frontage being no more than 175 feet, while its depth is only 60 feet. There is no richness of material, brick and wood serving all the purposes of construction and decoration. Yet its disposition of parts is so happy, its treatment is so broad and simple, its sparing ornament is so correct in itself and so judiciously used, that it produces the effect of size and dignity, combined in a remarkable degree with elegance and grace. Its site is the finest in the city, and the adaptation of the building to its site is perfect."

In spite of several alterations, the building is not greatly changed, and the well-executed photogravure illustrations of this volume give an excellent idea of its quality, both as to the exterior and the beautiful interior. Other buildings well illustrated either by photogravures or by drawings are the New South Meeting-house, the old City Hall of Boston, the McLean Asylum with its charming and original interior staircase, the Massachusetts General Hospital, and the State-house at Augusta, Me., his latest known design. Three of these buildings have been entirely demolished, and the General Hospital has been greatly altered and enlarged. The State-house at Augusta is the only one of the five that remains as it was originally built.

In 1812 business reverses again befell Mr. Bulfinch, and he seems to have suffered a short imprisonment for debt. He had been engaged in the draining of flats, and had not sufficient capital to carry him over the hard times brought about by the war with England. Others engaged in the same enterprise made fortunes in it. How little he lost in the esteem of his fellow-citizens is shown by the curious incident that befell in 1815, when he and two others failed of reëlection to the Board of Selectmen, upon which "every elected member . . . immediately resigned, and on a second trial Mr. Bulfinch and the others were reinstated by decided majorities." Such a vote of confidence can have been rarely paralleled.

At the end of the year 1817 Mr. Bulfinch was appointed architect of the Capitol at Washington, to succeed Mr. Latrobe, and his work there was not completed until 1830. As is well known, the Capitol had been burned by English troops during the war, and its reconstruction had been begun by Mr. Latrobe. How far Bulfinch followed Mr Latrobe's plans and how far he altered them, seems to be unknown. It is certain that the dome did not follow the old plan, but also that it did not satisfy Mr. Bulfinch, who thought it too high. Judging from old drawings, we think he was right in this. A flatter dome would have been more in accord with the character of the original building. That which was built was neither high enough for the kind of dignity that the present dome possesses, nor low enough for the breadth of effect that Bulfinch aimed at. What Bulfinch certainly designed is the arrangement of terraces on the west front, which give such dignity to the Capitol when seen from that side. The west portico, also, shows such a marked resemblance in style and arrangement to known works by Mr. Bulfinch that it seems probable that it was partially or wholly designed by him. The alteration in the appearance of the building by the addition of the present dome and the enormous wings is so great that it is only with difficulty that one can form a conception of its appearance when Mr. Bulfinch left it in 1830. To us it appears that this original building must have been far finer and more artistic in effect than the present structure, and that the west portico must have been the finest part of the building. To-day the Capitol is imposing by sheer bulk, but has neither unity of design nor beauty of proportion. The porticos of the wings are of a pompous pseudo-Greek, not lacking in a certain dignity, but entirely without the charm that Bulfinch knew how to impart to his freer classic design with its grouped and unfluted columns. One notable difference between the old and the newer portions of the Capitol is that, in the newer parts, the heavy window pediments are carried on straight under the porticos, thus putting a roof within a roof, while in the older nucleus these pediments are replaced by plain caps or round arches under the porticos. In this it seems to us the old architect, whether Bulfinch or Latrobe, was more logical as well as more artistic than his modern successor.

In 1830 Mr. Bulfinch returned to Boston, where, with one brief interval, he lived until

his death in 1848. No professional work of his is known to exist of later date than 1832, the year in which the State-house at Augusta was completed. The last sixteen years of his venerable and much respected old age were spent in retirement, and it is in the letters of this period that we get some of our most valuable glimpses of his charming personality. His unaffected modesty, his simplicity, shrewdness, and genuine taste are shown in a number of slight touches, until we feel that we know the man. There is a delightful tinge of naïveté in his remark, in answer to the question whether he should train up any of his sons as architects, "that he did not think there would be much left for them to do. The States and prominent towns were already supplied with their chief buildings, and he hardly thought a young man could make a living as an architect." His remarks on the difficulty of costume in modern sculpture and the unsatisfactoriness of no costume are sensible, and his suggestion with regard to Greenough's Washington is good humoredly humorous. "If I should give any advice," he says, "it would be to send the Statue to Athens, a present to King Otho, to be placed in the Parthenon, with other naked great men."

Although much of the matter included in this volume bears, as we have said, little direct relation to the life and work of Charles Bulfinch, it is by no means without an interest of its own and we are far from wishing that it had been omitted. One is sorry not to hear more of Bulfinch himself, but one is glad of these old family letters as one is of almost any old letters with their fragrance of gentility like a faint scent of lavender. They all help to form a picture of the life of Boston in its old provincial days, and to give an idea of the atmosphere in which alone such a life and such a character as Bulfinch's could have been possible.

GREGORY'S PURITANISM.

Puritanism in the Old World and in the New, from its Inception in the Reign of Elizabeth to the Establishment of the Puritan Theocracy in New England: A Historical Handbook. By the Rev. J. Gregory, Edinburgh. Introduction by the Rev. Amory H Bradford, D.D. Fleming H. Revell. 1896. Pp. x, 406.

DURING the last three or four years we have reviewed several volumes dealing with the beginnings of New England religious life, and publication in that already well-worked field seems decidedly increasing in frequency. The latest writer to come to our notice is a Scotch Independent minister, whose prominence among his denominational brethren is shown in their choice of him as chairman of the Congregational Union of Scotland six years ago. Mr. Gregory's claims for his volume are modest. His sub-title is "A Historical Handbook," and he frankly declares, "I am not solicitous to clear myself from the imputation of being biassed, nay, of being very strongly biassed, in favour of the Puritans." The result is a vivacious volume, in spite of the fragmentary character which the subdivision of each chapter into brief paragraphs imposes; and the work, without indicating much acquaintance with the sources, shows considerable familiarity with the more recent —though not always the most recent—literature of the theme. Of course 225 loosely printed pages devoted to an account of Puritanism in the Old World, and 125 to its transplantation to America, permit only a general outline; but the main features of the story are for the most part indicated.

Mr. Gregory, however, seems to have a hazy conception of what Puritanism itself was. While it is the Puritan and the Separatist parties of history regarding which he writes, he affirms that "Samuel was a Puritan, so was Ezra, so was Nehemiah, so was John the Baptist. It was the zeal of Puritanism that moved the Divine Son to expel the traffickers from the temple. . . . Nor is this using the word Puritan in a loose, inexact sense. All that is originally connoted by it is zeal for purity—purity of faith, worship, and manners." A little later the author remarks: "The significance of Puritanism is not doctrinal but ethical. It was not necessary that it should be permanently identified with the system of Calvinism." Doubtless this is etymologically true, just as it is true that republican broadly indicates attachment to a republic; but historically it is as impossible to separate the Puritan party from its intense Calvinism or its opposition to ceremonies as to divorce the American Republican party from its support of the national Government, its hostility to slavery, and its high protection. The Puritan was a reformer; but it is far from true that all reformers have been Puritans in any sense historically attachable to that name. Mr. Gregory has a clearer conception of the points of divergence between the Puritans and Separatists, but he regards them as of little practical consequence, therein differing widely from such contemporary champions of either party as Browne and Barrowe, Cartwright and Gifford. He prefers the name Puritan as a designation of the whole movement. The beginnings of Puritanism he ascribes, not at all conclusively, to Holland.

Our author is no more satisfactory when he endeavors to explain the Puritan position. He tells us: "The ruling powers contended that every prince had authority to correct all abuses of doctrine and worship within his own territories. This the Puritans resisted as an invasion of the rights of conscience." On the contrary, none asserted more strongly than the Puritans and most of the early Separatists that it was the obligation of all magistrates to exercise their power for the purification of the church. Cartwright, as Mr. Gregory himself recognizes, deemed the punishment of heresy a duty. The poor Separatist exiles at Amsterdam wrote, in their Confession of 1596, regarding the Church of England, "that by Gods Commandement all that will bee saued must vvith speed come forth of this Antichristian estate, leaving the suppression of it vnto the Magistrate to vvhom it belongeth." The same feeling prompted John Norton, in 1651, to affirm "That licentious and pestilent Proposition, The care of the matters of Religion belongs not to the Magistrate, is a Stratagem of the Old Serpent and Father of lies, to make free passage for the doctrine of devils." It was, indeed, not what the ruler preferred, but what the Bible taught, that men were, if needful, to be coerced to follow. As the Cambridge Synod expressed it in 1646: "For the Magistrate to command or forbid according to God, as it is not persecution, so neither doth it of it selfe tend to persecution. Power to presse the Word of God and his truth, doth not give warrant to suppresse or oppresse the same." Mr. Gregory's assertion is the more difficult to understand in view of the instances of Puritan intolerance which he himself cites. Holding this view of Puritan aims, it is not surprising to find Mr. Gregory affirming, in regard to the Plymouth pilgrims, that "they had crossed the then comparatively untraversed path of the Atlantic for love of God, and in search of liberty of conscience," but it is pleasant to observe that he adds later a phrase which puts matters somewhat more truly: "They simply wanted an asylum where, free from all molestation and disability on account of their faith, they could worship the Great Being to whom they owed no doubtful or wavering allegiance."

When we turn to minuter features of Mr. Gregory's volume, we find it no more satisfactory. In spite of the general felicity of his style, the writer seems at times to have difficulty in reaching clearness of thought. Thus, he states that Robert Browne "became, according to Strype, private chaplain to the Duke of Norfolk. He was cited to appear before the Ecclesiastical Commissioners on a charge of disseminating seditious doctrines; and had not that nobleman befriended him and taken his part, he would doubtless have become acquainted with the inside of a prison much earlier than he did." Yet, notwithstanding the want of doubt thus expressed, Mr. Gregory adds a foot-note to the effect that this chaplaincy and ducal intervention "appears to be an error on the part of Strype." In describing the sufferings of Barrowe and Greenwood in 1593, Mr. Gregory says: "In the 'Apology or Defence of such True Christians as are commonly (but unjustly) called Brownists,' written a day or two before his death, we have a description of what followed from Barrowe's own pen." Barrowe's letter was written just before his execution in 1593, but the "Apology" in which it is inserted is of 1604. Mr. Gregory, speaking of the application of Whitgift's repressive measures to England, says: "It must be remembered that at that time there were not more than two thousand clergymen in the whole country"; a statement hard to reconcile with the quotation from Neal which immediately follows, that "there were only two thousand preachers to serve near ten thousand parishes, so that there were almost eight thousand parishes without preaching ministers," and Mr. Gregory's own comment on this quotation—a comment borrowed word for word from Hallam—that "in general, the number of those [ministers] who could not preach, but only read the service, was to the others nearly as four to one." We can hardly suppose Mr. Gregory to mean that only preachers were "clergymen."

Of downright mistakes the book has its full share. On p. 127 Mr. Gregory asserts that Browne gathered at Norwich, in 1580, "a numerous congregation, which comprised, probably, a considerable number of Dutch refugees"; on p. 206 he informs us that this church was "mainly composed of people from the Netherlands." Now, whatever aid may have unwittingly come to Browne from the dissemination of an Anabaptist way of thinking by exiles from Holland settled in Norwich, Mr. Gregory's statements, though having some countenance from historians before the careful researches of the late Dr. Dexter, are unwarranted in view of the facts that no Dutch names appear among those of this congregation whose names have come down to us, and that Browne's own elaborate spiritual autobiography exhibits no conscious indebtedness to Dutch sources. The declaration that John Eliot "gave up his settled ministry at Rosebury" to become a missionary to the Indians contains a double error. The

statement that in the New England of 1648 "the leading or organizing minds were Cotton, Hooker, Norton, Davenport, and the learned and credulous Cotton Mather," is startling in view of the facts that Hooker died in 1647 and Cotton Mather was not to be born till 1663. A son of Connecticut might well wish that Mr. Gregory was not contradicted by the Colonial Records when he says that that colony refused to make church attendance compulsory; and the New Englander cannot avoid a feeling of wonder as to the process of reasoning by which Mr. Gregory can recognize the participation of those who were not church-members in the franchise in Plymouth and Connecticut, and yet say, of the electoral limitations of the founders of Massachusetts, that "it is difficult to see how they could have acted upon any other principle than that which they did, though it was sure to be found unworkable as the colony grew stronger." If little Plymouth and Connecticut found such restriction needless, it is easy to see—in fact, even seventeenth-century Puritans did perceive—how Massachusetts might have acted upon another principle than that of confining the ballot to church-members.

We may regard as at least very doubtful, in view of recent investigations, Mr. Gregory's unqualified assertion that Roger Williams "was a Welshman, born in Carmarthenshire." His reference to the Colony of Rhode Island, for which Williams obtained a patent, as "that island," like his designation of the author of 'The Sabbath in Puritan New England' as "Miss Earle," is readily accounted for by lack of personal familiarity with America; but enough of the quality of Mr. Gregory's book has been indicated to afford a comment on the commendatory opinion of the writer of the introduction with which the American edition is prefaced, that "its characteristics are perspicuity and careful scholarship."

REVOLUTIONARY MANUSCRIPTS.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773 1783. Vol. XXIII., Nos. 1946 to 2023. London.

THE first document (No. 1946) in the present volume is one of the choicest in the whole series; it reveals George III. in the very act of administering one of his favorite remedies, "some gold pills" (and they say the King had no humor!), to his patient, Lord North, then languishing from a severe attack of bad debts. The skilful apothecary who compounded the prescription was the Hon. John Robinson, he of the Little Red Book, Secretary of the Treasury, and leader of the House of Commons. There was no harshness in the treatment, and the dose was administered in a soothing menstruum as follows and in brief: In March, 1778, Robinson made over to Wedderburn, Whately, and Pulteney notes for £20,000, for which he held the receipt of the King. At the end of three months, these gentlemen, seemingly weary of the "trust" vested in them, turned the whole sum back to Robinson. With the receipts properly given them, the whole matter seems to stop abruptly. But what was the next step in the course of this incident of "Our Special Service"? The King in the September previous wrote to Lord North: "You have at times droped [*sic*] to me that you had been in debt ever since your first settling in life, and that you had never been able to get rest of that difficulty; I therefore must insist you will now state to me whether 12 or 15,000l will not set your affairs in order; if it will, nay, if 20,000l is necessary, I am resolved you shall have no other person concerned in freeing them but myself." In 1782 the King refers to "20,000l I gave him leave to take for the discharge of his debts." The thing was delicately carried out considering the coarseness of the age, and the sensibilities of Lord North were humanely spared. It is commonly known that Lord North's debts formed an issue in the prosecution of the war with the colonies.

After this obvious corruption one welcomes the more urbane and less strenuous self-seeking of the unhappy French officers who took across the sea much ambition and much "honneur," and found so little to flatter the one and so much to offend the other. It is evident in these letters that severe external discipline represses but does not subdue a fault-finding yet hopelessly uncritical spirit in the military character. Is it of necessity that a soldier shall be by the nature of his profession mentally crude, incapable of the nicer discriminations? De Kalb's letter (No. 1771) to the Comte de Broglie reaffirms the jealousy of Americans towards France, which is due, he says, to their "English origin." "They all have the highest opinion of themselves," and "one sees them suffer inwardly when the French obtain some advantage over the British arms." He does, however, admit the French tendency to exaggeration in these matters. A delightful instance of this is in the Chevalier de Fleury's letter to De Broglie of Nov. 1, 1778 (1986), when, after covering lightly D'Estaing's campaign, he says, "After M. d'Orvillier's success, the Strait of Dover is hardly more than a ditch." To return to De Kalb, who again writes to De Broglie on Nov. 7, 1778 (No. 1987), this time in cipher: he favors the conquest of Canada, for he thinks the Americans will inevitably reunite with England. "They bear impatiently the idea of the humiliation of England; the least check which the English armies experience from any others besides the insurgents seems to pain and humiliate them." Speaking in the same letter of the American idealization of Washington, he asserts that "if they were sure of always having Generals like him, they would soon lay down the law to the universe . . . this is said so often, that Washington believes it himself. I do not wish to decry his merit nor many good qualities which he possesses, but he is a poor General; his reputation is due to good fortune, to the misconduct, to the blindness of his adversaries, and especially to Providence"—phrases which anticipate Mr. Charles Francis Adams's late critique of the battle of Long Island. In No. 1988, writing in cipher on Nov. 11, 1778, still to the Comte de Broglie, De Kalb unconsciously goes far to explain why Americans may have heard impatiently of the "humiliation of England." "Do you not think, General," he says, "that it is better, as I said in my letter of the 7th November, to leave them some bone to pick which will keep up a quarrel for a long time, for otherwise we shall not succeed in securing a total separation?"

The French King seems to have partly understood the character of some of his officers when, in his direction to M. Gérard, he says that they "generally place too much importance on their services, which causes the insurgents to care little for them." The caution of Vergennes is as evident in this volume as it is everywhere else in these times. He even forbids the presentation of a piece, "La Fête Bostonienne," at the Comédie-Italienne, nominally because it was of too recent a date (Nos. 2001, 2003). Writing to Sartine, who asks in behalf of the Chamber of Commerce of Aunis and of other places that La Rochelle be made one of the free ports for Americans, this wary statesman says, "We cannot deal with this matter until after the peace. You are aware that until that period all our ports are free to the Americans" (Nos. 2004-2006).

There are several interesting papers (Nos. 1992, 1993, 1995, 1996, and 2000) which touch upon American credit in France. Nos. 1953, 1972, 1978 are concerned with our earliest relations as a nation with the Barbary Powers and our commerce in the Mediterranean. Vergennes in No. 1966 refuses a loan to William Lee, and says that the "Government takes no cognizance of private operations"; but Lee soon asks him for brass and iron cannon for Virginia (No. 1982), and represents that fortifications in that State would be of service to the French fleet, inasmuch as "Boston, the only fortified Port to the North, is frozen up every winter, and where Provisions are generally dear." The climate of Boston has softened much since Arthur and William Lee knew it.

The end of this volume (Nos. 2010 to 2023) is taken up with valuable material relating to the siege of Savannah and to the movements of D'Estaing's fleet at that time. To particularize is quite unnecessary, since Mr. Stevens's grouping and editing have made everything clear. In D'Estaing's notes on O'Connor's journal (No. 2018) it is asserted that an "appearance of success" was the motive of attacks, and that a refusal on the part of the French would have been considered cowardice by the Americans, "who are doubtful of nothing even when they have not the most elementary resources." The most significant document is Pechot's Journal (No. 2010). It is long and confused, as such accounts are apt to be, but is noticeable for what seems an undercurrent of innuendo against D'Estaing and the Americans. Upon the whole, however, one receives happier impressions of the French who aided us from this group of documents than were afforded by the letters written to France by disappointed officers earlier in this interesting volume.

On Snow-shoes to the Barren Grounds: Twenty-eight hundred miles after musk-oxen and wood-bison. By Caspar Whitney. Harper & Brothers. 1896. 8vo, pp. x, 324. Many illustrations.

THIS is a vivid narrative of one of the most daring adventures ever undertaken for the sole purpose of hunting big game. The main features of this exploit have been made public in *Harper's Magazine*, but here we have the full-rounded story. Until recently, comparatively few persons have had any adequate idea of the Barren Grounds, either as to the situation, the extent, or the physiography of these analogues of the Siberian tundras, where the musk ox is the only permanently resident large quadruped, and where no man lives the year round—for the Eskimos are maritime, not inland, people. The difficulty of penetrating far into this desolate region is almost insurmountable; access is practicable only in consequence of the migratory herds of caribou at some seasons and the fish that may be caught at others. During the few months when the waters are open, the dreary waste may be reached by canoeing; but this is arduous, owing to the length and frequency of the

required portages. The first white man who ever surmounted the difficulties and dangers of the Barren Grounds was Samuel Hearne, who in 1771–'72 succeeded in reaching the mouth of Coppermine River, from Prince of Wales Fort on Hudson's Bay, after failing in two different attempts to discover that river, in 1769 and 1770. Hearne's journey to the Coppermine was made in a different direction from Mr. Whitney's, and under different conditions of season, for the most part; like our author, he was the only white man of his party. Mr. Whitney's adventure finds its closest parallel, in most respects, in the expedition of Lieut. (afterward Sir) John Franklin, in 1821; in fact, his trail coincides with Franklin's at some points, notably that known as Fort Enterprise, at the "last wood." The map of the journey, though very small and showing little detail, enables us to follow our traveller intelligently.

Leaving the railroad at Edmonton—which was Fort Augustus before it acquired its present name—Mr. Whitney went north by sleigh to Lac la Biche, where his travel on snowshoes with dog sledges began in the depth of winter. The distance hence to Fort McMurray is 240 miles; and it is 185 miles further to Fort Chipewyan on Lake Athabasca. This is still the most important post in that region, and one which has a long history, going back to 1788, though the original site of this "little Athens of the hyperborean regions," as it used to be styled, is at some little distance from the position first pitched upon by Roderic McKenzie for an "emporium of the North." From this point it is 118 miles down Great Slave River to Fort Smith, where Mr. Whitney diverged from his main route for a round trip after wood-bison—that northerly variety of the so-called buffalo, now apparently quite as rare as the same species has become in the United States. From Fort Smith it is 170 miles to Fort Resolution on Great Slave Lake, where the daring enthusiast on the subject of musk-oxen made up his party of seven Indians and twenty-eight dogs for his final plunge of 475 miles still further northward—past the limit of trees, through the "Land of Little Sticks," where the last lingering traces of arborescence give way to sphagnum that stretches unbroken to the polar sea, and for most of the year is mantled with snow. It is a scene of such desolation as one would be tempted to call indescribable, had not Mr. Whitney's own description given rise to that temptation. Holding still northward, approximately along a meridian of 114°, the undaunted traveller passed the headwaters of Coppermine River; and, with the main stream on his left, at an increasing distance as he went on, he penetrated the arctic circle, and looped about on his return from a latitude apparently near 67°.

This is but a dry, bare skeleton of the perilous journey. The country was a great white desert, but there is no lack of color in the graphic and varied narrative. There was not often enough to eat in camp, but we have our fill in the book. The writing is particularly strong in its delineation of character: the Indians of various tribes, the ubiquitous half-breeds, and all the personalities with whom Mr. Whitney came in contact, stand before us with life-like reality. And the dogs, too, those unhappy creatures, those indispensable slaves of man, doomed to life-long misery of famine and the merciless lash—humanity is shocked at such suffering, in sole requital of services rendered. But what of the musk-ox, almost the sole object of so arduous and so dangerous an enterprise? They were found in plenty in their forbidding haunts, and are brought before our very eyes, from the time when the presence of a herd is first revealed, curiously enough, by the cloud of vapor arising from the animals, to that supreme moment, to a hunter, when the big game is bowled over. Let Mr. Whitney himself say how he felt under the excitement of the chase:

"Everything waltzed about me. I ran on and on in a sort of stupor, until, as I got to the top of a little ridge, I saw two musk oxen about a hundred yards ahead of and running easily though directly from me. And then the blood surged through my veins, the mist cleared from my eyes, and the rocks stopped whirling about me, for there, within range, was my quarry. I swung my rifle into position and dropped on my knee for surer aim. Heavens! my hand shook so that the front sight travelled all over the horizon, and my heart thumped against my side as though it would burst. I had sense enough left to realize that my shot might mean success or failure—for I felt my force was nearly spent. For a moment I rested to get my breath—and the musk-oxen were still going from me and then—another attempt—the foresight for an instant held true—another second's breathing—a quick aim—and I pressed the trigger. What a feeling of exultation as I saw my quarry stagger and then drop! I was dizzy with delight" (p. 221).

The book is full of such word-painting as this, though of course not always pitched in such a high key. Among the best things in it is the cooler description of the animal from a naturalist's standpoint; this is carefully done and may be relied upon. One of the most curious things we note is what Mr. Whitney has to say of the deceptiveness of apparent distances and magnitudes in that country. It is exactly the reverse of the illusion with which we are more familiar on our Western plains, where objects loom up bigger and seem nearer than they really are. In the Barren Grounds, things look smaller and seem further off, as if viewed through a field-glass reversed. Along with this spatial illusion there seems to occur a still more singular one regarding one's sense of lapse of time; and the whole effect recalls what some hashish eaters have told us of their phantasmagoria regarding magnitudes, distances, and especially duration. "When I tripped over a rock," says Mr. Whitney, p. 220, "I seemed to tumble a hundred feet and to take a hundred years to regain my feet." Aside from any question of exaggeration in thus describing a sensation, the author's style may perhaps be open to some criticism on the score of superlatives; but if so, it is the hyperbole of enthusiasm which deceives no one, and raises no suspicion of the traveller's long bow. We think intentional exaggeration would be difficult in such a case as the present, which only a ready and skilful pen could set forth with requisite distinctness, even with the aid of numerous illustrations. These are simply admirable; we have seldom seen a book of travels more copiously and tellingly illustrated. The text is also beautifully printed, in large and brilliant type.

Mr. Whitney is to be congratulated, first upon getting back from the Barren Grounds alive to tell the tale, and then upon telling it so well that this book is sure to take its place among the very best of its kind.

A Text-Book of the History of Architecture. By A. D. F. Hamlin, A.M., Adjunct-Professor of Architecture in the School of Mines, Columbia College. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Pp. xxv, 441; 229 illustrations in the text.

This book is second of the series of College Histories of Art edited by Prof. John C. Van Dyke, and of which the History of Painting, written by the editor of the series, has already appeared. The book before us is extremely well furnished with bibliographies and lists of monuments, each important division of the work having at the head of the chapter the list of books recommended, and a list, at the close, of the monuments thought most worthy to be cited. As regards the bibliographical part, the author finds the difficulty which we all feel, namely, that there are few general treatises of any value, while the monographs are too elaborate, too costly, and too limited in their application for the general student, and altogether too numerous for any serious attempt to classify and select with judgment from the overwhelming mass. Among the books given are some which are mere folios of plates, and some which are hopelessly antiquated, with their critical opinions now recognized as wholly misleading; but we mention this merely as an illustration of the great difficulty attending the task. The lists of monuments are excellent. It would be very hard to improve upon the choice here presented, and the dates are given according to the latest authorities in every case we have been able to test. In this matter of the dates we think that a suggestion of their frequent uncertainty would have been in place, as such a notice was thought to be by Mr. Longfellow in Scribners' 'Cyclopedia of Architecture,' recently reviewed in these columns. On the other hand, Prof. Hamlin's way of giving the dates, even when not absolutely certain, seems the right plan, because errors in history are recognized as very common things, and the way to get them corrected is to keep before the student the knowledge so far gained and the inferences so far drawn as an encouragement to further investigation. All the books are written on the supposition that S-Front at Périgueux, let us say, was begun in 1047. Now, if it could be proved that the building was begun sixty years later, it would be a valuable contribution to knowledge, and one chapter of history would have to be revised; but in the meantime the accepted date is a part of history as it now exists, and must be kept before the student.

The text of the book is very valuable because of the singularly intelligent view taken of the building of each separate epoch. The chapter on Primitive and Prehistoric Architecture shows a complete grasp of the subject, brief as it is. The facts here given and the inferences drawn from them are the essential facts and the safe inferences. In like manner Roman architecture is explained according to its essential characteristics. A complete analysis and explanation of the whole could only be an enlargement of the same theme, with additional facts and an array of evidence and examples. The story is told as completely as the brief space would allow. It is hard to say in advance whether any one book will make a good school book or not, but if any reasonable part of the contents of this book can be got into the heads of those who study it, they will have excellent ideas about architecture, and the beginnings of a sound knowledge of it.

Jewish Ideals, and Other Essays. By Joseph Jacobs. Macmillan. 1896.

Mr. Jacobs, well known for his work in Jewish history as well as in the field of popular tales and fables, has gathered into this interesting volume a number of essays which have appeared in various periodicals during the

past eighteen years. Some deal with theology, some with history, one with the diffusion of popular tales, and one with a famous legend of mediæval times. It is only with the last two that we are at present interested. In the remarkable diffusion of the great Oriental literary collections of tales, the Jews played, as is well known, an important part. They were well fitted to act as intermediaries, and their Hebrew and Latin versions of Arabic translations or adaptations of Indian originals furnished all Europe with entertaining tales. In the essay "Jewish Diffusion of Folk-Tales," the author deals with five works which he calls "junctions," *i. e.*, translations which in turn were translated and acted as channels for the further diffusion of the work in question. These five are: Petrus Alphonsi's 'Disciplina Clericalis'; Simeon Seth's translation of the 'Alexandreid'; the various Jewish versions of the fables of Bidpai, known by the name of 'Kalila and Dimna'; R. Joel's 'Mishle Sendabar'; and Pauli's 'Schimpf und Ernst.' The second is one of Mr. Jacobs's "finds," and, as it cannot be substantiated, may be dismissed. The first differs somewhat from the others in that it is, as a collection, original with Petrus Alphonsi; the stories, it is true, are from Oriental sources. One of the most interesting facts about the diffusion of this collection was discovered by Mr. Jacobs while editing 'The Fables of Æsop as first printed by William Caxton in 1484,' that is, that thirteen of Petrus Alphonsi's stories were printed at the end of Caxton's translation under the title of "The Fables of Alfonce." The fifth book hardly belongs in the list at all. Pauli, it is true, was the son of Jewish parents, and early became a Christian and later a famous Franciscan preacher. His book, 'Schimpf und Ernst,' is relatively a modern production (it was finished in 1518), and contributed little to the diffusion of specific Oriental tales. Mr. Jacobs's remarks on the two other books do not add materially to the knowledge of the subject.

The second essay, on Little St. Hugh of Lincoln, is an excellent example of the author's skill in constructive criticism. The child was supposed to have been crucified by the Jews of Lincoln in contumely and insult of Jesus Christ. Mr. Jacobs shows how impossible it was for the Jews to use human blood or human sacrifices in any way as a part of their religious rites, and then endeavors, by the aid of history and topography, to reconstruct the probable event. The child, in his opinion, was accidentally drowned in a cesspool attached to the house of a Jew, where it was discovered during the wedding festivities of the daughter of the chief rabbi of the town. The Jews committed the mistake of trying to conceal the body by removing it from the neighborhood of the Jewry and casting it into a well. It was found there three days later by a woman passing by. The accusation of the Jews was partly the result of Christian desire to add to the attractions of the cathedral, and was partly due to the hatred of Henry III. for the Jews and his wish to extort money from them. This explanation is extremely plausible, and the whole essay is, in the words of the author, "an object-lesson of the modern methods of research in history, archæology, and legend."

A Federal South Africa: A Comparison of the critical period of American history with the present position of the Colonies and States of South Africa, and a consideration of the advantages of a Federal Union. By Percy Alport Molteno, LL.B. With maps. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co. 1896.

RECENT events lead us to feel an unusual interest in anything which seems likely to help us understand the domestic affairs of South Africa, but Mr. Molteno's book will find its largest field of usefulness in that country. It has little to offer to the outsider, especially to the American. He is a most earnest advocate of the federation of the South African states, and his book was written to further that cause. Its special purpose is, by relating the difficulties in the way of the formation of the Constitution of the United States, and by describing the most important features of that Constitution, to show the people of South Africa how they may overcome the difficulties in the way of their union—which he believes to be very similar to those in America in 1787—and to point out the objects to be aimed at. The work is so well done that it ought to be of great practical assistance in his own home, and very likely in Australia as well. To the American the book seems full of the most elementary and commonplace instruction, but it must be remembered how little the Anglo-Saxon, outside of North America, knows of federation as a working system. The author's chief guides are Fiske's 'Critical Period of American History,' Bryce, and the 'Federalist,' and he has read with good judgment and understanding. It is a most encouraging sign when the troublous times which created the federal system for the modern world begin to be studied with intelligent purpose by those whose political future demands the formation of a federal union.

The problem before the South African differs from that which the Canadian had recently to solve in that two of the states concerned are non-English and independent. This leads Mr. Molteno to the opinion—and he is undoubtedly right—that freer hand must be allowed to the people of South Africa in the formation of their union; that their Constitution must be wholly their own act and be subject freely to amendment by themselves alone, as, in form at least, the Canadian Constitution is not. The spirit of local independence is strong throughout the book. England, of all foreign Powers, is the only one which South Africa can at present depend upon, and she must be looked to for external protection. Germany's colonial methods render progress impossible, and the supremacy of Germany in South Africa would mean stagnation and ruin. But in all internal matters there must be complete local independence. The relation of the states to each other; the character of the state governments and the details of the general Constitution; the settling of vacant lands, the admission of new states, and the annexation of foreign territories; the treatment of the native, and the regulation of the labor market—all questions of this sort must be left entirely to the decision of the future federation. Mr. Molteno is vigorous in his assertion of the fact that the colonists alone understand and know how to deal with the conditions of the local problems. He does not spare words to make clear his belief that in numerous cases the interference of the English Government in the internal affairs of South Africa in the past has been disastrous to the best interests of the country. South Africa has certainly suffered its full share of misfortune from the officious ignorance and misunderstanding of the home Government, of which every colony has had to complain since English colonies began.

Mr. Molteno's faith is strong in the eventual formation of the union he desires. His faith goes even beyond this. He believes that such a federation may in time come into possession of the South African territories now held by Germany and Portugal. In support of this belief he calls attention to the expansion of the United States since 1783, and prints a map of our annexations, to make the case more clear. The similarity of conditions must be admitted. It is great enough to make our experience something more than an analogy for the South African. In any case, it is self-evident that the formation of such a locally independent federation would make the absorption of the foreign territories far easier than while the Cape is directly under English rule. This is a result which the whole Anglo-Saxon world ought to desire, for the strategic importance to the race of the possession of South Africa can hardly be overstated.

The extreme difficulties in the way of federation Mr. Molteno does not ignore—the great differences between the units to be combined, and the many causes of jealousy and distrust in the events of the past and in present conditions. The book was written before the Jameson raid had taken place, but it indicates clearly enough that the author's judgment must be that this event has seriously prejudiced the cause of union.

The Cruise of the Antarctic to the South Polar Regions. By H. J. Bull. London and New York: E. Arnold. 1896. 8vo, pp. viii, 248. Ills.

THE projector of the expedition to the Antarctic, Mr. Bull, has given us in this volume an account of the voyage, of which most of the incidents have been already made public through the lectures of Mr. Borchgrevink, who accompanied the expedition from Australia. The work is illustrated by a number of drawings by Mr. Burn-Murdoch, whose simultaneous experiences, 'From Edinburgh to the Antarctic,' have been already reviewed in these columns. Thus the present volume supplies little that is new, but puts in permanent form the details of the expedition. The hope of finding the right whales reported by Sir John Ross induced Capt. Svend Foyn, a wealthy Norwegian whaling-master, to equip the vessel at an expense of some thousands of pounds; and, from what we are told, it appears that an unfortunate selection of a commander and the inexperience of the crew were chiefly responsible for the financial failure of the voyage, which resulted in little more than a revisitation of and landing upon the Antarctic continent at Cape Adare, the discovery of a lichen on the rocks, and some little information about the conditions of navigation in this region. The supposed right whales were not found, and the vessel reached the sealing-grounds too late to obtain a cargo there, and also encountered several mishaps en route. As a part of the record of navigation in high southern latitudes the book has a certain usefulness. Mr. J. J. H. Teall has a petrological appendix on a lava from Possession Island, a nepheline tephrite and a quartzose pebble from Cape Adare, which forms the only contribution to science here recorded. The book is handsomely printed, but is deficient in both a map and an index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brisson, Adolphe. Portraits Intimes. Deuxième série. Paris: Colin & Cie.

Carmichael, Montgomery. Sketches and Stories. Grave and Gay. London: Archibald Constable & Co.

Educational Music Course. First Reader, 35c.; Second Reader, 90c.; Third Reader, 40c. Boston: Ginn & Co.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 13, 1896.

The Week.

THE proceedings of the conference of sound-money Democrats at Indianapolis on Friday were marked by a decorum and patriotic fervor which call to mind the Declaration of Independence. The address issued to the Democrats of the United States could not possibly be improved in point of temper or taste. Nor could the purpose of the gentlemen present be expressed in more forcible terms. The attendance was larger than had been expected, and it was composed of men of such high character and abilities and such long and distinguished service that nothing remains to be desired in the way of personal example. Instead of a "boy orator," there was Gen. Palmer, a war veteran and political associate and personal friend of Abraham Lincoln. In place of Tillman was James O. Broadhead of Missouri, and in place of Altgeld Gen. S. B. Buckner of Kentucky. These are representative men of the two wings of the Democratic party. The contrast between them is no wider than that between their creeds. The men who met on Friday appeal to their fellow-Democrats to save the party by saving its principles. They say that a party without principles is nothing to them. They believe that the party has a future of usefulness if it stands for the honor and dignity of the nation which it has so often supported and vindicated, but that if it becomes a party of repudiation and bad money, it is doomed to early extinction and is fit only to be buried.

The conference decided by unanimous vote to call a national Democratic convention to meet at Indianapolis on Wednesday, September 2, to nominate candidates for President and Vice-President, and for this purpose appointed a national committee, of which Gen. Palmer is chairman. One of the most important consequences of this action will be the publicity thus secured to the third-ticket movement. Public attention will be centred upon it as it could not be if the revolt against Bryan were sporadic and unorganized. Much of the alarm and business depression that we have witnessed during the past month has been due to the two spectacles beheld at Chicago and St. Louis, where two conventions of repudiators met and tried to unite their schemes for destroying the public credit, in one working team. These filled the public eye for the time, and naturally impaired credit and damaged trade. We shall now have an exhibition of another sort, and we may expect an entirely different effect.

Nothing could be better than the declaration of principles issued on Friday by the sound-money Democrats of Maine. They "arraign" the Chicago platform, but they do not employ the meaningless platitudes generally used in such arraignments. They think clearly and they say clearly what they think. They waste no words, but they show in most concise language just what the Chicago platform means. What it really means is the repudiation by our Government of nearly one-half of its obligations. It means that our courts are to enforce no contracts payable in anything else but what Congress shall from time to time declare to be lawful money. It means that our judges are to be appointed or elected for the purpose of giving decisions satisfactory to the party in power. It means that if the United States mails are stopped by a riotous mob, the President shall not interfere. Such doctrines, the sturdy Democrats of Maine declare, are dangerous, revolutionary, subversive of government and social order, and utterly opposed to the time-honored principles of the Democratic party. This is plain truth, expressed in plain, ringing words, and it is cheering to see the spirit with which the issue is tendered. Mercenary calculations of the gains to be made by inflating prices shrink into insignificance when our country's honor is in peril.

The honest-money Democrats of New Jersey moved too late to be represented in the Indianapolis conference, except by telegraphed sympathy, but their meeting on Friday was none the less a pronounced success. Their natural leader, Senator Smith, had turned tail and gone off to Europe, leaving behind him a message to the effect that this money business was a mighty puzzling affair, but that New Jersey Democrats ought not to hesitate as to the duty of electing him to the Senate for another term. After the vigorous gold-standard plank of the State convention, this was a piece of scandalous cowardice, which inevitably left the honest-money men of the party at a disadvantage. But they were able to secure on Friday a surprisingly large expression of sentiment in favor of a third ticket, and in no State will it be more heartily welcomed and supported. Under the circumstances, it is the opinion of the best political judges that New Jersey is just as certain as Vermont to give its electoral vote to McKinley and Hobart.

While the Democratic defection is growing daily, the Republican lines are showing a firmer front. The threatened Republican cleavage in a few Western States appears now to be entirely checked. One State convention after another walks squarely up to an endorsement of the St. Louis platform, in some cases a specific endorsement of the gold plank being made. Iowa, Minnesota, and the Dakotas, where there was much talk of Republican disaffection on the silver issue, had already fallen into line, and on Thursday Michigan and Wisconsin joined them. The Republican committeeman in Illinois who, a few weeks ago, expressed great fears for that State, now confesses that a sweeping change in public sentiment has set in, and that Illinois is safe for McKinley. All told, the drift is at present decidedly against the Democrats. Something may yet occur to make for them, but their best outlook is for an up-hill fight against increasing odds.

A travelling correspondent of the *World* telegraphs from Indianapolis that the silver wave has reached its height in the central West, and that the tide is already visibly receding in Indiana. He says that he has read letters from leaders of the Democratic party in various States of that region, and that they are unanimous in expressing this opinion as to every State except Ohio, where recovery from the craze has not yet begun. This agrees with the impression derived from a careful study of the press between the Alleghanies and the Rockies during the past fortnight. Desertions from the Republican party to Bryan on the silver issue have ceased, while not a day passes without its list of leading Democrats who repudiate the surrender of their party to Populism. The silverites have plainly lost their first confidence that they were going to "sweep the country," while the sound-money men grow daily more confident that the campaign of education which they will wage must be crowned with success.

The Bryan demonstration at Chicago has caused some uneasiness, because everything that points to his success in the campaign means business disaster, bad trade, and loss of employment; the greater the fear of his election, the more acute the suffering will be. Yet the mere presence of a crowd on the occasion of his arrival at any place does not portend anything as to the voting next November. The Chicago reception signifies nothing but the curiosity of a mixed multitude in a city of more than a million inhabitants. Mr. Bryan is a new man, an attractive man, a young man, and he is running for the Presidency. These facts are sufficient to bring a crowd together at any place, and the larger the place the larger the crowd. Still, the owners of property which is threatened by the mad attack on the standard of value which Bryan represents cannot be blamed if they become

alarmed. It is inevitable that they should be. Mr. Bryan is an *avant-courrier* of panic and crash. The longer his tour is continued the more acute will be the symptoms, and the more widespread the suffering. Already Mr. Bland has recognized the fact that the business community look upon this tour as an evil omen, and has adopted a conservative tone, but what kind of conservatism is that which begins by depreciating the currency one-half, and thereby repudiating one-half of all public and private debts? All the soothing words in the dictionary will never reconcile a man to being skinned alive. Mr. Bland's conservatism is merely the evidence that he is alarmed by the revolt of the conservative business men of the Democratic party against the Chicago platform and candidates. That revolt will increase just in proportion as the gloom in the business world deepens.

Mr. Bryan has at last chosen his rôle, and it is evidently to be that of the agitator and the demagogue. His first speeches, after two weeks of silence and meditation, make that clear. He went out of his way at Chicago to bid defiance to the conservative elements in this country, and to fling himself ostentatiously into the arms of what he calls the "toiling masses," whom he is not going, if he is elected President, to allow the merchant, the banker, the manufacturer any longer to "rob." More openly still did he make his appeal to the mob in his speech at Davenport, Iowa. The President was to be only a "hired man." He was to be put in office only to carry out the behests of the populace. As for any policy, any convictions of his own, the idea was preposterous. If he contrived to placate the mob, he would be doing his full duty. That is the note sounding clear and sharp in Mr. Bryan's speeches of Saturday. He is no doubt making a virtue of necessity in thus choosing the part of a social agitator. The revolt of the stable people of the country and of his own party against his nomination has been too pronounced not to have struck some alarm even to his complacent soul. With business and property and the law-abiding sense turning from him, the only thing left for him was to appeal boldly to the unrest, the ignorance, the passions of the mob. It is well that he has thus early declared himself, and we hope his evident conviction of his own greatness will keep him going up and down and letting the country see the manner of man he is.

A movement to revive an obsolete form of protectionism by enacting discriminating duties on imports in favor of American ships, was started at a meeting of shipbuilders held in Philadelphia on the 9th of April of the present year. Mr. Sewall, the Democratic candidate for Vice-President, was present, representing his own shipbuilding works. The official report says that the meeting was called to order by Mr. Charles H. Cramp, who nominated for President Mr. Arthur Sewall, and he was unanimously elected. The result was the organization of the "American Merchant Marine Association," with Mr. Sewall as the permanent President. The object of the association is to work up public sentiment in favor of reviving the old abandoned policy. They have sent out a circular and a begging letter to raise funds, saying:

"At the expense of the Association, the Republican State conventions held in the following places were attended by persons authorized to urge the adoption of planks committing the party to this policy: New Jersey, Georgia, Alabama, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Michigan, Indiana, Delaware, and Colorado. Success followed in every State but Indiana."

The circular recites that equal success attended their efforts at the Republican national convention. Then it adds:

"While the Democratic platform does not contain any expression on the subject of shipping, the vice-presidential candidate nominated by that party is the President of this Association, Hon. Arthur Sewall of Bath, Maine, an earnest advocate of the policy of discriminating duties."

This is the first rational explanation we have seen of Mr. Sewall's nomination. Here was an organized body of high-tariff protectionists "working" the political conventions. They had abundant success in the Republican camp, naturally. In the Democratic party, however, they could not accomplish anything openly, but they managed to get their president nominated for the second place on the ticket. Mr. Sewall was an unknown man outside of his own State. The State of Maine was not the place exactly for any political party to go to for a candidate unless he were a man of note like Speaker Reed. Yet Sewall was nominated, to the surprise of everybody. The explanation is now easy. It was a game to commit the party to a form of protectionism which nearly all Democrats are opposed to, and Mr. Bryan most of all. To understand the significance of this project, it must be borne in mind that American shipbuilders already have prohibitory duties on their products. No American is allowed to own a foreign-built ship and sail her under our flag and under the protection of our laws. No foreign-built ship can engage in the coastwise trade. Here are two forms of monopoly absolutely secured to them. Now they want a discriminating duty of 10 per cent. on all goods not imported in American bottoms. Even McKinley never proposed this or anything so antiquated and reactionary. One of the objections to it, although not the strongest one, is that foreign nations can play the same game on us, and probably would do so. It was for this reason that we abandoned the policy in 1828. Now the Democratic party nominates for the Vice-Presidency a man whose only distinction is that he represents this protectionist scheme. Mr. John Thomson of the Neptune Meter Company, who had been solicited to contribute to the funds of the Sewall Association, declines to do so on the very proper ground that Mr. Sewall represents a financial policy which would "materially reduce if it would not effectually paralyze the transshipment of American and European products."

Watson had his way in the Georgia Populist State convention on Friday, which put up a full ticket of Bryan and Watson electors, and resolved to keep it in the field until election day unless the Democratic managers should withdraw Sewall, in which case a fusion ticket will be made up, half Democratic electors and the other half Populist. Every day, however, serves to make it more plain that the Democratic managers have no idea of withdrawing Sewall. Chairman Jones of the national committee undoubtedly expressed the general opinion among the party leaders, as well as his own, when he made his contemptuous remarks about the Southern Populists the other day. This feeling has been intensified by the result of the Alabama State election on Monday, which the Democratic managers interpret to mean that their party can carry the South again this year without being obliged to make any concession to the Populists. It is in Western States like Kansas and Nebraska that the Populist alliance is of importance to the Democrats, and the third-party men in that section appear ready to swallow Sewall. The present indications, therefore, are that Watson will be left to flock by himself.

Speaker Reed made another excellent speech on Thursday at Portland. He took up the money question in an elementary way, and answered the principal arguments of the silver men in terms at once logical and simple. He did not pretend to be very wise on the subject. He confessed to deficiencies which are not disclosed in his speech. By assuming this humble attitude he undoubtedly won the ear of his audience. At all events they could not have been better entertained for the brief time that he talked to them. He took up the so-called "crime of 1873," and demolished the fabric of falsehood founded upon the charge that the coinage act of that year was passed secretly and with fraudulent intent. He showed that an attempt to regulate prices by changing the standard of value would be mischievous and uncertain in its results, and shockingly unjust. Too little attention has been given to this phase of the question. The principal argument of the silverites is that because the prices of most articles have fallen since 1873, the debtor class (a vague and undetermined number of people) ought to have something done for them by law; and that the most feasible plan is to change the standard of value for the whole com-

munity in order to accommodate them. The number of debts contracted in 1873 and still existing is very small. It does not even include the Government debt. All of the bonds now outstanding were issued later. There may be a few railroad bonds that were issued before that time which are not payable specifically in gold, but not many. It is safe to say that not a thousandth of the existing indebtedness was contracted twenty-three years ago. And yet the silver orators, Mr. Bryan among them, talk glibly of the injustice of requiring the debtor to pay more value to-day than he would have to pay if we were on a silver basis. The bulk of the debts in the country are short-time debts, such as board bills, tradesmen's bills, wages, deposits in savings banks and other banks; in short, those relating to the daily life of the people. It is proposed by the Bryan crowd to pay all these at the rate of 53 cents on the dollar as soon as they can elect a President and muster a majority in Congress, on the pretence of correcting a supposed injustice to a handful of men who borrowed money more than twenty-three years ago and have not yet paid it. Mr. Reed has done well to unmask this intended fraud. It is to be hoped that other speakers will do the same.

Republican newspapers at the North which treat the victory of the Democratic candidate in the Alabama election on Monday as evidence of fraud can hardly have followed the course of the campaign or learned the character of the fusion candidate. Goodwyn was elected a member of the Legislature in 1892, and again in 1894. At each session he refused to vote at all on the final passage of the bill to levy taxes for the support of the State Government—a course which, if generally adopted by members of the Legislature, would have left the treasury without a cent. In the session of 1892 he was guilty of a still greater sin of commission. During the two previous years a reduction of the tax-rate had impaired the income so much that there was great danger, not only of a large future deficit in the treasury, but that the public schools would be paralyzed, and the State put to great straits to pay interest on the public debt, to maintain its great charitable institutions, to feed the prisoners, and otherwise promptly to meet the wants of good government. The Governor made an earnest appeal to the Legislature, when it met in November, to increase the tax-rate before taking a recess, so as to give confidence to lenders; and when it was found impracticable to agree upon a revenue bill in time, he asked the passage of some resolution which would show the purpose of the Legislature to uphold the credit of the State, and enable him to borrow money to tide over the emergency caused by January payments. A resolution was therefore offered declaring that "the credit of the State shall be protected at all hazards, and, if necessary, the rate of taxation will be raised." A motion was made to lay this resolution on the table, and Goodwyn voted for it with three other Populist Senators. Had the resolution been laid upon the table, no money could have been borrowed, and the vote would have inflicted a terrible blow upon the credit of the State, resulting in the stoppage of the common schools, and great suffering among the inmates of the State institutions. No sensible Republican at the North would vote to make a man with such a record as this Governor of his State. Why should Northern Republican newspapers take it for granted that there are no sensible men in the Republican party at the South?

Mr. Gamaliel Bradford, Treasurer of the Anti-Biennial League in Boston, publishes a letter containing an argument in opposition to biennial legislatures. His principal point is that the causes which produce excessive legislation are independent of the length of time or number of sessions allotted to legislation, and hence, we presume, that if a legislature is elected once in two years, the result will be the same volume of legislation as before, only compressed into one session instead of two. There is a good deal of force in this if a biennial session only is contemplated; but in those States in which the reform has been successful it has been accompanied by constitutional changes which sap the sources of legislation itself, and by this means make annual sessions unnecessary. Half the legislation in Massachusetts is "special," just as it is in New York; that is, it relates to all sorts of local and private objects, such as corporations and the local affairs of cities and towns, which may be provided for by general laws or constitutional provisions, and to deal with which it is absurd to bring some three hundred legislators, elaborately selected by the machinery of the suffrage, to Boston for five months in the year. Cut down the control of the Legislature over all this business as much as possible, and one session in two years will be ample to transact all the business which arises. Such has been the history of biennial legislation in Illinois, and, we believe, in every State where it has been fairly tried.

We have before us the Massachusetts Acts and Resolves of 1896, and it is only necessary to turn over the pages to see how few of the measures passed are laws at all in the sense of general rules affecting the conduct of the community. An act, for instance, to authorize the city of Chicopee to make a water loan of $45,000 is called a law only because it is passed by the Legislature, and the same thing is true of an act to authorize the Berkshire Cotton Manufacturing Company to increase its capital stock, and an act to authorize the First Unitarian Church in Peabody to increase its membership; all of which statutes we find at random on a single page. One object of a legislature in theory is to protect the public against misuse of governmental power, and the real reason why our legislatures are so wonderfully busy is that instead of doing this they are occupied in using governmental power to make grants, promote jobs, and interfere in local concerns in which the public at large has little or no concern; and control over which, experience shows, can advantageously be withdrawn from the Legislature altogether.

The defeat of Lord Salisbury's Government in the House of Lords, on some clauses of the Irish Land bill, is a political event of capital importance. It must be said that it has its comic aspects. The Lords appear to have taken seriously Lord Salisbury's solemn assurances, apropos of the Home-Rule bill, that they were an independent legislative body, with revisory powers which it was their bounden duty to exercise. Very well, said their lordships, we will exercise those powers on your Irish Land bill, especially as it happens to hit our own pockets pretty hard. The vote that beat the Government was really a vote of landlords against a bill designed to impair their existing legal rights and profits. Party loyalty went down before private interest. Politically, the effect cannot but be bad for the Lords. Tory voices will now be heard agreeing with Liberal that the upper house stands for but a class interest, which it always blindly and selfishly defends against the popular branch. Conservative anger with the House of Lords for its action on an Irish bill is one of the sweetest revenges for Mr. Gladstone that the whirligig of time ever brought round. It must be said for the peers, however, that the Government gave them great provocation and a first-class opening by its management of the bill. This was not only weak and vacillating, but self-stultifying. The deadly parallel was never more deadly than when applied to the position and utterances of Mr. Balfour and Lord Salisbury in 1894 and in 1896. In Mr. Morley's bill, proposals virtually identical with those finally incorporated in the Balfour bill were denounced by the men who are now ministers as little better than confiscation. This was pointed out in debate by Mr. Carson, himself a Conservative. Only two years ago Lord Salisbury said: "We cannot consent to do what is called healing a sore and conjuring danger by flinging to those evicted tenants another slice of the attenuated rights of Irish landlords." An Irish peer, writing to the London *Times*, showed the bitter feeling of his class and forecast the result which has now arrived, when he said that the Government had made terms with the home-rulers "with a slice of our own estates and the transfer of our own rights."

AN ERA OF HIGH PRICES.

NOTHING is more remarkable in the present craze for inflation that is said to prevail in the agricultural regions than the oblivion of the experience through which the country passed scarcely thirty years ago. The Western States where the desire for high prices is now most urgent, were then to a large extent unsettled, but the Southern States in the main were in their present condition of development, and very many of their inhabitants must clearly remember how things were under a régime of much higher prices than are promised by the free-silver men—higher prices, in fact, than have anywhere prevailed since the days of the old Continental currency. Why we now hear so little allusion to this era of high prices in the Southern States, where schemes for inflation are most popular, we do not understand; but it may not be unprofitable to call attention to the subject, and Mrs. Jefferson Davis's memoir of her husband will furnish unimpeachable testimony for the consideration of Southern farmers.

They should read, with longing for the good old times, that by the middle of July in 1862 the farmers of the South were selling eggs, which now bring but 10 or 12 cents a dozen, for $1; potatoes, which are now so cheap, for $6 a bushel; chickens, 57 cents to $1 apiece; butter, 75 cents to $1 a pound; and cabbages, 50 cents to 75 cents a head. By November the fortunate farmers of those days were getting $15 a barrel for their corn and $4.50 a bushel for their wheat. In February, 1863, prices had risen to a figure that must fairly make the modern farmer's mouth water. Chickens were then $12 a pair, and bacon $8—not a barrel, but a pound! But in 1864 wealth "beyond the dreams of avarice" or of the wildest advocate of free silver was pouring in on the farmer. Flour then brought $300 a barrel; a turkey would fetch $60; white beans sold for $75 a bushel, and milk $4 a quart. By 1865 the amount of money that a farmer could obtain for his products was almost incalculable. He could name his own price, and the supply of money was inexhaustible. Never before had the farmers of this or any other country had so much money in their pockets. In fact, their pockets were not large enough to hold it, and it was said that people took their money to market in their baskets, and brought home their purchases in their pockets.

For some reason, however, the farmers did not seem to be very prosperous. They are notorious grumblers, it is true, and always complaining about something, and this time it was the quality of the money. So far as quantity was concerned, nothing was left to be asked for; but when they got cheap money they found they did not like it. They began to see that money in itself was of no use to them except as they could buy things with it; and Mrs. Davis tells us what the farmers had to pay for what they bought. If they wanted coffee for breakfast, they could get it in 1862 for $4 a pound; if they fancied a good cup of tea, they could be accommodated at from $18 to $20 a pound. If they wished to sweeten these beverages, sugar could be had for $20 a pound. If a farmer drove to market, he could have his horse fed for $5, or kept for a day for $15. A few months later he could get a pair of boots for from $100 to $200 a pair; and if for any reason he wished to economize, he could get his old boots tapped for $50. If, on the other hand, he preferred to enjoy his money, he could spend it like a lord by getting a dinner at a restaurant, where a plate of soup cost $1.50, roast beef $3.50, fried oysters $5, a cup of coffee $3; whiskey, however, being only $2 a drink. But every one knows that it is cheaper to be sociable in dining, and nine Confederate soldiers had a comfortable dinner together for only $631.50.

Soldiers, however, are notorious spendthrifts, and probably it would do them little good if money were made as abundant as water. Such at least would appear to be the case from the following extract taken by Mrs. Davis from Col. Miller Owen's 'In Camp and Battle with the Washington Artillery':

Travelling expenses of an officer of artillery en route from Richmond, Va., to Augusta, Ga., March and April, 1865:

March 11th, meal on the road	$20 00
March 17th, cigars and bitters	60 00
March 20th, hair-cutting and shave	10 00
March 20th, pair of eye-glasses	135 00
March 21th, candles	50 00
March 23d, coat, vest, and pants	2,700 00
March 27th, one gallon whiskey	400 00
March 30th, one pair of pants	700 00
March 30th, one pair of cavalry boots	450 00
April 12th, six yards of linen	1,200 00
April 14th, one ounce sul. quinine	1,700 00
April 14th, two weeks' board	700 00
April 14th, bought $60 gold	6,000 00
April 24th, one dozen Catawba wine	900 00
April 24th, shad and sundries	75 00
April 24th, matches	25 00
April 24th, penknife	125 00
April 24th, package brown Windsor	50 00

Strangely enough, from the cheap-money point of view, these high prices did not induce the farmers to bring forward their crops to market. Nearly everybody seemed to be miserably poor; many came near starving; some did starve. People parched sweet potatoes and corn and rye as a substitute for coffee; women wove cotton cloth for blankets, and sewed up coverings for their feet out of old carpets. "In Gen. Lee's tent, meat was eaten twice a week. His bill of fare was a head of cabbage boiled in salt water, sweet potatoes, and a pone of corn bread. When he invited an officer to dinner, he had, to his astonishment, four inches of middling; every one refused, from politeness, and the servant excused the smallness of the piece by saying it was borrowed." And yet it was said that Virginia alone could have fed the army had the gold standard been maintained.

But there was nothing strange about it. The farmers very soon found out by experience that if they sold their produce for cheap money, they could not buy enough with this money to live on. Prices were rising all the time; if they kept their corn and pork, they would get more money for it, and yet this money would all the time buy less and less. If they tried to save the imaginary wealth which poured in on them, they found it impossible. The longer they kept it the less it was worth; and after a hundred dollars of it came to be worth less than one dollar in gold, it became practically waste paper. This is the experience which the Southern Populists are determined to repeat, and which the Southern Democrats seem disposed to aid them in repeating; for if any one supposes that the demand for inflation will stop with the free coinage of silver, he ignores all history. Let this measure pass, and such demoralization will follow as will make it a desperate struggle to avert irredeemable paper.

CREDIT INSTRUMENTS.

FEW things are better known to the limited class of students of finance than the relatively small part borne by metallic money, or by metallic and paper money together, in the business transactions of the world to-day. Yet few things are so little understood by the public. Among the letters of inquiry which we are receiving from day to day is the following:

> "I have heard it asserted, in a discussion regarding the silver question, that were the combined money of the world, meaning gold and silver, placed in one huge pile, and a prorata distribution made of it, the share of each inhabitant of the earth would barely be one cent. Can there be any truth in this? What is the actual proportion of real money to the earth's population?"

This is a perfectly proper question, but it happens that we cannot answer it. Nor can anybody do so, since the population of large parts of the world is not known and the amount of gold and silver money in the world is not known. Independent conjectures on both points have been made by persons of repute, based in part upon statistics, which would lead us to assume that the population of the world is about 1,200,000,000, and the amount of gold and silver money about $6,000,000,000, which would be about $5 per capita. On the other hand, we must remember that in Central Africa and in Central China the people do not use gold and silver at all, or very slightly, and consequently that the amount apportioned to them should be cast out of the reckoning, thus swelling the per-capita allowance of the remainder.

All this is more curious than instructive. We allude to it as a proper introduction to another set of facts as to which very exact statistics are attainable, going to show the comparative insignificance of the quantity of metallic money in the world provided the amount be sufficient to serve the purposes of a touchstone, or, as we commonly say, a standard. It is necessary that the paper dollar, pound sterling, franc, mark, or whatever may be the unit of value in any country, shall be immediately convertible into the metallic thing which it promises to pay. When this condition is satisfied, the mere

quantity of those metallic things is of no consequence. It may be said in a general way that the higher the state of civilization in any country, and the more perfect its banking system, the smaller will be the percentage of metallic money needed to transact its business, and the smaller also the amount of circulating cash of all kinds.

Three times has a "census" been taken in the banks of the United States, to see what proportion of this business is done by means of money, and the kinds of money, and what proportion by credit. Paper instruments of all kinds are credit instruments, but the object of the census in each case was rather to find out what proportion of the business was done without the use of anything that passes by the name of money. The first investigation was made by the Comptroller of the Currency in 1881, the second in 1890, and the third in 1892. We will confine attention to the two last mentioned. The method adopted in each case was to ask each bank to make a careful enumeration of the kinds of things that it took in as deposits on a particular day. Two days were chosen in 1890, viz., the 1st of July and the 17th of September, and the results are thus recorded in the Comptroller's report for that year:

"The total receipts of the 3,864 banks on July 1 last were $421,824,726 Of this sum $3,726,605 was in gold coin, $1,352,647 in silver coin, $6,427,973 in gold Treasury certificates, $6,442,638 in silver Treasury certificates. $7,881,786 in legal-tender Treasury notes, $5,244,967 in national banknotes, $520,000 in United States certificates of deposit for legal-tender notes, $189,408,708 in checks, drafts, certificates of deposit, and bills of exchange, $4,391,177 in clearing-house certificates, $194,290,203 in exchanges for clearing-houses, and $2,138,022 in miscellaneous items not classified.

"Of the total receipts on that day .89 per cent. was in gold coin, .32 per cent. in silver coin, 1 52 per cent. in gold certificates, 1.53 per cent. in silver certificates, 1 87 per cent. in legal-tender notes, 1.25 per cent. in national banknotes, .12 per cent. in United States certificates of deposit for legal-tender notes. 44.90 per cent. in checks, drafts, and bills of exchange, 1 04 per cent. in clearing-house certificates, and 46.56 per cent. in exchanges for clearing-houses, including miscellaneous items.

"It will thus appear that of the total receipts 7.50 per cent. was in coin and paper money, and the remainder, 92.50 per cent., consisted of checks, drafts, bills of exchange, etc., in which are included exchanges for the clearing-houses, clearing-house certificates, and miscellaneous items.

"The total receipts for the 3,474 national banks on September 17 last are stated at $327,278.251. Of this amount $3,702,772 was in gold coin, $1,399,991 in silver coin, $6,159,305 in gold Treasury certificates, $5,908 714 in silver Treasury certificates, $7 665.666 in legal-tender Treasury notes, $4,371,778 in national banknotes, $105,000 in United States certificates of deposit for legal-tender notes, $168,803,756 in checks, drafts, and bills of exchange, $2,428 834 in clearing-house certificates, $126 596.873 in exchanges for clearing-houses, and $135.562 in items not classified. The relative proportions of the several items are stated thus:

"Gold coin 1.13 per cent., silver coin .43 per cent., gold certificates 1.88 per cent., silver certificates 1.81 per cent., legal-tender notes 2.34 per cent., national banknotes 1.84 per cent., United States certificates for legal-tender notes .03 per cent., checks, drafts, and bills of exchange 51.58 per cent., clearing-house certificates .74 cent., and exchanges for clearing-houses, including items not classified, 38.72 per cent.

"By consolidating the several items into two classes, we find that 8.96 per cent. was in cash and 91.04 per cent. in checks, drafts, and other substitutes for money."

The census of 1892 was taken on the 15th of September, and the result was substantially the same, viz.: Gold coin .88 per cent., silver coin .41, gold certificates 1.03, silver certificates 1.97, greenbacks 2.58, Treasury notes .81, national banknotes 1.04, United States certificates of deposit .67, bank checks 46.79, clearing-house certificates .81, exchanges for clearing-house 42.83, miscellaneous .18. "Over 90 per cent. of all business transactions," said Comptroller Hepburn in presenting these figures, "are done by means of credit. When the public lose confidence, and credit is impaired and refused, over 90 per cent. of all business transactions are directly affected. It is easy to realize how impossible it is for the remaining 10 per cent. of money to carry on the business of the country without monetary stringency and financial distress. The refusal to extend or continue credit, the demand for payment in money, leaves the actual money or currency of the country, be it $24 per capita or $50 per capita, utterly powerless to supply business needs."

At the present time one of the great political parties of the country is attacking credit by threatening to reduce the standard of value nearly one-half. Having succeeded in paralyzing industry to a large extent and producing stagnation and loss of employment to thousands of workingmen under pretence of aiding the "debtor class," they charge that the banks have made money tight, and threaten their very existence—*i. e.*, they threaten to extinguish the 90 per cent. of credit machinery which goes hand in hand with the circulating cash of the country. Can anybody fail to see what a crash would come if this party could carry out its declared intentions?

FREE-COINAGE CATECHISM.

Q. WHAT do the free-coinage advocates commonly answer when they are confronted with the facts already stated in this Catechism? A. They reply that whether the gold standard of currency has helped the wage-earner or not, it has seriously hurt the farmer.

Q. What do they allege to be the average farmer's condition? A. They declare that, as a result of the gold standard, the farmers of this country have fallen into a desperate state of poverty.

Q. Is this true? A. It is not.

Q. How can you prove that it is not true? A. By the fact that farmers have been buying more farm land under the gold standard of currency and raising more crops. By the fact that farmers in many Western States are paying off their mortgages. By the fact that in the grain country, outside of parts of Kansas and Nebraska, farm lands are selling for much more than they brought half-a-dozen years ago. Finally, by the personal testimony of experts.

Q. How do you know that the farmers are buying more land? A. By the increase in acreage planted.

Q. Give the figures. A. In 1872 the combined acreage of wheat, corn, oats, barley, and buckwheat in the United States was 65,428,119; in 1894 it was 128,428,092; increase nearly 100 per cent. This year's acreage is not greatly changed from 1894.

Q. Would this increase have been possible if farming had been a losing enterprise? A. Certainly not. When people find that they are losing money in a business, they are apt to stop that business altogether. The last thing they do is to extend the same business to double its former magnitude.

Q. How do you know that farmers are paying off their mortgages? A. By the best of authority, the statements of the loan and mortgage companies which lent the money.

Q. Can you give any instance? A. One company, the New England Loan and Trust, lately published, in an official statement to its security-holders, the fact that $198.944 in farm mortgages were paid off during last March alone. Of this amount $92,664 was paid before the principal was due.

Q How do you know that farm lands have risen in value? A. In Iowa particularly, we base our information on numerous deeds of sale made within the last year or two, showing advances of 10 to 20 per cent., within four to ten years, in the value of land sold.

Q. Have all farm lands risen in value? A. Not all.

Q. Where are the chief exceptions? A. In parts of Kansas, where the uncertain climate has made the original purchase a bad investment; in parts of Nebraska, where the rainfall is uncertain and where the opening of Oklahoma lowered the price of all neighboring farm country. These were the unlucky experiments, such as are found in every trade.

Q. What personal testimony have you as to farming conditions generally? A. Mr. Prime, the well-known crop expert, and a thoroughly unbiassed authority, lately said, in a published interview: "The farmers in the West were never so well off as they are to-day. They never had so much to eat and drink, or better clothes to wear, or owed so little."

Q. But is it not true that almost all the farmers are heavily in debt? A. It is not.

Q. How do you know they are not? A. By the statistics of the United States census.

Q. What do those statistics show? A. By the census of 1890, there were, in the six States of Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, North Dakota, and South Dakota, 720,479 families cultivating farms. Of this number, 248,750 families had mortgages on their farms, 230,728

owned their farms free, while 241,001 rented their farms, and therefore had nothing to do with mortgages.

Q. What does this signify? A. It signifies that in six representative far Western grain States hardly one-third of the cultivators of farms have on their land any mortgages whatever.

Q. But are not the farmers in the South more heavily in debt than this? A. The proportion of Southern farmers under a mortgage is wholly insignificant.

Q. Give some figures. A. By the 1890 census, families owning farms free in Kentucky numbered 118,080; families owning mortgaged farms numbered 4,991. In Tennessee, farms owned outright were 103,346; mortgaged farms, 3,431. In Alabama the proportion was 68,798 to 3,131: in Georgia it was 71,116 to 2,491; in North Carolina, 101,321 to 5,202.

Q. Would not free silver coinage help the farmers to a larger export trade? A. Not unless they sold their grain abroad for a lower price than they sell it now, because they must sell in competition with all the world.

Q. But if gold was at a premium, would it not be a profit to the farmer to sell his grain abroad for gold, and then sell his gold here for depreciated silver? A. Everything he wished to buy with the depreciated silver—clothing, carpets, furniture, farm implements—would rise exactly as much.

Q. Would not the country's export trade be helped by free silver coinage? A. Our export trade has increased since the demonetization of silver, and since our adoption of the gold standard, more rapidly than ever before.

Q. How large was this increase? A. Since 1872, the annual exports of the United States have increased 134 per cent.

Q. In what products was this export increase largest? A. In products of the farm.

Q. Comprising what? A. Grain, cotton, tobacco, meat, live cattle, sheep, and hogs.

Q. What was the increase in these products? A. In 1872 we exported $354,906,637 worth; in 1878, $515,955,203; in 1892, $754,480,843.

Q. What do you conclude from all these facts? A. That, in spite of occasional setbacks, occasional poor harvests, and occasional mistakes in farm-land investment, the farmer in the United States has prospered under the gold standard, and will prosper under its continuance, and that all the "racket" to the contrary is made by the few who have failed and by noisy demagogues.

JAMESON CONVICTED.

LIVERPOOL, July 29, 1896.

ON the 29th of December last, Dr. Jameson started on his famous expedition. Yesterday completed the seventh month since then. In the meantime, he had been a prisoner of the Boer Government and by them delivered over to the British authorities; his raid had been examined into before a magistrate and he had stood committed; a grand jury had indicted him; and now, at the end of a seven days' trial, he goes away to jail, a prisoner under sentence of the law of his own country.

The first day of his trial opened ominously for him and his companions; for (whether by coincidence or design) the report of the investigating committee of the House of Assembly of Cape Colony was, on that very day, given out, incriminating Cecil Rhodes with the raid, and throwing new light on the deliberate nature of its origin; and later in the week—before the case of the subordinate had gone into the hands of a sympathizing and reluctant jury—the House of Assembly had heard their committee's report and condemned the principal. "His aim," said Mr. Schreiner, his friend and late associate, in moving for confirmance, "was high. I wish it had been a right one." This condemnation of Rhodes by the members of the Cape Parliament was surprisingly high-minded. There was something Brutus-like in their sorrowful determination to do exact justice upon their first citizen. The trial concluded in London yesterday was of a distinction no less eminent.

At the close of the inquiry before the magistrate on June 15, and on their subsequent commitment, the prisoners, Jameson, Willoughby, Grey, Robert White, Henry White, and Coventry, were promptly indicted by the grand jury for violation of the Foreign Enlistment Act; and the Attorney-General, in view of the remarkable character of the case—the second under the Act—demanded a trial at bar before the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice, the most august tribunal in England. The motion was granted, and the court took the precaution of assigning to the trial the Lord Chief Justice and the two senior puisne judges of the Queen's Bench Division, in order to obtain an authoritative decision in the first instance on the difficult points of law certain to arise. The place of trial was laid in the court of the Lord Chief Justice himself, who lately succeeded Lord Coleridge, and is perhaps still better known to Americans than he. Lord Russell of Killowen, as he is now styled, was, till his promotion to the bench, Sir Charles Russell, the leading English advocate; the champion of Parnell; the English counsel before the Bering Sea Tribunal. Baron Pollock is probably the first living writer upon English law, and his Harvard doctorate is scarce a year old. Mr. Justice Hawkins is also a jurist of eminence, who played a distinguished part in the prosecution of the Claimant. The prosecution was conducted by the Attorney-General in person, assisted by the Solicitor-General; and the defence was sustained by the four present leaders of the English bar—Sir Edward Clarke, Sir Frank Lockwood, Mr. Carson, and Mr. Gill.

The trial opened on July 20th. Sir Edward Clarke exhausted the first day of the session with a motion to quash the indictments, on grounds so technical as to be hard to follow, but to the general effect that they did not allege matters (especially those relating to the Enlistment Act) with sufficient particularity. The Court took time for counsel, as it did with every point of law raised thereafter, and upheld the indictments. As the Chief Justice said, the objections and the cases cited in their support properly belonged "to a time when the right and justice and the substance of the thing were sacrificed to the science of artificial statement." After this decision and on the second day of the trial, the jury was empanelled and sworn. It was a "special jury"—that is, one drawn from a carefully chosen panel of talesmen—but the swiftness of its selection was in wonderful contrast to the inquisition which a jury trial of equal importance would commence with in America. A juror asked to be excused because he was a personal friend of one of the defendants. "A very proper reason why you should be excused," answered the Chief Justice. That was all. The others were accepted without a challenge for any cause, yet the case could not have been a more notorious one.

The Attorney-General's opening was long, earnest, and convincing. He recited the now well known facts in the order of their proposed proof, adding that they were practically admitted by the defence, except as to the construction to be put upon them. He showed the necessity for a statute forbidding expeditions against a friendly state, and concluded by urging that it "was all the more incumbent upon persons who, like the defendants, were in the responsible position of *de facto* governors of the country—magistrates and administrators as some of them were—that they should obey and enforce the provisions of this statute," instead of combining to violate them. He then proceeded to his proofs, which, with no obstructive interruptions by the defence, and very little cross-examination, occupied nearly three days—a part of Tuesday and Friday and all of Wednesday and Thursday. The evidence was largely documentary, and the court became almost deserted while treaties, proclamations, orders in council, and other dulnesses were being read in order to establish the somewhat elementary proposition that the South African Republic was, in 1895, a friendly state, and the more technical one that Mafeking and Pitsani were places within the scope of the Foreign Enlistment Act. Others of the documents were more entertaining, if only as a tale worth a second telling.

At the close of the case for the Crown, the defence moved to dismiss, on the ground that the prosecution had failed to prove that the Foreign Enlistment Act was in force either at Mafeking or Pitsani, the two places from which the expedition started — a motion promptly denied, on the ground that the Act had been in force at the first place, and that, as all the defendants had been concerned in the fitting out of the expedition, it was immaterial whether the Act had been actually in force in the latter place or not. (This question, whether the Act had been in force at Pitsani, was subsequently put to the jury by way of precaution and answered by them affirmatively.) Under the English law, the defendants were precluded from testifying in their own behalf; but even had it been otherwise, the facts put in evidence by the Crown were incapable of rebuttal, and almost of palliation. So the defence did not attempt to make a case, but only to modify the harshness of facts which they had to admit proven. They could have called members of the expedition not under indictment, as the Attorney-General pointed out, but they contented themselves with going to the jury on the prosecution's evidence and two very ingenious speeches of counsel, who drew a vivid picture—quite unsupported by facts—of a "peaceful expedition," marching secretly in order to avoid trouble, with benevolent and "pure motives," to the help of those "striving to be free." "Would any men of the defendants' military experience dream of starting out with but five hundred men to attack the Transvaal Repub-

lic?" This plea was made before a crowded court on the second Monday of the trial, by the ablest counsel at the English bar, and addressed to a jury anxious to believe; but the Attorney-General's crushing rejoinder was unnecessary: there was no truth behind all this sentimental eloquence.

The Lord Chief Justice contemptuously brushed it aside when, on the following day, after due reflection and consultation with his colleagues, he charged the jury, in terms remarkable not only for condensation of tedious and multitudinous detail, but for the relentless way in which he held the jury up to their duty, telling them that the Court had already accepted responsibilities still more onerous. Such a charge in such a case was worthy of the greatest traditions of the English bench. Public opinion, even as expressed by those newspapers which shrink a little from certain of its allusions, more flattering to the Boers than pleasing to Englishmen, seems unanimous in this view, for a judge less able and less masterful might have allowed the case to end in an impotent failure of decision, familiar to us in certain semi-political trials. Beginning with the observation that "in most criminal charges the consequences of the criminal offence usually end with . . . the acts that constitute the crime," but that the consequences of such an offence as this no one might foresee, the Chief Justice charged the jury that the facts of the case were as uncontroverted as they were notorious. He indignantly scouted the defence's continued plea for the raiders as rescuers (showing that quite up to the date of departure the column's destination was in doubt as between Pretoria and Johannesburg) or as peaceful evangelists of reform. The expedition was a "filibustering raid," he said, "even if it was not aimed at overthrowing the Republic, or was prompted by philanthropic and humane motives, or aimed at securing some reform of the law"; and whether it proceeded "by a show of force or by actual force." "If these things were done by the authority of the Queen . . . it would be an act of war." He then laid down the law as to the Act with the greatest strictness, making it effective to enforce a neutrality not secured by the law of any other country. So it is henceforth to be a violation of the Act to fit out on British soil an expedition against any State, no matter whether it starts or not; nor whether its promoters were on British soil while organizing it; nor whether its members took employment in it without responsibility for its organization.

At the close of this tremendous application of the law to the uncontroverted facts, there could be but one outcome to the case. Nevertheless, the Court very shrewdly put to the jury, as a preliminary to the usual demand for a verdict, three questions, which could be answered only in the affirmative: Had any of the defendants been engaged in the preparation of a military expedition against a friendly State? had any of them abetted in it? had any of them been employed by it? The foreman of the jury, shirking the inevitable, asked if the jury might be excused from answering these questions; but the Court's guarded permission left the jury no more comfortable solution, so, after an hour's deliberation, they concluded to answer the questions, and did so in the affirmative as to all the defendants, adding that "the state of affairs at Johannesburg presented great provocation." That, said the Chief Justice, is a verdict of guilty; and he directed the jury so to find. "We have answered your Lordship's questions categorically," replied the foreman evasively. The Court was repeating the direction when Sir Edward Clarke interposed—perhaps remembering the success of Erskine's famous interruption on a somewhat different occasion. "I cannot allow it, Sir Edward, I cannot allow it," said the Chief Justice, with great warmth. Then, addressing the jury: "Gentlemen, I direct you that in point of law that amounts to a verdict of guilty." The foreman said apologetically that they had answered the questions, but could not agree on a verdict. With a sternness seldom used even in English courts, the Chief Justice repeated his direction, saying that such weakness was unmanly; and after a further consultation, the jury most reluctantly obeyed him.

There was a great sensation in the court when the trial ended, for the fashionable set and the people of the music-halls had deluded themselves into expecting something better, and were deeply disappointed. The defendants for their part bore themselves like men. They directed their counsel not to contest the case further, but to ask for sentence, which was done, and the Chief Justice pronounced the sentences with much gravity. They were severe, but not the maximum provided in the Act—Dr. Jameson, fifteen months' imprisonment; Sir John Willoughby, ten months'; Hon. Robert White, seven; Col. Grey, Col. Henry White, and Major Coventry, five each. The imprisonment is to be without hard labor, but the sentence forfeits all the prisoners' royal commissions. While the commitments were being made out, the prisoners were allowed ample time to bid their admirers and friends good-bye; and in the early evening they were hurried away to Holloway Gaol, hearing with unconcealed annoyance the last demonstration of the street in their favor.

Now that treason hath not prospered, it has become all of a sudden possible to call it treason. The newspapers, which very properly did not comment on the trial until its conclusion, approve its conduct and its result unstintedly. Without withdrawing all sympathy from the raiders, the raid itself is now unsparingly condemned. "Criminal," says the *Times;* "mad," says the *Telegraph;* "disastrous blunder," says the Tory *Standard;* and all the other papers acquiesce, even taking a certain pleasure in the Roman justice meted out to men so prominent—in "our ability and willingness to lick our own dogs," as an M. P. puts it in an interview. Wonder of wonders, there is hardly a murmur against the wicked Krüger; nay, it is even suggested in some quarters that it would be like that wise and clement old man to urge the pardon of these fine fellows, now that the law has been vindicated! Such a reversal of public opinion in a space of time so short is most unusual; and without robbing Krüger of credit for bringing it about, we cannot but admire the incorruptible energy of the Government in punishing such powerful partisans of their own for a crime so popular. At a time when character and morals seem more than ever divorced from public life, such manliness revives belief in representative government. L. McK. G.

MARSHAL CASTELLANE.—III.

PARIS, July 30, 1896.

CASTELLANE spent the greater part of the end of the reign of Louis XVIII. in Spain, where he commanded a brigade of the French army of occupation. He seems to have had a good understanding with the inhabitants, and preserved the strictest discipline among his troops. He was recalled abruptly at the end of 1827, and his Journal becomes interesting as precursive of the Revolution of 1830. Castellane saw clearly how Charles X. was making himself unpopular. He entered openly the ranks of the Constitutional Opposition, and in his department voted for its candidates. He began to pay court regularly to the Duke of Orleans. The ministerial changes of that period have lost their interest for us, and Castellane is almost unreadable in this part of his work. He is bitter against what was then called the "Congregation," the priest party, which actually led Charles X. to the abyss. The King believed only in the Congregation; he worked in secret against his constitutional ministers. "The reunion of the Duke d'Havré is composed of congregationists, of bishops, of the court party; it is the assembly of the *ganaches* and the short-sighted men." Polignac's accession to power was the triumph of the Congregation; it was also the beginning of the end.

Charles X. had entered upon a phase of religiosity which blinded his eyes to realities. When Admiral Duperré took leave of him in setting out on the expedition to Algiers, he explained the difficulties of the undertaking. "I think," said he, "that I must make this explanation to your Majesty, in order, if any misfortune happens, that the commander of the fleet or the commander of the expedition may not be unjustly blamed." "Admiral," answered the King, "I keep in my heart my brave soldiers and sailors; you may be sure that if the misfortunes you speak of should happen, I would not forget my subjects in my prayers, and you, Admiral, in particular; we should meet again in a better world." The Admiral was strangely surprised; he did not expect this royal "De profundis."

Castellane was at the baths of Mont-Dore when Charles X. made the famous *ordonnances*, which caused a revolution. "The papers have brought us the deplorable ordinances of July 25, which abolish liberty of the press, dissolve the newly elected Chamber of Deputies, and convoke another chamber which will be elected according to a new electoral ordinance; in one word, the Constitution and all the laws are violated. The dynasty is putting itself in peril for the fun of the thing. . . . Everybody here is indignant." The news of the Revolution soon arrived at Mont-Dore; Castellane returned to Paris, and found at Clermont-Ferrand the National Guards organizing themselves as they did all over France. On the 7th of August he paid his first visit to the new King, Louis Philippe. "I have seen the King, who told me that he was conscious of having done nothing to arrive at power. This is in harmony with words long ago attributed to him: he did not wish to dethrone Charles X., but, if the crown fell to the ground, he would pick it up. The new Queen was joyous, the Duke de Chartres radiant; he gave his hand to all the officers of his regiment, saying, 'On a day like this, we must shake hands.'" Castellane employed himself chiefly in protecting the regulations of the army; he inspected a great region of France, and maintained wherever he went the discipline which had been somewhat shaken immediately after the Revolution. Some regiments had dismissed unpopular officers; noncommissioned officers had been appointing officers by vote. Castellane put an end to such things throughout his command.

When General Belliard announced in Vienna to the Emperor Francis the change which had taken place in France, the Emperor said to him: "I will recognize Louis Philippe, but it is bad for him not to have legitimacy on his side; it is a great support for a throne. Charles X. deserved his fate, as he was not faithful to his word. A sovereign must ponder well before making concessions to the people; once made, he must submit to them. . . . Young Napoleon is a distinguished young man; I know that I could with him do much harm to Louis Philippe, but such a thing is far from my mind. I have had him brought up as a stranger to France." We find much in the Journal about the difficulties of the new Government, about Lafayette, who was commander-in-chief of the National Guards, and who had assumed somewhat the position of a Warwick; about M. Thiers, who was at the beginning of his extraordinary career. To many people this part of the Journal will be very interesting, as it shows us the "nouvelles couches" which had come into the ascendant in society—the "couches bourgeoises," which took the place of the Legitimists of the Faubourg St.-Germain. Castellane is rather severe in his judgments on men and women, but I have never found him inaccurate as to the facts, of which I know something.

Placed at the head of the first brigade of a division of infantry at Valenciennes, Castellane was naturally called to take part in the campaign in Belgium in 1832. The French army, which had to protect the new kingdom, was placed under the command of Marshal Gérard. The frontier was crossed on November 15, 1832, and the army took the road to Antwerp, which was still in the hands of the Dutch. Castellane notes that the French troops, though they came in the character of liberators, were received with little enthusiasm. "We received the coldest possible reception passing through Brussels; the enthusiasm was limited to a few boys, who escorted us for several kilometres. We were at Malines at five o'clock in the evening. The town is beautiful. It was Sunday, and there were many people out. There was no cry of any sort." Antwerp was defended with the greatest obstinacy by General Chassé, a soldier of great experience, who had made many campaigns under the Empire. The French princes took a brilliant part in the operations of the siege, which was very protracted. "The Duke de Nemours was in the trenches, covered with the dust of a shell; he did not make a motion. The two Princes are very brave. . . . I found in the trenches the Duke of Orleans, with Generals Baudrand, Flahault, Marbot [the Marbot of the Memoirs], and several others. I asked him not to accompany me to the trenches, and told him that I knew them well; he replied that it was his duty, and that he would fulfil it. . . . The fire was hot; the Prince got on the banquettes to look at the city with his glass. The Duke of Orleans exposed himself constantly, more than was necessary." Castellane, though he scolded the Prince for his excess of intrepidity, evidently conceived a great admiration for him. The Prince had very fascinating manners, and it is evident that he became Castellane's idol; he took an extraordinary interest in whatever related to the army, especially as he believed that, sooner or later, liberal France, the France of July, would have to make war against a new coalition. Castellane, from the time of the siege of Antwerp, looked upon the Duke of Orleans as the man, the King of the future; he tied his fortunes to him. He little knew at Antwerp what the future had in store for the brilliant Prince, full of courage and of patriotic ardor.

The siege of Antwerp, in which Castellane took a very honorable part, ended in the capitulation of Gen. Chassé and his Dutch troops. He was appointed lieutenant-general on his return to Paris. Some time afterwards he was placed at the head of the Division of the Pyrenées-Orientales at Perpignan, where he reëstablished order in the town and discipline in the garrison. He remained nearly fourteen years at Perpignan, where he had hoped to stay only a few months. From time to time he revisited Paris, where he always made a collection of anecdotes. In all his journeys he relates with care his interviews with the King. In 1836 he urged the King to make an expedition into Spain and to occupy Barcelona and Catalonia, so as to have more influence in the peninsula and to defend France against revolutionary contagion. Louis Philippe answered: "Whether Don Carlos or the Republic rule in Spain, I will not meddle with it"; and he spoke of the sad situation of Spain, and the impossibility of governing with a king in the cradle and a queen on the throne. He dilated on the advantage which France had of having a governing king, saying that the Périers and the Broglies would have been nothing without him. "The King speaks with facility; he is eloquent and remarkably well informed."

It was mortifying for Castellane to form a succession of regiments in his division at Perpignan, and to see them led to Algeria. His work, he says, was that of Penelope. Changarnier, Canrobert, Forey served under him; to have served in Castellane's division was a sort of brevet. Castellane was the first who gave detailed notes every year on the officers of his division; he professed to have the faculty of picking out the best men; his notes were written in a very racy and original style. Castellane was only once sent over to Africa; he was designated to command the province of Oran, and received the submission of some Arab tribes, but he made no important expedition, returned to France, and was again sent to Perpignan. The conquest of our African colony was really made, assured, and completed without him, and he saw by degrees officers who had been under his orders rise in the army and become its pride and hope.

He was admitted to the House of Peers at the beginning of 1838, and in consequence had to remain oftener and longer in Paris. His Journal is a not uninteresting document on the state of society in France between the years 1838 and 1848, a period on which not much has been written of an anecdotical character. There are in this part of the Journal many touches which could be used to advantage by a historian, concerning the King, the members of his family, the ministers, the public men of the day, the leaders of fashion, the members of the Opposition, the generals. M. Thiers is generally treated with severity; but the same may be said of almost all the parliamentary leaders of the time.

The fourth and last volume of the Journal extends from 1847 to 1852; it abounds in anecdotes on French society; it is also interesting in a political sense, as it describes accurately the state of France after the Revolution of 1848, the rule of Cavaignac, and the Presidency of Prince Napoleon, the Coup d'État of December, and the establishment of the Second Empire. Castellane, during this troublous period, remains what he has always been: he is consistent, he does not follow any particular political doctrines, he continues faithful to *one* thing, the army, its traditions, its discipline, its regulations—I might add, its uniforms, as for him the uniform is the symbol of the army. He was fortunate enough to preserve order in the great city of Rouen, where he had been sent in 1847, during the unsettled days which followed the Revolution of 1848; he was afterwards sent to Bordeaux and to Lyons. He showed himself constantly in uniform amidst the most revolutionary quarters of Lyons; he obliged all the officers in the army of Lyons to wear their uniforms at all times; he kept his troops in constant movement, he imposed the strictest discipline on them. His pluck, his thoroughness, in the end made him quite popular in Lyons, though he was openly hostile to the revolutionists. The Prince President used this popularity for his benefit; he could find no adversary in the ancient aide-de-camp of the Emperor Napoleon. Castellane was appointed Senator in the new Senate in February, 1852; he received the baton of a Marshal of France from the hands of Napoleon III., at the time of the marriage of the Emperor with Mademoiselle de Montijo. A few weeks before, he wrote in his Journal: "This young person, who is reported to be twenty-six years old, is tall and very agreeable. They say that she has touched the heart of the Emperor. She is a grandee of Spain. She has a bad cold." And so the Journal runs on to the finish. Castellane at last became like the mere figurehead of a ship; his colleagues, Canrobert, MacMahon, fought the battles of the Empire. They also saw the last of its triumphs. Castellane was fortunate to the end; he did not see the third invasion of France.

Correspondence.

THE FARMER AND FINANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The eagerness and unanimity with which the farmers of the South, the Southwest, and the West embrace the free-silver heresy is an interesting phenomenon, viewed from its historic and sociological side, as well as painful when viewed in its economic aspect. Roughly speaking, it may be said that the craze has developed chiefly in those regions which are in the borderland between the centres of civilization and the frontier. Historically, it may be said that the farming classes of the South have always lived in an atmosphere of credit, from the old colonial times down to the present. The fertility of the country, the presence of negro slaves, and inherited traits from their English landholding ancestry may help to account for this, but the fact cannot be disputed. As regards the emigrants from the Northern States who settled in the West, the conditions were different. The sterility of the New England soil produced the proverbial New England thrift, though this was true in a less marked degree of the settlers from New York and Pennsylvania. But in passing to the unoccupied West and occupying its fertile lands (had almost for the asking), the necessity for the small economies, thrift, and watchful prudence necessary in older communities, disappeared in a large degree. Those were the halcyon days for the squatter, the prospector, the speculator, the emigrant farmer. "Everything went"; it was "Take your chances" and

"Hurrah, boys!" Money was made fast and easily. Broad acres were had for a song; good crops were raised, and sold at good prices; the financial atmosphere was one of joy, hope, exuberant expectation. Farmers launched out widely and wildly, bought expensive machinery, often beyond their needs, often beyond their ability to utilize. Loans were easy, and many farmers contracted debts when, economically, considering the circumstances, there was no real need of more capital; nor were such loans always used as capital.

In the meantime the means of transportation were improving, new lands were coming into competition with those recently settled, all the old lands were taken up, while the farming lands abroad poured their produce into the world's market, till the Western farmer found his produce gave him less money, his creditors desired to realize on their loans, and, to make a long story short, the "boom" collapsed, as all booms have a way of doing. The farmer was pinched for money—for ready money. Some people had money and he had not; he was amazed, sore, envious. He could not understand that his boom was gone, and at the same time other people had ready money. Now the Western farmer generally has very little ready money on hand; unlike the dweller in cities, he is not continually handling cash, for rent; for car fare, for gas bills, for groceries, etc. He gets his money in a lump at harvest time, and runs "tick" at the country store till his produce is sold. Hence money, cold cash, is different in his eyes from what it is in the eyes of those who habitually handle cash. To the Western farmer there is something mysterious about a bank, a mint, a clearing-house, and all the machinery of exchange. Nor does he understand that the loans which he got in former years were the aggregate of small savings and scrapings of persons of thrifty and prudent dispositions. He sees only the lump sums sent out from the East in the hands of the agent of some large Eastern concern, which held this money in trust for the original savers. Hence he gets erroneous ideas about capitalists and money in general.

A mechanic or wage-worker in the towns, on the other hand, gets his pay every week or month, and he is continually learning to make both ends meet; he balances accounts every week or month; he learns that he must make his income tally with his expenses twelve or fifty-two times a year, or be ruined. The farmer balances his accounts once a year, actually does not know in advance what his income will be, and, moreover, he has his farm as an asset, which the mechanic has not. And, too, the farmer, isolated from contact with human society, is but a child in economic matters. When he gets his money he is like a child who has a dollar to spend—it burns in his pocket till it is spent. We will suppose that he annually pays up his grocery and other bills with the proceeds of his wheat, corn, and hogs; he then has a few dollars left, which do not last him through the year. And then comes the rub—he has no cash, no money. The boom times of old have gone; no one is begging him to take money, and he gets less money for his produce. "Money, money, money" is the cry. Other people, who have no land, no horses, cows, pigs, sheep, have money for current expenses, and he has none. He can't understand it: he has property but no money. On comes the silver man and says he will change all that. Money shall be plentiful again, he will restore the old boom times, and there shall be plenty of money in the country—lots of it, money to burn! The poor simple farmer "bites" at this scheme as he "bites" at windmill patents, gold-brick schemes, tin chest rackets, green goods, and in fact anything, from patent medicines to Hungarian oats. There seems no limit to his "biting."

Now the wage-earner in the towns must pay his rent or be turned into the street; he must pay his grocer or starve; and he must pay cash for his ready-made clothes. He has no farm to fall back on. His assets are a few articles of furniture and a dollar or so in a bank or coöperative association. But the point is that he is continually balancing accounts and has actually nothing to fall back on except his own savings. With the farmer (the squatter farmer) it is different. He has no rent to pay; he produces the means of subsistence and can't starve, and his wife can sell enough eggs and butter to buy salt, tea, sugar, coffee, and cloth enough to keep the family from violating the laws of decency. And, most of all, the farmer has his farm to fall back on, and that farm cost him almost nothing—a gift from the Government. That is, the Government practically donated to the farmer the means of running into debt. It would have been difficult for a government to hit upon an expedient better fitted to raise up a class of imprudent, shiftless debtors than our land system has done. Perhaps the worst feature of the whole affair is the conviction in the farmer's mind that he is as good as any other man, or a little better, and is born with the same amount of knowledge of finance and political economy that any other man has at present, by whatever means acquired. If he doesn't know, he doesn't care. That is exactly what Andrew Jackson's followers said when it was proved that their candidate was wofully ignorant of the duties and responsibilities of the office to which it was proposed to elect him. That same feeling decides half our elections.

It is easy to understand how it came about that the farmer is pinched financially, and to understand his nature and disposition; but the most discouraging feature to a believer in democracy is the farmer's utter disregard for and willing, conscious ignorance of the experience of other nations in the same field—the unwillingness to listen to the counsel of men who have devoted years of study to the very questions that the farmer is trying to solve in his own blundering way. A surprisingly large part of American voters have never heard of the experience of other nations with silver, and do not want to know; and, if told of it, would repudiate the idea that America could learn from Europe or South America. And yet our national honor, integrity, if not very existence, depend on the decision of these same agricultural classes. This is Jeffersonian Democracy with a vengeance.

E. L. C. M.

Chicago, July 31, 1896.

THE THRIFTY FARMER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of July 30, under the heading "The Plight of the Western Farmer," you make some very rational comments upon a letter which you say was published in the *Evening Post*—which letter, I judge, must have pictured the condition of the Western farmer as deplorable.

I live at the county seat of Jackson County, Missouri, and have lived there for more than thirty years; therefore I personally know many of the farmers of the county. I believe I can assert, without any fear of contradiction by honest and competent observers, that all of them who have a fair degree of intelligence, and are industrious and economical, are prosperous. It is, or should be, a matter of common knowledge that many of the Western farmers are ignorant and thriftless, without any disposition or power to adjust themselves to the modern changed conditions of farming. Since the propaganda for free silver was begun, it is the common practice of silver cranks and demagogues to descant upon the condition of the farmer, and to draw lurid pictures representing that condition as one of steadily increasing poverty.

I recently had occasion, as a lawyer, to examine the title to forty acres of land which a farmer of this county was buying at $50 per acre, as a good investment for his surplus capital. I had the following conversation with him:

Q. You must be doing well farming to be able to buy more land? A. Yes, I am making money, and have been for the last five or six years.

Q. Make this money on your farm? A. Yes.

Q. What do you now make the most money on? A. Sheep.

Q. Why, I thought there was no money in sheep since the tariff was taken off of wool? A. That is all stuff. Wool is the smallest part of it. Make some more money when wool is high, but make plenty when it is low. Sold my last wool at 10 cents a pound, but got $2 50 each for lambs.

The man is just a plain, ordinary, hard-working farmer.

William S. Flournoy.

Independence, Mo., August 2, 1896.

HEALTHY SYMPTOMS IN CALIFORNIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice, in your issue of July 23, the opinion that the "masses of the Democratic party" have no financial convictions, and that their vote will go almost entirely to Bryan unless another Democratic candidate is set up.

In our small rural community, which is at almost the greatest possible distance from Wall Street, there have already come forward a number of Democratic farmers who have declared their intention to vote for McKinley, and some of them have joined the newly formed McKinley Club of the valley. These men formed their intention to withdraw their support from the Democratic ticket, in case of the adoption of a free-silver platform, before the Chicago convention had acted. This decision was made as the result of their private reflections, or of the influence of one on another; and, while none of them are students of financial science, they have at least the conviction that the success of the silver people would be a bad thing.

It is impossible to estimate the force and volume of the many currents of thought and feeling that may act on our people between now and election day, for the subject of contention cannot be clearly grasped by the general voter, and he is therefore much at the mercy of whatever arguments may forcibly attract his attention. The perplexity of the situation will keep a good many honest men from voting, because they cannot tell what is right. But I think that the number of quiet voters among the Democratic masses who will transfer their ballots to McKinley on account of their disapproval of the Chicago programme will amount to an important percentage, and I have strong hopes that California may be

gained by this means to the support of sound money.

Our "masses" are not homogeneous, and there is apparent this year much activity of individual opinion and of purpose to vote independently of party direction.

E. S. THACHER.

NORDHOFF, VENTURA CO., CAL., July 31, 1896.

SILVER AND THE FORCE BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Conversation with men from Virginia and other Southern States satisfies me that many McKinley votes from Democrats can be made by proper assurance, from authorized sources, that the South need not dread a renewal of the Reconstruction and Force-bill horrors. If the attention of the McKinley managers or of McKinley himself is not called to the importance of such assurance, the absurdities of the silver heresy will not weigh with men who honestly, if gratuitously, dread the possibilities of a recovered domination by a too long disappointed party, whose history reads to them as a record of outrage upon their liberties.

As the importance of the issue demands that the question should be discussed from every point of view, with arguments addressed to every form of opposition or misgiving, I hope you will not overlook the claims implied by this aspect of the situation. Your teachings on the financial significance of the impending election are invaluable; but they need, to meet the situation in full, some patient instruction and encouragement as to the present relations of the two great parties to the various sections of the country—especially to the South.

Yours respectfully, CHRYSOSTOM.

VIRGINIA, August 7, 1896.

THE TWO CABINETS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many "Sound-Money" Democrats will, in November, vote for Mr. McKinley because of the relative positions of the Democratic and Republican parties on the money question. There is another question which, it seems to me, is an additional reason for supporting him, but which has not as yet received the attention it deserves. Mr. McKinley, if elected, will have at his command, from whom to choose his Cabinet, the ablest, safest, and most experienced men of his party. It is not to be supposed that he will ignore these men. Whatever objection, then, may be urged against him personally—and it must be admitted that he is not a strong man—one can with reason look for him to have wise counsellors, and therefore a safe administration.

Mr. Bryan, on the other hand, will have the least reliable, most unsafe, and most inexperienced men of his party from whom to choose a Cabinet. The strongest men among the Democrats are, without exception, so far as I now recall, in the "gold wing" of the party. Although some of these men are supporting the Chicago nominees, it is not for a moment to be supposed that Mr. Bryan will recognize them in making up his Cabinet or in filling important positions of any kind. The election of Mr. Bryan, then, would be to place the domestic and foreign affairs and the diplomatic service of the United States in the hands of inferior men—men whose declared belief is that "this country is old enough, big enough, and strong enough to go it alone; we want the nations of the world—England especially—to know that we do not care a fig for what they think, say, or do; we shall do as we please."

With such a ruling spirit, Mr. Bryan's administration would be thoroughly unsafe, and it is not difficult to conceive of the complications that might arise should he be the occupant of the White House during the next four years.—Yours respectfully, G. S. W.

GREENSBORO, N. C., August 3, 1896.

CROWN POINT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Ford's very interesting communication to the *Nation* of July 30, and its accompanying French account of Braddock's defeat, recalled to my mind the annexed contemporary English account of some facts connected with the more successful expedition against Canada until Montcalm checked for a time the advancing British at Forts Oswego and George. The account I send you was enclosed in a letter written by John Hardman of Liverpool, England, to the Duke of Newcastle. The original is in the British Museum (Add. MSS. 32,860 f 301), and is mentioned in the list of colonial manuscripts furnished the *Nation* last autumn by one of its London correspondents. Although the document does not contain the special information I had hoped to find in it (your correspondent having inadvertently stated that it was written at Newberry, South Carolina), still it may prove of some interest in connection with Mr. Ford's valuable material. B. J. RAMAGE.

UNIVERSITY OF THE SOUTH,
SEWANEE, TENN., August 4, 1896.

NEWBERRY Septem[r] 1755.

We have just rec[d] news from our friends at Crown point. The French Army consisting of five thousand French and five hundred Indians met our Army consisting of three thousand men at the great carrying place this side lake Sacrament about Sixty miles this side Crown point after a sharp and bloody engagement which lasted Six hours. We had killed one hundred and thirty men and Sixty wounded. Coll. Titcomb & fifty of his Regiment were killed and the first Cap[t] of the Mowhawks. We have taken the french general who came from France this Summer, killed the Lieutenant General & his Aid du Camp, kill'd one thousand of the French & a great number of Indians kill'd & taken most of their Officers & entirely routed them.

We are reinforcing our Army every day & in twelve or fifteen days they will be eight thousand strong When no doubt we shall proceed to Crown Point & if a war probably to Montreal. We expect by this the Governour is at Niagara.

This account may be depended on. We have taken a french Brigantine in lake Ontario bound to Niagara.

WANTED—A NEWS CHRONICLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I find in my last number of the *Nation* reference to a number of important events of which I find no account in the other newspapers. And this is my constant experience. The *Nation* does not pretend to give the news of the day, but only to comment upon it. I take the weekly editions of two of the leading New York papers for the sake of getting the news, the facts as to what is going on in the world. But I don't get it. I had the same difficulty when I was living in New York and read the daily papers. This is partly because much of the important news comes by telegraph in scraps and fragments from day to day, and is never presented in clear and good form, but has to be picked out from a mass of unimportant matter which requires a degree of daily care and attention that a busy man cannot always give, partly because the prominent place in the paper is usually given to worthless trash, and the really important news omitted or packed away in fine print in obscure corners where it is apt to be overlooked; and partly because the political news is often garbled for partisan purposes.

Would it not pay if somebody would publish once a week a journal of contemporary history, in a form adapted for binding and preservation, containing an account of what is going on in the world, not only in American and foreign politics, but in science, art, literature, and other departments of human activity, arranged under proper heads in a clear and orderly manner, and with such explanations as might be needed to make it intelligible? It should leave out the murders, petty larcenies, elopements, and wife-beatings, and the guesses of Mr. This and Mr. That as to how the next election will go. It should be of the nature of serious history, intended to have a permanent historical and literary value. It would of course have to be written for intelligent people. Only such would care for it. Its circulation would therefore not be large; but then it need not be in order to pay. The news would cost nothing, and perhaps one man could do all the work. A few thousand subscribers would make it profitable. I for one would willingly pay for such a publication several times as much as I now pay for all the newspapers that I take put together. It seems to me that in the English-speaking world there must be enough people who feel as I do to make such an enterprise pecuniarily successful. I wish the *Nation* would undertake it.—Very truly yours,

HENRY T. TERRY.

TOKIO, JAPAN, July 12, 1896.

THE ART OF EASY MARCHING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your note in the *Nation* of July 23 on a new art of walking introduced by an officer in the French army recalls to my mind the fact that this method, which you describe as consisting "in not fully straightening up the leg at the moment when it is perpendicular to the ground, and in dragging out the leg that remains behind to its full length," is universally practised by the cargo-carriers of Central America when on a long march. I encountered this first in the Cuicuina district of Nicaragua. We had reached the head of canoe navigation, and were preparing for our journey on foot across the mountains. My wife and I started out alone upon the trail in advance of our *cargadores*, who had not yet arranged their packs. We had gone less than half a mile when we saw a half-breed advancing with a rapid gliding motion which was neither a walk nor a run. We thought he must be bearing important news from the interior, and questioned him eagerly, but he was only coming, he said, to help Don Juan, the guide of our expedition. Later in the day our men overtook us, all proceeding in the same fashion, heavily laden with luggage and provisions. Subsequently we constructed a saddle-chair in which my wife was carried on the back of one of these men, and her testimony was that the motion was absolutely free from jar, and that it was one of the easiest methods of transportation on land that she had ever experienced.

The traveller in these remote regions is com-

pelled, willy-nilly, to acquire this art of progression, or be dropped out of his party. The *cargadores* will walk no other way. It certainly is less fatiguing and more rapid. I have known one of these mountain porters to travel twenty miles in a day of twelve hours, carrying a pack weighing 100 pounds, the trail being obstructed with fallen timber every few yards, ankle-deep in soft clayey mud, and leading over mountains making an aggregate ascent of not less than 3,000 feet in the distance covered, and yet he showed no sign of fatigue, and was ready for equally arduous work on the following day.

COURTENAY DE KALB.

SCHOOL OF MINES, ROLLA, MO.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS will be the American publishers of John Murray's new issue of Byron's works in prose and verse, edited by the poet's grandson, the Earl of Lovelace. They announce also Andrew Lang's biography of Lockhart; 'The Rogue's March,' by E. W. Hornung; and 'Mrs. Cliff's Yacht,' by Frank R. Stockton.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will undertake a subscription edition of Bret Harte's works in fourteen volumes.

Another volume of poems by Emily Dickinson is in preparation by Roberts Bros.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready a new novel by Harold Frederic, entitled 'March Hares.'

Jessie Fothergill's 'The First Violin' has been illustrated by G. W. Brenneman of the Salmagundi Club, and will be brought out in two handsome volumes by Brentano's.

From the Typothetæ of the City of New York we are to have next month a literal reprint of Moxon's 'Mechanick Exercises, or the Doctrine of Handy-Works, applied to the Art of Printing,' in two volumes, square octavo, in a limited edition of 250 copies on Holland paper, sold only by subscription.

The Raeburn Book Company, New York, are about to publish 'The Scot in America,' by Peter Ross, LL.D.

Fall announcements of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, are 'Italy in the 19th Century,' by Mrs. Elizabeth W. Latimer, and 'A Short History of Italy,' by the late Miss Elizabeth S. Kirkland.

The five volumes which make up the "required literature" of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle (Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent), together mark a grade distinctly above that to which we are accustomed in this quarter. Mr. Brownell's 'French Traits' is taken over by arrangement from the Messrs. Scribner; but new are Prof. George B. Adams's compendious 'Growth of the French Nation,' Prof. Herbert A. Howe's readable 'Study of the Sky,' Prof. Tarbell's 'History of Greek Art,' and Prof. Mahaffy's 'Survey of Greek Civilization.' All these manuals except the first are illustrated, noteworthy in point of freshness being the subjects selected by Prof. Tarbell, whose text has solid as well as popular and taking qualities. Of Prof. Mahaffy's work we shall speak a little more at length.

Prof. Richard Lodge, in his 'Richelieu' (Macmillan), has given a very brief account of the career of the famous cardinal, based upon the most recent authorities. The careful and complete edition of Richelieu's letters and state papers by the Vicomte d'Avenel cleared away the innumerable legends which shrouded the real genius of the great French statesman, and made it possible to understand the services which he rendered to his country. The learned editor expressed the results of his researches in his well-known work, 'Richelieu et la Monarchie Absolue.' Owing to these labors the task of Prof Lodge has been comparatively easy. He has followed his trustworthy guide with unswerving fidelity, and his work has been mainly one of condensation. A far more brilliant writer than either D'Avenel or Lodge has been beguiled by political ambition after setting out to write what promised to be the final and conclusive history of Richelieu's career. M. Gabriel Hanotaux, the present French Minister of Foreign Affairs, before his promotion to high political office, published the first volume of a projected life of Richelieu, covering the period of his youth, which, from the beauty of its style, the justness of its historical appreciations, and its admirable use of primary authorities, promised to be a masterpiece. The completion of this book seems to be indefinitely adjourned. Under these circumstances Prof. Lodge has rightly depended for his information upon D'Avenel.

It is difficult to conjecture what class of readers Baron Ferdinand Rothschild expected to interest in his 'Personal Characteristics from French History' (Macmillan). Readers of French memoirs, whether for pleasure or profit, have no desire to see how clumsily piquant French anecdotes can be rendered into bald English. Those who read only English and desire to obtain historical information, will naturally turn to the coherent and accurate works dealing with the subjects in which they are interested, and will be inclined to shun collections of disconnected anecdotes. This is precisely what Baron Rothschild's volume is, despite its somewhat pretentious title. The author has waded through a mass of French memoirs, and selected therefrom the anecdotes and personal incidents which were in his opinion entertaining and instructive. These materials he has arranged for the most part chronologically, but without regard to historical proportion or perspective. The chief fault of the book—a fault, indeed, which it shares with all similar books—lies in the incorrect estimates of men and deeds given by anecdotes chosen with reference to their dramatic interest. This is particularly true in the chapter dealing with the Revolution. Considered merely as a contribution to general literature, however, Baron Rothschild's book has a place, and those who read for diversion will find it a decided improvement on historical novels of the Weyman type; it has the added advantage of being beautifully made up and amply illustrated.

The services of Mr. Malabari in the cause of Indian social reform, especially in promoting the passage of the Age of Consent bill, are sufficiently well known to every one interested in social progress to make the publication, by Mr. R. P. Karkaria, of 'India: Forty Years of Progress and Reform; being a Sketch of the Life and Times of Behramji M. Malabari' (London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan) thoroughly acceptable. The numerous Ramabai Circles established all over the country keep alive a general interest in the condition of Hindu women and the deplorable lot of Hindu widows. Mr. Malabari has been the foremost champion of this cause in India, and his prominence in this respect is his chief title to fame beyond its borders. But his biographer shows that Mr. Malabari is more than a pioneer of social reform; he has written poems, both in English and in the vernacular, which have received high praise from competent critics; he is a philosopher who has reflected deeply and written much on philosophic and religious subjects; and he is perhaps the most accomplished journalist that India has yet produced. For all these reasons his personality deserves to be better known than it is, and Mr. Karkaria's book may be recommended as giving a readable account of the career of the distinguished thinker, reformer, and man of letters.

'Persia Revisited (1895),' by Gen. Sir T. E. Gordon (Edward Arnold), is a timely and interesting book. It is not a mere traveller's account of what he has seen and experienced, but is a series of detached sketches relating to nearly every department of Persian life, drawn from observations made not only during this visit, but also during the author's official residence as attaché to the British Embassy. He gives a more favorable account of the land than we had supposed was justified. He says, for instance, that "the peasantry and laboring classes are fairly well off," and that considerable progress is being made in the construction of roads and in the development of the natural resources of the land. In this activity the Persians themselves are sharing to an increasing extent, though it is mostly due to foreigners. Not only England and Russia, but France and Germany, are seeking to establish commercial relations and to obtain concessions. Belgian capital, even, is represented at Teheran by a tramway company, a glass manufactory, and a beet-sugar factory. The late Shah is commended for his leniency, his hatred of bloodshed, his desire for justice, and his love of peace. His successor "is of kindly disposition, and has pleasing manners," and "there have been occasions on which he showed himself to be a capable ruler," while his Prime Minister is a man of "conspicuous energy and talent." There are some excellent portraits of these men, together with others of characteristic types of the people.

Lt.-Col. Dalbiac's 'Dictionary of Quotations (English)' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan) does not lack familiar and current lines and passages, but is predominantly an anthology which rather reflects the compiler's own taste in verse and to some extent in prose. This taste cannot be rated highly. Of books of the same class, he says, "there is scarcely one that is at the same time complete, up-to-date, and sufficiently explicit in the matter of references." How any one can be "complete" we are at a loss to imagine; Col. Dalbiac has certainly not incorporated the works of his predecessors with his own. Kipling, Birrell, J. C. Hare, Haweis, Huxley, Morley, Christina Rossetti, Jean Ingelow, William and Lewis Morris, Dobell, Sir Edwin Arnold, Swinburne, and Clough (called *E.* H. on p. 329), make the "up-to-date," we infer, but the quantity of citations from them is relatively small. The references are, indeed, so far as we have tested them, accurate, but not more so or more explicit than in Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations,' which is more than once referred to by page alone, without mention of the edition. There are thirteen extracts from Vanbrugh, whose name is uniformly misspelled -burgh, though right in the index. In that from Lowell on p. 35, "men" should be man; and an essential hyphen is dropped from Holmes's compound epithet "low-vaulted" on p. 42. George P. Morris is disguised as "George T." on p. 352. We miss any posy from FitzGerald's 'Omar Khayyám.' The ar-

rangement is much inferior to Bartlett's (by author). A Greek and Latin volume is to follow.

The seventh volume of Mr. Charles Booth's great work on the 'Life and Labor of the People in London' (Macmillan) contains the description of the population according to their trades. While figures are necessarily a prominent feature in this industrial census, it is impossible not to be struck with the admirable manner in which the movement of human life in its manifold activities is described. Many "short and simple annals" are introduced as illustrating the condition of large numbers of the poor, and many of the details of manufacturing and mercantile processes are given. Very few governmental reports will bear comparison with this monument of private enterprise.

The 'Office Central des Oeuvres Charitables,' 175 Boulevard St.-Germain, an association of which the Marquis de Vogüé is president, has recently begun the publication of a series of departmental pamphlets, "La France Charitable et Prévoyante" (Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.), which, when completed, will contain a full list of the charitable institutions, public and private, of all kinds within the limits of the Republic, with brief information concerning the nature, resources, etc., of each. This publication will aid benefactors in determining just how and where their special wishes are most likely to be realized. The nine weekly numbers now at hand sufficiently show the enormous extent and activity of beneficent organizations in France. Taking at random the Department of Sarthe (whose capital is Le Mans), we count 116 institutions for children and adolescents, 104 for adults, and 10 for aged persons. The proportion of private charities is large; of 51 *écoles maternelles*, or *salles d'asile*, for instance, 31 are private, mostly under the direction of sisterhoods. The purposes of the several beneficent foundations are so varied that we can mention only a few of the less common ones. "Des filles exposées mais non vicieuses" are kept from the thirteenth to the twenty-first year; servant girls are cared for till they find employment; a ticket good for a kilogramme of bread is delivered to a man for one hour's labor at breaking stone; released prisoners are assisted in various ways; indigent lovers are helped in complying with marriage formalities, etc., etc. It is apparent from the introductory notice to the work that the utmost care has been exercised in gathering the statistical information from all the departments, and in the presence of such evidence one will hardly cavil with the secretary of the association, M. Léon Lefébure, who, after studying the organization of private charities in England, Germany, and the United States, vindicates for his countrymen the title of "maitres dans l'art de faire le bien."

Two novel periodicals come to us from the West in the first (August) numbers of *What to Eat*, published at Minneapolis, and *International*, published at Chicago by the Union Quoin Company. The former is an eccentric attempt to combine gastronomy with literature and art; not a few of the illustrations in the text are in color. August bills of fare compete with "Crawford's Nurse," "A Cry from a Confirmed Dyspeptic," "An Epicurean Ballad," "Hints" for the disposition and use of knife and fork, folding of napkin, etc., "The Banquet to Joseph Jefferson," and much else; besides an exposition of Ralstonism, or the new art of health and longevity. The *International* is likewise illustrated, but in a more familiar style. Its aim is, by a competent corps of translators, to glean from the "great wealth of current literature outside the English language, which is, for the most part, entirely lost to us." Subordinate to these selections are accounts of the foreign authors drawn upon (Horn, Zola, Maupassant, Johanna Ambrosius, Sonya Kovalevski), book reviews, and miscellany.

With the April number, the Library Bulletin of Cornell University was discontinued. Its annual record of publications by university officers will hereafter supplement the President's Annual Report. The General Finding-List of the miscellaneous portion of the President White Library is now in press, and a collection of the Fiske Dante collection is nearly ready for the printers. A noticeable recent acquisition for the Cornell Library is the extensive collection of books relating to South America made by the well-known naturalist Herbert H. Smith during his residence in Brazil.

The interest which the French take in the development of their African possessions, especially in the direction of Egypt, is shown by an article in *Annales de Géographie* for July, describing in detail the region forming the frontier between Tunis and Tripoli. It is accompanied by a map. This number also has an account of the Negritos of the East Indies, a race of whose extent, origin, and possible connection with the pigmies of Africa, the author, M. Lapicque, informs us there is much yet to be learned. There are numerous measurements of heads, together with several interesting photographs of individuals. A brief reference is made to the report of the committee on the proposed canal between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean. The project is absolutely rejected on account of the expense, which is estimated at from four hundred to five hundred million dollars.

In addition to the usual reports of the excavations at Jerusalem, the Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains an interesting discussion of the date of the Exodus, by Capt. Haynes and Col. Conder, in the new light shed upon the subject by Prof. Petrie's recent discovery of an inscribed tablet containing a reference to the children of Israel. Their conclusions are that if the professor's interpretation of the inscription is correct, the Exodus must have taken place nearly three centuries before the time now usually attributed to it. The alternate view, held, we believe, by Prof. Petrie, is that a part of the Hebrews may have remained in Canaan when their brethren emigrated to Egypt. Col. Conder also contributes some notes on the various places mentioned in the 'Onomasticon' of Eusebius.

The scientific world was interested some two years ago by the circumstantial account, in one of Messrs. Chambers' publications, of a landing upon Rockall, that lonely pinnacle rock in the Atlantic, 260 miles northwest of Ireland. Doubtless many vessels that have never been heard of have there met their doom. It was known to have been landed upon on but two occasions—by Basil Hall in 1813, and by a sailor from the *Porcupine* in the fifties. The second account turns out to be entirely drawn from the writer's fancy. A party of scientists in the steamer of the Irish Congested Districts Board, under Mr. Green, have made two unsuccessful attempts this summer. It was thought the island might possibly be the as yet undiscovered nesting-place of the great shearwater (*Puffinus Major*). Although a landing could not, on account of the height of the waves breaking against the seventy-foot cliffs, be effected, enough was seen to warrant the conclusion that Rockall is not the cradle of these sea birds.

—The *Atlantic* numbers among its list of contributors this month no name more distinguished than that of President Gilman, who briefly reviews some features of American colleges and universities, and forecasts the possibilities of their future. His express declaration that among the greatest gains of the period covered by the memoirs of Presidents Barnard and McCosh is "the admission of women to the advantages of higher education, either by coeducation, or by 'annexes,' or by separate foundations," will not be overlooked by the friends of that higher education, ever mindful of the practice of the Johns Hopkins University in rigorously excluding women from any of its benefits (except medical). Where President Gilman leaves off after describing the multiform intellectual activity that should make up the life of the university proper, Prof. Paul Shorey takes up the thread, in an essay on "Present Conditions of Literary Production," and shows how the influence of universities may be expected to extend beyond themselves in spreading far and wide through their graduates a competent literary criticism and a high standard of literary endeavor. While admitting that "the photographing of the present is an estimable and for the time the most flourishing branch of literary craftsmanship," Prof. Shorey asks, in regard to the final claims of veritist literature, the pertinent question, "To what can these laborious inventories of unconcerning things lead?" To this need not be sought an apter answer than is supplied in the same number of the magazine, in the form of a concrete illustration, by Mary Boardman Sheldon's short story of the wasted pains of a realistic novelist, entitled "A Literary Model." To Mrs. James T. Fields has fallen the labor of love of paying a tribute to the memory of Mrs. Stowe.

—A pronounced realist could hardly exhibit himself to better advantage as an idealist than does Mr. W. D. Howells in his article in *Harper's* on "The White Mr. Longfellow." The title of this article, with its adjective borrowed from an epithet applied by the Norsemen, in the early days of their conversion, in their expression "the White Christ," is due to Björnstjerne Björnson; the text consists of Mr. Howells's personal impressions and reminiscences, dating from the beginning of his residence in Cambridge and friendship with Mr. Longfellow, and continuing until the latter's death. As a member of the Dante Club, which met by invitation at Craigie House and included in its number Agassiz, Holmes, and Lowell, Mr. Howells, then, as now, fully sensible of the privilege he enjoyed, ought, he is inclined to think, to have guarded against lapses of memory by notes of the conversations that followed the readings and discussions of the poet's translation. There is, however, no lack of definiteness or consistency in the conception given of Mr. Longfellow's personality, and when next Mr. Howells undertakes the praise of "a perfectly socialized condition of things," he will not find it easy to undo the conviction inspired by this paper that an aristocracy is the most attractive of all forms of society that can be imagined. A serial story, "Tom Sawyer, Detective," by Mark Twain, is begun in this number of *Harper's*, and a short story by John Kendrick Bangs, "The Mayor's Lamps," will find fa-

vor with many readers on account of a political moral which is relieved by humor from any pressing demands on consideration. Both poetic and dramatic feeling of a high order are evidenced by Laurence Alma-Tadema's one-act play, "The Silent Voice," to which a graceful lyric of fateful significance forms the prologue and epilogue. Edwin A. Abbey supplies two illustrations to this vividly realized sixteenth-century episode.

—The cover of the annual fiction number of *Scribner's* is conspicuous for the success of its ornamental figure-piece, in colors, by Will H. Low. The first article, "On the Trail of Don Quixote," by August F. Jaccaci, though not yet completed, is well chosen as a preliminary recognition of the fiction that is not ephemeral in character. Whatever degree of style or individuality may be lacking in the text of this article is amply made up for in the illustrations by Vierge, which are full of delicacy and suggestiveness. George W. Cable contributes a story of melodramatic coloring, describing in some strong passages a reprobate's final rescue of himself, not by means of any of the orthodox agencies, but by a determined clinging to mother earth. In the story "Charm He Never so Wisely," Eleanor Stuart, while skilfully revolving a nebulously light central idea, has managed to throw off so many bright sayings and happy observations of people and things that her story produces, on the whole, an effect of considerable brilliancy. For the rest it is enough to mention "Mrs. Lofter's Ride" as an amusing satire on fashionable pretentiousness. Of the verse, Clinton Scollard's "In an Alcove" is pleasing in thought and accomplished in expression.

—Until six months ago, as Prof. Flinders Petrie explains in the current *Century*, no trace of the Israelites by name or object had been found in Egypt. In February last he discovered the long-sought mention of them. The tablet bearing this inscription came to light in a clearance of the site of the tomb of Merenptah at Thebes, and it is a flawless block of fine-grained syenite, or granite, about ten feet high by five wide and over a foot thick. The account of his Syrian campaign, engraved on it by Merenptah, about 1208 B.C., declares that "the people of Israel is spoiled." Near the tablet was found the colored granite bust of the king himself, to whom present indications point as the Pharaoh of the Exodus. These are some of the facts. Prof. Petrie adds a lively imaginary portrait of this "Pharaoh of the Hard Heart," son of Rameses the Great, whose granite tablet, now helping to solve points of such obscurity in the Hebrew history, has been lying face downwards under stone fragments and chips since about the time of the Trojan war. Prof. Petrie's suggestion that any day a tablet or a papyrus may be turned up which will throw some further light on the later years of this monarch points to the exciting side of Egyptology. In an article on "Burnt Wood in Decoration" J. William Fosdick explains some of the improved mechanical aids to, and touches upon the history of, an artistic handicraft of which the merits and decorative possibilities are overlooked on the one hand, and threatened by vulgarization in industrial processes on the other. A number of interesting illustrations are given of Mr. Fosdick's own work, to which have regrettably been added only two from examples of English and Italian burnt-wood work of the sixteenth century. Gen. John W. Foster contributes a detailed biographical account of the Chinese general, statesman, and diplomatist, Li Hung Chang, best known to the world at large as the ambassador intrusted with the recent negotiations for peace with Japan, and presently to visit this country.

—There is no student of modern history who will not look eagerly to see what so great an expert as Prof. F. A. Aulard has to say on the authenticity of the Memoirs of Barras and on their value as historical evidence. M. Aulard's judgment in this cause appears in a luminous article in the *Revue Bleue* of July 4. Barras he considers one of the most important actors and one of the most clear-sighted witnesses of the Revolution. The points, then, to be chiefly looked at in respect of his book are, first, its authenticity, and, second, its truthfulness and honesty. There are three kinds of memoirs of the Revolution—those which are absolutely contemporaneous with the events they record, such as the 'Journal d'une Bourgeoise,' published by M. Lockroy; those which are nearly contemporaneous, written on the morrow of the events, like the Memoirs of Mme. Roland; and, in the third place, but at a great distance, the memoirs written long after the Revolution, when the events had become disfigured, or transfigured, in the memory of the writer. No one of these categories, in M. Aulard's opinion, includes the whole of the work of Barras. Certain parts of the Memoirs were written from day to day, others immediately after the events, others, again, much later. An attentive reader can often distinguish between these portions of Barras's book, and M. George Duruy, its editor, ought to have put it in the reader's power always so to distinguish. Where Barras gives contemporary evidence, it is of very great value.

—From another point of view memoirs may be classified as to authenticity. Some are absolutely authentic, like those of Thibaudeau; some certainly apocryphal, like those of Robespierre; others mixed, like those of Levasseur written out by Achille Roche from Levasseur's notes, and those of Talleyrand written by M. de Bacourt from notes and conversations of Talleyrand, and "candidly published as true by the good Duc de Broglie." At first sight the Memoirs of Barras seem to belong to this last category, for they were written out and embellished after the death of Barras by Alexandre Corbeau Rousselin de Saint Albin. This was done in accordance with Barras's wish, for he liked as an aristocrat to be thought illiterate, and besides had a high admiration of Rousselin's style. Still, it is a manuscript of Barras's own that forms the basis of the present book, and Barras's notes, too, exist, and are in the possession of M. George Duruy, while all the originals of Levasseur and of Talleyrand have disappeared. Then, too, it is to be remembered that Rousselin himself was a contemporary of Barras, and played a less important part on the same stage where Barras was playing a great one. We have hardly space to hint at pages of M. Aulard's article so compact of interest and value that they cannot be compressed. He concludes that M. Barras's memoirs "sont donc à lire, à commenter, à citer. C'est une des sources les plus curieuses et les plus importantes de l'histoire, surtout morale et anecdotique, de la Révolution." But he calls for the publication of Barras's notes.

—It is not clear that Mr. William Root Bliss was happily inspired in choosing the title of his book 'Quaint Nantucket' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). "Quaint" was a better word than it now is in the days when it had less vogue and had been less misused. In its present connection it has a slightly patronizing sound, offensive to pious ears in the Island Home, and likely enough to be resented by the faithful as savoring somewhat of "coof" insolence. For why should Nantucket be held to be more quaint than any other town of like date and like history? The first impression is only deepened when one turns the title-page, and finds that the book "relates to that quaint Nantucket which existed for two hundred years before the island was discovered by 'the summer boarder.'" Was Nantucket quainter then than other towns? Or was every town quaint two hundred and fifty years ago? Mr. Bliss has done harm to his book by this mistake, for the book is really worth reading, comprising many interesting extracts from old town and court records, original letters and account books, sea journals, and the like. Whether it would not have been a better plan to print these, and the whole of them, without more comment and explanation than could easily be given in foot-notes, is a question which we need not consider. It is pretty to think of the disappointment of the summer visitor who puts his book in his bag, supposing it mere seaside trash, when he discovers that it is really a serious book, and of a certain, greater or less, value.

—The Nicaragua Canal scheme makes everything relating to that country interesting just now—a fact which may account for the appearance of a volume 'Nicaragua: War of the Filibusters,' mainly made up of the narrative, now out of print, left behind him by the "grey-eyed man of destiny" (Richmond, Va.: B. F. Johnson Publishing Co.). The author, Judge D. B. Lucas of West Virginia, follows the steps of the "regenerator" of Nicaragua, and makes out for him a better case than one would have supposed possible. This is partly because all modern filibusters are moralists. Walker was unfortunate in his effort because it was connected with slavery, but he repudiated all idea of doing anything wrong in invading a friendly state and upsetting its government. His motive was the good of the country. So was that of Maximilian in part, when he felt compelled to upset the Mexican Government. All the Cuban filibusters enlist in the cause of freedom, and Dr. Jameson and his friends call themselves "reformers." The Boers, however, call them freebooters, just as the Spaniards call Raleigh and Drake pirates. The modern terminology is no doubt a tribute to law and morality, which forbid us any longer to talk even about the "conquest" of foreign territory. The volume also contains an article on the canal by the Hon. W. A. MacCorkle, and an essay on the Monroe Doctrine, by J. Fairfax McLaughlin, who calls attention to the surprising fact that none of the many prominent persons recently engaged in discussing the Doctrine—neither the President, nor Mr. Olney, nor Senator Lodge, nor Mr. McMaster—has mentioned the circumstance that in 1817 Pozzo di Borgo, then in the service of Russia, was in favor of *subjugating the United States*. No wonder Monroe was opposed to any change in the *status quo*. Borgo is dead, thank God, but, alas! his spirit still lives, and doubtless dictates the hidden policy of many a crafty king and emperor.

THAYER'S EVIDENCE IN JURY TRIAL.

A Preliminary Treatise on Evidence at the Common Law. Part I. Development of Trial by Jury. By James Bradley Thayer. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1896.

PROF. THAYER'S contributions to the *Harvard Law Review* on the subject of Evidence have for several years attracted the attention not only of students, but of lawyers engaged in practice as well; and it has been generally understood that they were designed as the groundwork of a treatise on the subject. Of this treatise the present small volume forms the introductory part. It gives us an insight into the author's view of the branch of the law to which it relates, and enables us to judge of his general plan. The completed volume is to be published within a year. These introductory chapters are published in advance, as being likely to prove interesting to general readers, and for use in universities and law schools in connection with the study of the history of institutions. Students can hardly fail to find them of value. They are to be regarded as "incidental and auxiliary studies in the course of an examination of the law of evidence in English-speaking countries."

The first question which is sure to occur to every lawyer to whose attention a new treatise on evidence is called, is why it is written at all. Our shelves are full of treatises on the subject, and very good ones. Why add another? To this question the answer given by Prof. Thayer is that his method and purpose in writing are new; that it is his intention to consider the development of the law of evidence in a way not hitherto done, a way likely to free it from much of the confusion which has hitherto surrounded it. To judge of the execution of such an attempt merely from an introduction is impossible, but these preliminary studies make it clear that the plan of the work is both sound and novel, and give promise of a treatise which will have to be tested by comparison with Greenleaf and Stephen.

To point out in a few words the essential difference between the plan of these great writers on evidence and that of Prof. Thayer, we may say that, in both Greenleaf and Stephen, the fundamental assumption is that the law of evidence in the common-law world consists of a body of natural and rational principles of proof which judges have evolved by close attention to the subject, and which is perhaps superior to the great body of substantive law which determines our personal, property, or contractual rights and duties in being more scientific. Both books treat the law of evidence as in a measure an established and final system, something like that of natural science, and endeavor to expound and rationalize it. That such a system underlies our law, and has been quietly elucidated by both Greenleaf and Stephen, cannot be doubted; but if, as Prof. Thayer says, we raise our eyes from the common-law system and look abroad, we find that our law of evidence, as such, has in other countries no existence. The reason of this is simply that we make use of a mode of trial unknown in other countries—trial by jury. Our law of evidence consists of innumerable rules framed in great measure to prevent this peculiar tribunal, unskilled in the examination of evidence or the application of rational rules of proof, from being confused and misled and governed by improper considerations. These are not to be met with in other countries, because in them trial by jury is not the ordinary means of determining questions of fact. In them the question is, mainly, Does a given piece of evidence tend to prove or disprove a certain fact? This is not a question of law, but of inference for the judge in the particular case. Its decision involves and "lays down" no rules, and hence there is no body of rules constituting a law of evidence. With us, on the other hand, the inquiry is not mainly probative; it has really been for many centuries, What, among really probative matters, "shall, nevertheless, for this or that practical reason, be excluded, and not even heard by the jury?" Add to this that the reason, instead of being avowed, was almost always assumed by the court to be attributable to some principle of "the law of evidence," that the function of the jury was originally very different from what it is now, and that the whole body of rules of evidence is a growth of centuries, and we see at once that there is room for a most interesting book, at once practical and historical, which shall separate the principles of proof and inference from technical rules forced into our system by the operation of jury trial, and discriminate these again from the multitude of rules of pleading, procedure, and substantive law which in many directions have become confounded with those of evidence. Such a work would combine the historical method with those of Stephen and Greenleaf. As equipment for the undertaking, not only has Prof. Thayer had long familiarity with common-law evidence as administered in the courts, but his foundation of practice has been supplemented by years of research. Although his book is not finished, his papers in the *Law Review* have made his name known on both sides of the Atlantic.

The treatise presupposes an inquiry into the origin and history of trial by jury, and the present part consists of three chapters on this subject, as well as one on the older modes of trial which preceded the introduction of the jury. The author is reluctant to state conclusions or make generalizations of a hypothetical character, and there is certainly no field in which this temper is safer than in law. As we are not under the same bonds, we have no hesitation in pointing out certain conclusions to which these researches seem to point, not explicitly stated by him.

One is, that the more light we get on the past of our law, the more certain it seems that its condition in any century (could we obtain a view of the whole of it) would probably show much the same jumble of contradictions overlying a substratum of system that we find to-day—heightened, however, the further back we go, by the fact that, the more remote the period, the more contending influences we find struggling with one another for the mastery of the law. In the Middle Ages, for instance, there were, besides the remains of Saxon family, tribe and land law, the Roman system, so far as it may have been preserved; the law as administered by ecclesiastics (the bishop sitting in the county court can hardly have done much for the symmetry of the law); the feudal system; and the King's law, which must have been to a great extent personal. We have to-day a comparatively uniform law, the rules of which are determined far more than in any previous age by the necessities and convenience of the actual condition of society, yet it is full of inconsistencies. What must it not have been at the time of the Conquest! The law has never been developed as a whole from century to century, nor has even any one branch of it, like evidence. We may trace the rise, progress, and decay of a particular institution or theory, but we shall often find it flourishing side by side with institutions and theories totally at variance with it, and apparently belonging by origin to a totally different period. The introduction of trial by ordeal, for instance, obviously belongs to a religious period, when the belief in the intervention of God in every-day affairs by miracle is a matter of course; in such a period what could be more natural than to call God in to reveal the truth as to a hidden fact, like guilt or innocence? To William Rufus this seemed absurd even in the eleventh century, and he declared that God had decided these matters long enough—he would do it himself now; notwithstanding which, trial by ordeal lived on for a century and a half. The Normans introduced the germ of jury trial through the inquest, but they saw nothing inconsistent with this in trial by battle, which is said to have been violently disliked by the English, not because it was irrational, but because it was expensive, and the right to trial by battle existed side by side with trial by jury for many centuries. Again, wager of law existed as a living institution as far back as we can go, and wager of law is founded on the primitive but not irrational conception that, in the absence of better proof, the oaths of a number of people who may be presumed to know something about the matter are a good way of deciding a controversy.

It is often inferred from the barbarous modes of trial common a thousand years ago that our ancestors had no conception of the nature and function of proof. This is quite a mistake. They not only knew what proof was (even a child or savage knows that a disputed statement to be believed must be corroborated by facts), but they knew how to preserve it for future use. Not having any system of records, they accompanied a sale, transfer, or other event by formal acts in the presence of witnesses, who were relied on to prove it if afterward called in question.

"Great pains, to be sure, were taken in early times to require publicity as regards matters which might be the basis of legal right, and to fix rights by connecting them with easily known facts; the endowing at the church door, the requirement, in case of curtesy, of hearing the child cry within the four walls, the sale before witnesses, and the law of hue and cry, are instances" (p. 120).

Nor was there ever a time when a plaintiff had not to produce some proof of the story told by him. The difficulty was that the defendant could produce proof too. The court had no power to sift the evidence before it or to get more. A miracle would determine it, a battle would give God an opportunity to make the right victorious; or if a number of friends came in and made oath that there was nothing in the plaintiff's story, that might be enough. What they did not understand was to try the case by means of proof, and this partly because they had no compulsory process of proof. What seems to us the most simple thing in the world—to make an inquiry into a matter of disputed fact—was exactly what they did not understand, and the name given by the Normans to their procedure shows what it was. It was a royal *inquisitio*, or inquest, to get at facts by compulsory process. In previous ages, astonishing as it may seem to us, judgment had come before trial, because the proof was introduced merely to enable the old popular judges to judge what trial should be resorted to, or whether any was necessary. Now for the first time trial precedes judgment.

What we have said seems to us to make it clear that the function which the jury was destined to perform was not that of introducing to the English the conception of proof—that they had already; but of accustoming them to seeing evidence weighed and cases decided according to a preponderance of proof, which they knew little or nothing about. The jury at first were probably simply witnesses such as the Anglo-Saxon world had long been accustomed to, who testified to facts within their knowledge, such as those of possession, birth, age, dowry, an assault, etc. What the King did was to send an officer to take their evidence, and use it in order to administer relief to suitors in his courts. That these witnesses became gradually triers of fact, and wholly lost their original functions, is, of course, undisputed. In fine, we think we shall hardly be wrong if we surmise, as we have said, that the Normans found the jurymen on the spot, and their kings taught them not what proof was, but how to try cases with it. Before the Normans came the witnesses had been the followers of the two parties, and in the last resort there was nobody but God to decide between them. The moment the Normans appear, the witnesses are selected by public authority, and the King's court takes and acts upon their testimony. This was what *inquest*, or inquiry, meant. The further we examine the matter, the more pithy and pregnant seems the remark attributed to William Rufus.

These chapters describe part of the process by which the jury has been gradually developed into a highly specialized and technical tribunal of fact. We may call attention to the account given of the history of the process of attaint, and the introduction of new trials, as particularly valuable. All this is new matter, especially in a book on evidence. We shall look with interest for the more modern portions of the book, which may be expected to throw new light upon what is one of the great feats of English jurisprudence, the sharp discrimination between law and fact. Whether we have not reached a period at which the work may be regarded as accomplished we do not know. Trial by jury has come in our day to produce greater expense and delay than did the old trial by battle. We have become familiar, through the extension of equity, with a much simpler and speedier mode of trial; so far as many ordinary matters of contract or property are concerned, a single judge is quite as good as, if not better than, a judge and jury together. On the other hand, in matters affecting life and liberty, it is such an invaluable protection against abuse of power that in the very countries where its germs were killed by despotism centuries since, it has been reintroduced in our day in special cases for the safeguard of popular rights. Judging of the future by the past, we should anticipate that, in the ages to come, this ancient form of trial, in its application to the thousand and one petty disputes which occupy the courts, would tend to fall into disuse, rising at the same time into renewed dignity and influence the more it is confined to those grand questions of human right, in the determination of which our deepest instincts incline us to resort to a popular tribunal of fact.

Moral Evolution. By George Harris, Professor in Andover Theological Seminary. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

PROF. HARRIS'S book is one of the many reconciliations of science and religion of which we have had hundreds and thousands during the last half century. The establishment of a new scientific theory, however startling at first, and however vigorously opposed, has always been the signal for the appearance of a body of ingenious writers panoplied with the assurance that there is no real conflict between the new science and the traditional opinion. Sometimes the reconciliation has been found easy enough between that opinion in its frank sincerity and the new science in its obvious implications, but more frequently both the traditional opinion and the new science have been shorn of something of their proper strength before the declaration of the bans. In general the approximation of the traditional theology to science has been more remarkable than that of science to the traditional theology. The concessions made from the scientific side have for the most part been made by theologians who have not consulted the scientists, and have not always had their backing. Prof. Harris's book does not err in this direction. Hardly could anything be more generous than his concessions of traditional belief. Even where he retains "the form of sound doctrine," it is only the form that he retains, never the substance. And yet it is very doubtful whether the genuinely scientific will accept his reconciliation. They will complain that his terms on both sides are too loose and vague to have the character of science, and that his method in general is theological—genial, conciliatory, liberal, but still theological. On the other hand, the conservative theologians will repudiate it root and branch. They will object that science gets everything by the compromise, theology nothing. They will insist that it is another instance of the lamb inside the lion. Those who will be most pleased are the steadily increasing multitude of persons who are willing enough to change their opinions if they may be permitted to use a venerable nomenclature and to carry themselves in the approved orthodox manner.

Prof. Harris's book, like many others of its kind, makes a more promising start than is fulfilled by what ensues. Beginning with the acceptance of evolution as "a theory of the derivation of one species from another, of the descent (?) of man from inferior animals, of the progress of man in his habits, arts, morality, and religion, in accordance with the methods which control the development of life below and around him," he finds it regarded by some as antagonistic to morality, by others as independent of it, while others regard the two as identical, and a fourth party think the two harmonious. Prof. Harris classes Huxley with the independents, but Huxley's contention that it is "the business of morality to combat the selfishness which controls the process called cosmic" would seem to place him among those who hold to the antagonism of evolution and ethics. At this point Prof. Harris brings out the diametrical difference of Buckle and Kidd in a very interesting manner. Kidd he never touches but to lay his finger on some ailing place. The identity of ethics and evolution is set aside as an inadequate theory, though having more to recommend it than the doctrines of antagonism and independence; and the doctrine of coincidence and harmony is accepted as the most satisfactory. The method of the following chapters is first to discover the true character of morality, and then consider whether its harmony with evolution is borne out by a comparison of the two orders of belief and fact. The treatment is fresh and popular, the style admirably clear and forcible, and pervading all there is a shrewd intelligence, a "saving common sense," a capacity for seeing both sides, and a homely practical wisdom, that go far to constitute the value of the book and commend it to those on either hand who are least likely to accept its ultimate conclusions.

The more purely ethical chapters, from the fourth to the eighth inclusive, have more intrinsic interest than any others. The chapter on utilitarianism is extremely fair; and if here, as elsewhere, Prof. Harris is more glad to find agreement between things that differ than to emphasize their difference, his genial disposition is so rare that it enlists our sympathy. His sixth chapter, "Self-Realization and Altruism," is evidently the one he values most. It contains what he considers most distinctive in his ethical position, "the perception that self-preservation, self-assertion, self-enjoyment, and self-perfection have a vital relation to the fundamental facts of evolution." This perception, he tells us, has been to him in the nature of a discovery, and in it he finds "the reconciliation of conflicting theories of ethics as well as the larger harmony of ethical with evolutionary doctrine." If this discovery seems to us less original than to Prof. Harris, there is still something very fresh and attractive in his use of it. It brings him into sharp collision with Huxley and Kidd, two writers whose essential unity of ethical conception underlying their apparent difference he has brought out as no one has until now.

His discussion of the relations of ethics and religion is less satisfactory. Here the thought is looser and vaguer, and the survivals of theological phraseology are more frequently met. Moreover, there is a conscious or unconscious avoidance of knotty points, which is not reassuring, and as little so is the fact that matters of first-rate importance are passed over trippingly—the matter of immortality, for example. On page 204 there is a conjunction as queer as the mixing of the bowsprit and the rudder in "The Hunting of the Snark." We read: "John Stuart Mill put feeling into mathematics when he said that if he must believe, on pain of going to hell, that two and two made five in any part of the universe, to hell he would go rather than admit it." But the most famous of Mill's philosophical heresies is his belief that two and two might make five in a different world from ours. In a very different connection he said, criticising Mansel, that he would call no being good who was not what he meant when he applied that name to his fellow-creatures, and that if God should send him to hell for not so calling him, then to hell he would go.

Prof. Harris is even less satisfactory in the application of his general conceptions to the particulars of Christian doctrine than in his application of them to the wider interests of religion. But there is very little in the way of putting new wine into old bottles. In most cases the old bottles are frankly discarded. It is difficult to see how Prof. Harris can or will sign the Andover creed the next time that crucial test is brought to bear upon the consciences of the Andover professors. In comparison with his book, that called 'Progressive Orthodoxy,' which emanated from Andover a few years ago, has decidedly a mediæval air. His own book is exceedingly progressive, but of orthodoxy it has not a shred. Particularly noticeable by its absence is that "Christocentric" Theology by which 'Progressive Orthodoxy' was so strongly marked,

The doctrines of election and reprobation and the opposition of God's justice and mercy are denounced as immoral; the damnation of the ignorant heathen is served in the same fashion, and the doctrines of the fall of man and total depravity are firmly set aside. The Trinity is passed over in silence. The Holy Spirit has a dozen lines to which no anti-Trinitarian could object.

Coming to Christology, our author's emphasis is on the recovery of the humanity of Jesus, and Strauss's 'Leben Jesu' is indicated as the happy turning-point in this regard. The deity of Jesus is ignored, and his divinity is regarded as the formula of his transcendent moral excellence, the ideal of human goodness being degraded in order to assign to him a "moral perfection" that is purely arbitrary or rhetorical. "In knowledge he was not omniscient. He gained knowledge as other men do." His miracles are reduced to the lowest terms; some of them discarded, the others minimized and declared unimportant. As for his resurrection, "There is strong presupposition against the resurrection of a human being," but if Jesus was "a unique person," this presupposition may be set aside. Thus playing fast and loose with his humanity, Prof. Harris's general position is that of the Unitarians midway of the century, when they had already abandoned their original position for one more liberal. "Sin is departure from the type. It is missing the mark." This does not sound much like Augustine and Calvin and Edwards, but Prof. Harris is not servile in his subjection to great names. "Revelation is embodiment of God in the very existence and evolution of nature." "The only idea of God to which science may properly object is the idea of a God external to nature. . . . But this is not the Christian idea." To prove this, John Fiske's quotation of Dr. A. V. G. Allen is used. But the quotation describes Greek thought, not Roman nor Biblical.

The wonder is at what rate this kind of thing is sifting down into the Congregational pulpits and societies. Of course the young Andoverians can be relied upon to better their instruction when they go out into the world. One thing is obvious, that the dogmatic system of evangelical theology vanishes utterly under this treatment, and becomes a soft, vaporous mist of speculation with so much authority as inheres in any tolerably consistent scheme of thought.

Rambles and Studies in Bosnia-Herzegovina and Dalmatia. By Robert Munro. Edinburgh: Wm. Blackwood & Sons. Illustrated. Pp. xx, 395, 8vo.

THE greater part of this volume is devoted to an account of an archæological congress held in Serayevo in August, 1894. The members, under the presidency of Prof. Rudolf Virchow, visited different parts of Bosnia-Herzegovina and the district of Salona, and found this region, which is the borderland between the West and the East, to be extremely rich, not only in historical remains, Roman, mediæval, and Turkish, but also in those of prehistoric times. Mr. Munro does not confine himself to archæology, however, but has much to say that is of general interest about the country and its inhabitants. The scenery of Bosnia impressed him with its beauty as it does every other traveller who comes from the monotonous Hungarian plain into this land of forest-clad mountains, running streams, countless waterfalls, and picturesque villages clinging to crags like clusters of swallows' nests, often with feudal or Turkish castles dominating them. Serayevo, with its hundred minarets and church spires rising from an undulating sea of quaint houses on either precipitous bank of the turbulent Milyatzka, and its framework of hills and distant Alps, excited in him an inexpressible admiration. But all this sylvan beauty is left behind when the traveller, after passing through the defile which the Narenta has cut through the mountains, enters into the Karst or limestone region of southern Herzegovina. Here are endless chains of bleak hills and barren plateaus, with luxuriant tropical vegetation only about some pool or along the banks of the errant rivers which burst full-grown from the hillsides to disappear as mysteriously and finish underground their brief course to the Adriatic.

The provinces differ from other parts of the former Turkish Empire in that the inhabitants are divided, not by race, but by religion. They are practically all Slavs, 670,000 in round numbers belonging to the Orthodox Church, 550,000 being Mohammedans, and 380,000 Roman Catholics. Among the miscellaneous remainder are 10,000 Jews, who, driven by the Moors from Spain centuries ago, still retain the language and some of the customs of home from which they have been so long exiled.

The Mohammedans, who include the nobility, landed gentry, and a large part of the urban population, have a peculiar interest. They are largely the descendants of the heretical sect known as the Bogomiles, who, after three hundred years of bitter persecution, were converted to Mohammedanism at the Turkish conquest. Their Christian origin is shown in various ways. Their tenets, for which some writers regard them as the precursors of the Reformation, "still lurk as secret and sacred traditions among some families." The traces of an ancient Christian ritual, it is said, can be detected in some of their religious services. Christians are admitted to their mosques, and Mr. Munro describes a service attended by him at which the Emperor's birthday was commemorated. They are monogamous, and in certain places their women go unveiled. The great Bosnian lords, or begs, still live in the feudal castles built by their Christian ancestors; they have Slavic names, and can show escutcheons, rolls, and titles of nobility inherited from Christian kings. The sepulchral monuments of the Bogomiles—there are said to be 60,000 of them—on which both the crescent and the cross are often to be found sculptured, are held by all the Mohammedans in deep veneration.

Some travellers have hinted that many of these families are not unwilling to return to their former faith—with little reason, apparently, for the Bosnian Moslems are more ardent followers of the Prophet than the Osmanli, whom they detest because of their laxity in doctrine and practice. Their numbers have increased by 50,000 within the past ten years, and their progress in other directions has been marked. Up to within five or six years, for instance, they have shown little interest in education; but large numbers now enter the elementary schools, the gymnasia, the commercial academies and training college for teachers. In Serayevo there is a college for teaching Mohammedan law, which Mr. Munro found to be completely furnished with "lecture-rooms, dormitories, refectory, bath-rooms, library, council-room, chapel, etc., all constructed on the most approved sanitary principles." Another visitor to this institution saw a copy of 'Jugurtha' and other Latin classics on the rector's table.

The descriptions of the peaceful scenes, the evidences of contentment and prosperity, which met the author's eye wherever he went, make it hard to realize that from time immemorial down to as recent a date as 1878 this land was the theatre of perpetual strife. Every man's hand was literally against his neighbor. Mohammedans and Christians were deadly enemies, but there was a deeper hatred still between Orthodox and Roman Catholic. The Franciscan monk, even, when on his round of pastoral duties, went armed and in a peasant's dress. Every path (there were no roads) was beset by brigands. Outside the walls of the towns neither life nor property was safe. The landlord oppressed his serfs; the rapacious Phanariot clergy robbed their wretched flocks; and the hand of the Turk was heavy on all alike. Repeatedly they strove to throw off this yoke, and in the final struggle in 1875 three thousand villages and hamlets were destroyed, and two hundred thousand men, women, and children were driven to the inhospitable ravines of the Dalmatian Alps, where nearly half of them perished from hunger and exposure. In 1878 the whole people, including even the Spanish Jews, took up arms to resist the Austrian whose rule they dreaded no less than that of the Turk. The attempt was vain, and four pitiful years of military despotism followed. Against this they rebelled in 1882, and though the insurrection was speedily put down, it called the Emperor's attention to their condition. In a moment of inspiration Francis Joseph changed the whole method of government. Baron de Kállay, a Hungarian and the present Imperial Minister of Finance, was made sole ruler of the provinces, with practically unlimited power.

The character and success of this nobleman's administration are but too briefly indicated in Mr. Munro's concluding chapter. His ruling principle has been to substitute local self-government, as far as possible, for the military system, with religious toleration, protection of property rights, equal justice to all classes, and equitable taxation. One ancient custom, alone, has been arbitrarily suppressed, that of carrying arms. "The long guns, ornamental pistols, and damaskeened blades which formerly formed part of every man's personal attire, are now things of the past." Some of the indications of the material prosperity of the country are the great increase in the revenue—50 per cent. in the last five years—the rise in value and amount of all farm products and live stock, the revival of old industries and the creation of new ones, especially in the development of the mineral resources of the land. There are 500 miles of railway and 3,000 miles of highroads. Banks are fast taking the place of the village money-lender, and by a judicious land-purchase scheme 12,000 peasants have bought the farms which they till. Even the desert region of the Karst is being reclaimed by a system of artificial irrigation. Besides model farms in different places for instruction in scientific agriculture, there are 948 elementary schools, three gymnasia, four commercial schools, a training college for teachers, and two seminaries for orthodox and Roman Catholic priests. Apparently not included in these are the Mohammedan college before referred to, and industrial schools in several of the large towns. In Serayevo there is an establishment, with accommodations for fifty scholars, for teaching decorative metal work, and another for weaving carpets, with departments for instruction in dyeing, weaving, and spinning. The Government also supplies the women of the harems with yarns for weaving

silk and cloths. All this has been accomplished, we are given to understand, without incurring a debt, the revenues paying all the expenses of the administration with the exception of those of the Austrian garrisons.

With this industrial and intellectual development, "the principles of law and order have taken a deep hold on the people." In this land, where but recently human life and woman's honor were held in light esteem, crime is now almost unknown. "A child or a maiden," writes E. B Lanin in the *Contemporary*, "might wander in safety from Brod to Metkovitch." And he adds, "During my first visit to Serayevo, two cases of theft in the course of a fortnight exhausted the statistics of crime in this capital." This is a city of nearly 40,000 inhabitants, and the criminals were two Austrian soldiers. So marvellous a change (which can be paralleled in India, however, as in John Nicholson's administration of Bunnoo) is not wholly due to a benevolent despotism. Serayevo, for instance, is governed by a body of twenty-four magistrates, sixteen of whom are "elected by the inhabitants qualified to vote." They are taken from the different religious creeds in proportion to their numerical strength, twelve and the mayor being Mohammedans, six Orthodox, three Catholic, and three Jews. It is difficult to add to these facts any words more appropriate than those with which Mr. Munro closes his suggestive volume. After expressing his astonishment at the "pliability of the people to fall in with the methods of Western civilization in matters of trade and business, while still retaining the purest forms of their hereditary courts of justice, and the complete change of disposition effected in the minds of all classes of the community," he says that Bosnia, a country "which but yesterday was steeped in barbarism, to-day is a model object-lesson to the civilized world."

History of the Horn-Book. By Andrew W. Tuer, F.S.A. In two volumes. London: The Leadenhall Press; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

In two elaborate volumes, with a wealth of illustration, Mr. Tuer has set forth at large what he knows and does not know about the fascinating subject of the Horn-Book. With no wish to belittle the results, we are forced to conclude that the author has ventured into a field of work for which he had not the necessary equipment; and, as a consequence, the portions of the book for which he is responsible are marked by a most curious ignorance, not merely of what, on this subject, may be most properly termed the A B C of knowledge, but even of the manner of arranging the material in such a form as to make available the information the work actually contains. The book is absolutely without sequence, being put together with such a want of order as to make a task to the reader as disconnected and difficult as the horn-book alphabet ever was to youthful abecedarians. Scattered here and there are all the facts gleaned by William Hone and K. R. H. Mackenzie, in their essays on the horn-book, and Dr. Murray has contributed valuable material from the New English Dictionary, but all this is so buried in the author's dissertations on how papyrus, filigree, and rose-headed nails are made; on how the Welsh *ll* should be pronounced, on the handwriting of a correspondent, on a quarrel of the author with an anonymous writer, and other equally irrelevant matter, as to call to mind Falstaff's proportion of a halfpenny's worth of bread to an "intolerable deal of sack." So, too, in the illustrations, the valuable reproductions and "insets," and the really charming print of "Miss Campion," with her horn book, are scattered among a large number of puerile fancy engravings having neither artistic merit nor historical correctness.

The chief defect of the book, aside from this scrap-book method of treatment, is its attempt to differentiate the horn-book proper—that is, the alphabet backed by a board, and faced by a transparent sheet of horn—from all other forms of children's A B C books. Thus the earliest horn-book mentioned is dated 1450, yet a quotation from a fourteenth century MS. in the British Museum—to the effect that

> Quan a chyld to scole xal set be,
> A bok bym is browt
> Naylyd on a brede of tre
> That men callyt an abece—

shows clearly that the horn-book was practically in existence many years earlier, and the mere addition of the protective sheet of horn was too slight a change to justify a separate account of it. To write a satisfactory history of the horn-book, the whole subject of A B C books—primers, rhymed alphabets, and other elementary methods of teaching the alphabet—would have to be treated together, for no clear line of demarcation can be drawn between them.

Had Mr. Tuer but studied these cognate branches, he would not account for the occasional absence of the + at the beginning of the "criss-cross" line, and its occasional replacement by a ¶, to the vagaries, or want of "sorts," of the individual printer, but would know that in primers, horn-books, and rhymed alphabets printed for the Puritan sectaries the cross was always omitted. Thus, Morton, in his 'New English Canaan' (1632), speaks of "a silenced Minister" who came over to New England and brought "a great Bundell of Horne books with him, and careful hee was (good man) to blott out all the crosses of them for feare least the people of the land should become Idolaters." In the same manner the use of a capital U matching the lower-case form (u) is discussed at some length, when, if the subject of the alphabet had been intelligently looked into, the explanation would have appeared very simple. Originally "v" was the sole form for lower-case and (by mere enlargement) for upper-case or capital letter. Naturally, when the new form "u" came into use and the need of a capital was felt, a corresponding enlargement took place, and in its earliest uses only an enlarged "u" is to be found. It has been alleged that the Elzevirs first employed the U in its present form, but this is erroneous, for it is found in books as early as 1529, and books of theirs show both forms of capitals in the same works. So, in England, both were used in the same books till well into the eighteenth century, when the older form gradually disappeared. Had the author but realized the significance of this detail, a very valuable clue would have been given him as to the relative ages of the horn-books. The introduction of a bird into the centre of the capital O is, we confess, a puzzling matter; but it was common to many other books besides the horn book, and sometimes two straight lines were used instead of the other symbol. Probably it was a relic of the early illuminators; but as the author's theory supplies a very typical example of his methods, we quote what he has to say on the subject:

"It is probable that the symbolic O in the horn-book is a play upon the word 'Drake.' In Queen Elizabeth's reign flourished Sir Francis—El Draco, the dragon—and the historian, Arthur Duck. Other Ducks and Drakes there were in plenty, amongst them a physician, author, satirist, antiquary, and poet, but they were of later broods. In what earlier form this initial O was used may yet perhaps be traced, but in the horn-book it probably conveyed no special meaning, and was intended simply as an ornament. There is, of course, the bare possibility that the printer may have meant the teacher to accept his duck as a dove, hoping that he would prove complacent because of the opportunity afforded of evolving mildly interesting discourses touching the animals which filed into the Ark. Though no English child was ever gammoned into believing that bird to be aught but a quack quack, its presence may have helped to sell the horn-book."

Yet it must be confessed that, in spite of all defects, Mr. Tuer's work contains a large amount of valuable material, and so far as it is a record of all known horn-books, is a most meritorious labor. It has been prepared with an utter disregard of cost, and is in many ways a beautiful piece of bookmaking. Actual reproductions of several horn-books are "let in" to pockets in the covers, and are capital pieces of workmanship. Every important specimen is reproduced in half-tone, and every mention of the horn-book is included, even to the barest allusions, while Hornby's poem is reproduced entire. Had Mr. Tuer's antiquarian knowledge and literary self-restraint but equalled his evident ability to work, he would have produced an admirable compilation, instead of merely the materials for one.

Biographical Sketches of the Graduates of Yale College. With Annals of the College History. Vol. 2. May, 1745–May, 1763. By Franklin Bowditch Dexter, M.A. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

A long interval of eleven years separates this volume from the first; none too long, one thinks, in view of the "other occupations" which have been the industrious author's nearest duty. The entire period falls within President Clap's incumbency, and is marked off at the beginning by the going into force of the new charter, and at the close by final successful resistance to "the attempt to subject its [the College's] constitution and management to the varying will of a popular Assembly." The graduates of these years necessarily, such as survived, had to face the Revolution, and as a pretty large proportion were Episcopalians, either clergy or laymen, their fortunes are to be traced in a Tory connection. The persecutions of this class are offset, in one instance, by the sufferings in Nova Scotia of a sympathizer with the Revolution who had been called to minister to a Congregational church in Cornwallis. Judge Thomas Jones, whose surcharged posthumous 'History of New York during the Revolutionary War' caused a rattling of the dry bones of our patriotic complacency some seventeen years ago, is one of the more prominent of the Tory graduates; Bishop Seabury perhaps the most prominent. On the patriot side there is comparatively little distinction. Ezra Stiles, future president of the college, and Silas Deane are best known; the latter receiving at Mr. Dexter's hands a vindication in accord with Franklin's tribute to his colleague. There are two signers of the Declaration. For the rest, these men of the eighteenth century (one third clergymen) are illustrious rather in their posterity than in themselves, and among them we find the ancestors of Gideon Granger,

"Peter Parley," Benjamin Silliman, Gen. Theodore Lyman, Mark Hopkins, D. Huntington, Horatio Greenough, Lyman Trumbull, and that amusing rascal Stephen Burroughs. One Buell (by an odd coincidence of name) had for his half brother Noah Grant, great-grandfather of the General and President; and the Rev. John Cleaveland was second cousin to the Rev. Aaron Cleveland (Harvard, 1735), from whom descends our present chief magistrate. The family trait crops out in the Yale Cleaveland, who was suspended and then expelled for "violating the laws of the Colony and the College" by attending "Separatist" meetings in his home town with his parents, and refusing to acknowledge wrongdoing, and whose clerical obituarist thus commemorated him: "Tho' of a mild spirit, he was decided in his opinions; tho' gentle in his manner, he was independent in his conduct."

The brief Annals in which Mr. Dexter gives the physiognomy of each college year open with the formidable new body of laws, with their prohibition of attendance at religious meetings not appointed by the public authorities or approved by the College, and provision for expulsion for heresy, and exaction from President and tutor of open consent, "in the college hall," to the Westminster Confession before entering on office. In 1753, assent to the Westminster catechism, the Saybrook Confession and Platform was demanded, with a full examination of every occupant of the Professorship of Divinity—tests never exacted at Harvard, as Mr. Dexter points out, and wholly unprecedented in this country. All these hedges against free-thinking did not prevent the Rev. John Huntington (Y. C., 1762) from leaving behind him a 'Calvinism Improved; or, the Gospel illustrated as a System of Real Grace, issuing in the Salvation of All Men' (New London, 1796), whose publication after his death "caused consternation among the author's friends, and the greater part of the edition was destroyed by one of his daughters." Mr. Dexter, who has done more than merely transcribe the titles in his bibliography of each graduate, thinks it unmistakable that this heretic thought he could reconcile Universalism with "most of the Calvinistic doctrines." The titles, by the way, of the publications on trade and finance of Pelatiah Webster (Y. C., 1746) seem to justify our editor's opinion of their importance as a contribution to the commercial literature of the country. They might repay examination and quotation now.

Apart from the Annals, there is not much savor in this large and handsome volume. Mr. Dexter's conscientiousness in recording the facts, creditable or otherwise, regarding the subjects of his sketches, leads one to believe that he has made the most of his material. He permits us to smile at the estate of Hurlbut, merchant, class of 1757, "valued at only £79—the largest item being 'A Negro Girl Cate. £30'" He records, under Sherwin, class of 1759, the giving of a lot in Sunderland, Vt., for the support of the pastor who should be first settled. Two churches were formed in different parts of the town, and a race began to secure a prior claim to the land. Mr. Sherman's settlement was adjudged by the courts to have been two minutes ahead. The Rev. Joseph Sumner (Y. C., 1759), sermonizing in 1812, and speculating on the next fifty years, doubts if the Federal Union will last half that time, and dates the millennium from 1866, or the first full year of the new Union. Whitefield, reaching New Haven in December, 1754, "At Even . . . made a Visit to the President, who treated him much like a Gentleman," according to a contemporary account. "It is pleasant to learn," says Mr. Dexter himself (in phraseology which would distress Tolstoyan Christians), that to the public contribution to meet the extraordinary war expenses of the year, "collected in the several parishes throughout the colony on Sunday, March 20, 1759," the College congregation gave £18.

We will close with noting two errata not pointed out in the list on p. 788. On p. 586, in the second paragraph, the town of Harvard should be located northwest of Boston, not "northeast"; and in the first line on p. 724 the "of" following "measures" must certainly stand for *or*.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 20, 1896.

The Week.

MR. ELLIOT DANFORTH, who was chosen to preside over the Bryan notification meeting on Wednesday of last week, was once Treasurer of this State and ex-officio a member of the State Board of Canvassers. While he held these offices, a contested election case in Dutchess County came before the board, consisting of two returns, the Mylod return and the Emans return. The Supreme Court and Court of Appeals successively forbade the board to canvass the former; but when Maynard made his celebrated theft of the latter, they canvassed the illegal return in defiance of the court's order, excusing themselves by saying there was no other before them. For this offence, which changed the political complexion of the State Legislature, Mr. Danforth and his associates were held guilty of a deliberate contempt of the highest court of New York, and heavily fined. As the opinion of the Court of Appeals puts it, they did "the very thing which the issuance of the writ was intended to absolutely prevent, and thus contemned and defeated the will of the court." It is singularly fitting that Mr. Danforth should have been dragged forth into conspicuousness once more, to give the sanction of his reputation for defiance of judicial authority to a meeting advocating the degradation of all courts, and the creation of a millennium where no ardent soul shall be cramped and confined by the despotism of "government by injunction."

We have now had Mr. Bryan in two characters—that of a demagogue and that of a solemn economist. If anything could make us prefer the former rôle, it would be his performance of the latter. His conception of the demagogue's part was very poor. All his undignified, slap-you-on-the-back, hired-man style of haranguing the crowds showed him very inexpert in the art. The truly great demagogues never thus vulgarly let themselves down to the level of the mob. Bryan's coarse and careless joking about the post-offices he was going to distribute next year was a fearful blunder for him to make, such as the stupidest Presidential candidate on record was never capable of making. But all these misconceptions of his rôle are as nothing compared with the gross, the incredible ignorance he displayed when he essayed the character of profound economist. His references to savings banks and life-insurance companies are alone enough to rank him in the booby class in business. United States Senators could not have displayed grosser ignorance. To meet the objection that, under free silver, life-insurance policies would be worth only half their face value, he asserts that the gold standard, on the other hand, increases the profits of "the companies" at the expense of the policy-holders. Does Mr. Bryan know, or does he not know, that nearly every life-insurance company is a mutual concern, and that all the profits go, and necessarily go, to the benefit of the policy-holders? A wise man from Nebraska delivering himself in this fashion in New York is not merely, as he says, in an "enemy's country," but in what is evidently for him an absolute *terra incognita*. His remark about the savings banks finding it increasingly difficult under the gold standard to "collect their assets," perhaps means something to his mind, but to others it must remain wholly unintelligible. In all this sad floundering Mr. Bryan shows how much out of his sphere he is as an economist. He would do much better to stick to his crown of thorns and his cross of gold.

The curious fact that the only debtors worth considering by the Popocrats are those who cannot or do not pay, had been remarked before Mr. Bryan made his Madison Square Garden speech; and he did not fail to illustrate it. "It is sometimes asserted by our opponents," he remarks, "that a bank belongs to the debtor class; *but this is not true of any solvent bank.*" Observe that in Mr. Bryan's understanding the word debtor means bankrupt. It follows that the phrase debtor class means the bankrupt class. Substitute the latter phrase for the former, and it will be seen that all the pother that has been kicked up, during all these years, is about the exceedingly small number (only a few thousand per year) who are reported by Bradstreet and Dun, Barlow & Co. as actually insolvent. Nobody can be considered a debtor if his assets exceed his liabilities.

Mr. Sewall formally accepted at the Madison Square Garden his nomination as Democratic candidate for Vice-President on the same ticket with Mr. Bryan. Mr. Watson, the Populist candidate for Vice-President on the same ticket with Mr. Bryan, has just issued another pronunciamiento, denouncing Mr. Sewall as "a millionaire national banker and corporation king, who represents nothing Populists advocate," and as "the typical Eastern plutocrat." A more curious situation has never been seen in our politics. We have had splits in parties before, notably when the Democrats in 1860 divided their votes between Douglas and Breckinridge. But in every case where a new ticket has been put in the field, it has been new as to both the Presidency and the Vice-Presidency. This year, for the first time, we have two parties nominating the same man for the Presidency and two different men for the Vice-Presidency. These two men, moreover, are as far apart as the poles in character, affiliations, and inclinations, and neither takes any pains to conceal the contempt that he feels for the other. The situation only serves to emphasize the hodge-podge nature of the Populist party. The truth is, that it is not a party in the ordinary sense of the term.

The cancelling of Bryan's engagement for a tour through "the provinces," with several performances in Maine, is a confession by his managers of the failure of his trip to the East. His withdrawal from the stump will be sad news to the Republicans, for he has been losing votes every day that he talked, and he was the most effective orator for the Republican side who could be employed. The folly of allowing him to go to Maine and make a lot of speeches which might be followed by a large Republican majority at the State election next month, was so obvious that even less wise men than those who are managing the Democratic canvass must see it. With Bryan in retirement the next feature in the campaign will be McKinley's letter of acceptance, which ought to appear during the next two or three weeks. Bryan, too, threatens to write a letter of acceptance, in addition to the frightfully long written speech which he read in this city on August 12. He has nominally been an editor, but he evidently never mastered the art of "boiling down." If he expects the people to read, or even the newspapers to print, his letter of acceptance, he must "cut it short." McKinley, by the way, should learn wisdom in this respect from Bryan's experience.

It is gratifying to see that Mr. McKinley is becoming more and more outspoken concerning the true issue before the nation. In his address on Wednesday week to the survivors of his old regiment he barely referred to the tariff, but spoke with the greatest force, and we believe with genuine conviction, concerning the maintenance of the credit of the country. He reminded his hearers that Lincoln declared that every dollar of the paper money issued during the war should be made as good as gold, and that President Hayes executed that promise in the resumption of specie payments in 1879. The "70,000,000 of people" argument, which appears to be now Mr. Bryan's sole stock in trade, Mr. McKinley turned forcibly against him, by declaring that these 70,000,000 "mean to keep this government and its honor and integrity and credit unquestioned." He might have added that they will do this without the consent of

any foreign power; but, having some respect for the intelligence of his hearers, he did not advance this consideration. We should be sincerely glad to have Mr. McKinley dwell in future speeches on those utterances of Washington which he repeated on the same occasion. Washington, he said, told us over and over again that there was nothing so important to preserve as the nation's honor; that the most important source of strength was the public credit, and that the best method of preserving it was to use it as sparingly as possible. That last proposition is a political platform in itself, and the fact that Mr. McKinley quotes it may signify a good deal. All our troubles are due to a disregard of its warning. We have used the public credit, not sparingly, but lavishly, and strained it nearly to the breaking-point. We have used it to sustain the silver dollars and the paper dollars, and if it is to be preserved hereafter we must lighten its burdens. It is hardly to be supposed that Mr. McKinley has gone so far as to formulate a policy for a more sparing use of the public credit; but if he is spending his time in studying the views of the founders of the government, we may accept the omen as a happy one.

It is very significant that no interest whatever is taken in the question whether the Chicago platform really contains a declaration that silver dollars shall not be made a legal tender in satisfaction of existing contracts for payment in gold. The official stenographer of the convention certifies that Senator Hill's amendment to this effect was adopted; Mr. Richardson of Tennessee, who was presiding at the time, declares that it was not, and nobody cares which is right. The members of the convention hooted at the idea of giving the matter any consideration whatever. It is true that the United States Supreme Court, "as at present constituted," would require debtors to pay gold dollars when they had promised to pay gold dollars. But it is the Supreme Court "as hereafter to be constituted" that the Popocrats are counting on. If they can command a majority for free silver coinage, they can command a majority for a bill increasing the number of justices of the Supreme Court; and the best evidence of this is the total indifference of the country to the question what the Chicago platform really says.

Very little sympathy will be wasted on the cabal of anti-Cleveland United States Senators whose course in the last few years is really accountable for the delivery of the Democratic organization into the hands of the silver Populists at Chicago. Nothing has been more evident for a long time than that thwarting the President was a more important object with these men than the passage of any legislation which would benefit the country—and so, necessarily, their own party—so long as this legislation was in line with the President's recommendations. Failing to "run the Administration" in the distribution of the spoils during Mr. Cleveland's first term, they got together to defeat his public aims as soon as he entered office the second time. Their failure in their efforts to thwart the repeal of the Sherman silver bill only increased the venom of their opposition, and when they put the new tariff bill through in a shape which rendered it impossible for the President to sign it, they thought that they had him "down." They imagined that their triumph was complete when their national convention trampled all Cleveland principles into the dust. But, with the campaign not yet fairly under way, these conspirators see themselves hustled over the breastworks with as little ceremony as they have shown their party opponents. Senator Jones is scoffed at by all the faithful Bryanites, berated by the stricter Populists, and not even allowed to have his say as to the place of the Bryan headquarters. Senator Gorman is put to the humiliation of seeing the headquarters set up in Chicago—for one reason so as to be as far as possible from Maryland—and is denied a place on the Bryan campaign committee. And the rest of the crowd who cried so lustily at Chicago for free silver, Bryan, and all the other outcomes of that convention—Vest, Bate, Cockrell, Harris, etc.—find their wishes and influence of equally little avail. Democratic defeat this year and all the business losses that the free-silver cloud is causing will be more than recompensed if the campaign of 1896 opens the eyes of the people to the real character of this Senate cabal, and purges that body of the men whose presence there has wrecked their party and put a check on the material progress of the whole country.

The Kansas Republicans have had a pretty hard job "getting in line" with the national platform of their party this year. All political organizations in that State have yielded to the silver craze during the last few years. In 1892 the Republican platform "urged the passage of such laws as will increase the coinage of silver, looking to the coinage of the production of our own mines as soon as it can be done without injury to the business interests of the country." In 1894 the platform declared that "the interests of the producers of the country, its farmers and its workingmen, demand that the mints be opened to the coinage of silver of the mines of the United States, and that Congress should enact a law levying a tax on importation of foreign silver sufficient to fully protect the products of our own mines." This was the next thing to a declaration in favor of free coinage, and some of the Republican candidates for Congress advocated unrestricted coinage. The silver plank in the St. Louis platform was consequently a severe shock, but the Republican State convention last week showed that the party has "braced up." Besides endorsing the national platform as a whole, the convention adopted two additional resolutions, one of which declared that the Republicans of Kansas "believe in sound money," which was defined as meaning that they "favor the use of gold and silver and paper in the largest measure possible consistent with the maintenance of the equal debt-paying and purchasing power of all our money"; while the other and more important resolution read as follows:

> "We are opposed to the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 by this country alone, because it means silver monometallism, a debased currency, and the destruction of our national credit."

The first thing in the shape of a test of public sentiment will come with the State election in Vermont on the first Tuesday in September, though that will be less important than the corresponding election in Maine on the second Monday of the same month. The Republicans are at a disadvantage in each State by reason of having a candidate for Governor who is personally objectionable to many in the party, and, if the contest occurred midway in a Presidential term, the ticket would suffer from this cause. As it is, however, the personal element will not count for much, nor will considerations of State affairs. Voters will cast their ballots according to their feelings regarding the silver issue. The indications are altogether favorable to good Republican majorities in each State. Maine has long been the one weak spot on the financial question in the whole East, and the success of the Fusionists in the September election of 1880 showed that surprises are always possible, but nobody can now see any reason to expect a repetition of that experience. The Democrats are split on the silver issue this year, and the Populists are running a candidate of their own, while the Republicans seem united, and under such conditions they ought to carry the State by the 15,000 to 20,000 majority which Chairman Manley of their State committee says that they expect.

The canvass for the Republican State convention is closing amid charges and counter-charges of fraud and corruption, on the part of the various factions and of the rival candidates for Governor, which seem to be well founded. A more disgraceful prostitution of the civil service of the State to political and personal ends has never been seen than the open and shameless manner in which Superintendent Aldridge of the Public Works Department is using the canal force to elect delegates in favor of his nomination as Governor. The squabble on Saturday over the control of the convention in

Warner Miller's county was most disgraceful. As regards the State at large, the Platt machine has evidently secured an overwhelming majority of the delegates, as was to have been expected. A report is current that Miller, Mi holland, and some of their allies will nominate another Republican State ticket if the Platt men shall control the convention. But even Miller and Milholland are hardly capable of such a performance. A bolt, in order to amount to anything, must have some character and principle behind it. The fact that the bolters did not succeed in electing as many delegates as they think they ought to have had, is not enough.

The recent action of a teachers' institute in Indiana is as amusing as it is instructive. Although many of the teachers were Democrats, the institute decided without a division that it should be stipulated in all contracts made between the trustees and the teachers that the teachers' wages should be paid in gold or its equivalent. It is said that this resolution was adopted "in no partisan spirit," which seems altogether probable. But we should have been glad to have the institute make it plain whether there was anything peculiar in the situation of teachers requiring that such a stipulation should be inserted only in *their* contracts for wages. What would the institute have said, for instance, to a resolution providing that in all contracts for the erection of schoolhouses, for the supply of school-books, and for the furnishing of fuel and lights for school purposes, a gold clause should be introduced? And of course it would have been necessary to resolve that all laborers employed in building schoolhouses, or making school-books, or producing coal that might be burned in a schoolhouse stove, were also entitled to have their wages paid on a gold basis. To make matters complete, the resolution should explain why every one else has not the same claim as teachers have to be paid in money of the present value; and it might incidentally call attention to the fact that the Chicago platform proposes to forbid the making of such contracts by teachers or any one else.

A correspondent asks us the question, "what kind of money the existing public creditors purchased their bonds with." The answer is that they were purchased with gold. Every outstanding bond was issued since the act of 1873 was passed demonetizing silver, and every such bond was sold at "not less than their par value for coin." It is worth mentioning that all the bonds ever issued by the United States Government which came to maturity have been paid in gold or the equivalent of gold. Even those that were bought with greenbacks worth only 40 cents on the dollar were so paid. Why? Because the Government could not honestly pay one piece of paper with another piece of paper without the consent of the creditor. That would be simply an exchange of evidences of debt without providing for the interest — a method of "payment" which even Wilkins Micawber scorned.

It has been evident for some time that Russia was preparing to take herself out of the ruck of silver-standard countries, the only question being how and when she would plant herself squarely on the gold standard. The first step was taken some months ago with the issuing of a ukase authorizing the making of contracts in gold rubles. Up to that time the law had recognized only the silver ruble. Of course, the real currency was the depreciated paper money, the Bank of Russia having refused for more than thirty years to redeem its notes even in silver. But silver was the legal standard, and all contracts, engagements, agreements had to conform thereto. The change admitting gold contracts was officially explained as intended only to do away with some of the evils of a depreciated paper currency being a legal tender, but the steady acquisition of gold by Russia and subsequent legislation show plainly enough where she is headed. Another ukase has been promulgated (published in the *Cote Libre* of Brussels August 6), still further extending the right to make gold contracts, recognizing the paper currency as a legal tender only at its gold value on the day payment is made, and authorizing the Minister of Finance to draw up rules and regulations for the payment of taxes in gold or in paper currency at its gold value. This is practically, it will be seen, the adoption of the gold standard. What to do with the mass of depreciated paper, what place to give the silver coinage, are only matters of detail. Thus the last remaining great European power has yielded to the cosmic process, as Huxley would have called it, and dropped silver. But this, of course, will furnish Bryan a powerful argument for our taking it up and making common cause with Chinese and Dagoes.

The reply made by Mr. Balfour in the House of Commons on Friday to Sir William Harcourt in reference to the Venezuelan question is very encouraging, and will be received on this side of the water with as much satisfaction as it was in the House where it was given. He said that the Government had every reason to hope for an early settlement of the dispute. Sir William Harcourt's inquiry was whether the proposal contained in Secretary Olney's dispatch of June 12 had removed the difficulties in the way of a settlement, and whether the boundary dispute might now be submitted to arbitration. Mr. Olney's dispatch of June 12 contained a clause to meet the contention of Lord Salisbury that the territory in actual occupation of British subjects should not be submitted to arbitration. Mr. Olney's alternative proposition was that it should be stipulated that in case the arbitrators should find that territory belonging to one party was in actual occupation of the other, the fact of such occupation and settlement should be given such weight and effect as reason, justice, and international law require. It is most gratifying that this door has been availed of (if it has been), and that the dispute may be regarded as approaching an amicable settlement. It must be said, however, that the public mind is now so absorbed with more momentous questions that Venezuelan affairs receive very scant attention. The question whether we are to adopt a depreciated currency, repudiate half of our debts, and plunge trade and industry into infinite turmoil, the end of which no man can foresee, so far overtops the affairs of Venezuela that most people who ever had any knowledge of the Schomburgk line have now lost it. It cannot be said that the loss is serious.

The German Liberal party, which achieved its most notable triumphs at the beginning of the constitutional era in Austria, has succumbed to the forces now dominant in Cisleithania. As a parliamentary power the United Left has practically ceased to exist; but an attempt is being made to reunite its most prominent members in a new "German-Progressive" party, which is to be much more uncompromising in its opposition to Slavic and Clerical pretensions than its predecessor proved itself to be under Taaffe and Badeni. The new party will, however, face a Reichsrath reinforced, under the new electoral law, by seventy-two additional members, not one of whom is likely to be a Liberal, and it will certainly be numerically weaker than was the coalition of Liberal elements which made it possible for Count Badeni to carry out his various reform measures. That the United Left had outlived its usefulness was made evident by the desertion of its most eminent leaders, like Plener and Suess, who could no longer support the vacillating policy of the present Premier. Count Badeni entered office nearly a year ago with a reputation for firmness which his performances since have sadly belied. He first gained the good will of the Liberals by his opposition to anti-Semitism, but he soon made concessions to Feudalists and Clericals in order to gain their support for his electoral reform. The United Left grudgingly followed him until he summoned Dr. Lueger before the Emperor, and practically surrendered to the leader of the anti-Semites. The Socialists are likely to profit by the disintegration of the Liberal party, and to be more numerously represented in the next Reichsrath than they ever were before.

WHY BRYAN FAILED.

THAT considerable anxiety was felt about the possible effect of Mr. Bryan's Madison Square Garden speech, cannot be denied. We, for our part, thought that the anxiety was baseless, as the nature of the case did not admit of a great personal or political triumph. But whatever the nervousness was in advance among honest-money men, it is all dispelled now. The very tension they were under makes their relief all the greater. In place of vague fear, inextinguishable laughter has come. Mr. Bryan has broken his prestige, and broken it fatally, as it now appears. He has already weighted himself with the terrible political handicap of having made himself ridiculous. For a man who was going to witch the East with his oratory, to have failed so disastrously at his first appearance that his managers have had to lay violent hands on him and order him to speak no more, he has made a disheartening beginning. What was the cause of the huge fiasco?

In the first place, Mr. Bryan's undertaking was essentially theatric. It was an unprecedented thing for a candidate to journey fifteen hundred miles to be notified of his nomination. Mr. Cleveland was, indeed, notified in Madison Square Garden, but he was in his own State and city. For a Nebraskan to come to the same spot was an open and obvious appeal to the spectacular. Now in the theatrical world ambitious and much-advertised performances of this sort have to be great and instantaneous successes, or else they are tremendous failures. In attempting what he did, Mr. Bryan was bound to achieve the most brilliant success, or to lose everything. A moderate attainment would not do; recognition must be immediate and hearty, the applause uproarious, or the whole play was ruined. Whether he could have won, by other tactics, so much as a *succès d'estime*, we need not discuss, but the fact is undoubted that the piece, as given, was hopelessly damned. The claque could not save it. The managers have promptly accepted the popular verdict and withdrawn it. In reaching out for a grand triumph, Mr. Bryan has but made his failure spectacular in the last degree.

One explanation of his disaster lies undoubtedly in his sudden change of rôle. A comedian sometimes essays heavy tragedy, but he does it at enormous risk. Especially is it fatal if he leaves the audience in ignorance, and lets them think it is a comedy they are going to witness. The Madison Square audience felt not only disappointed but tricked. They had been led to expect a sort of Buffalo Bill show. The dashing cowboy they had heard such tales of, they would have laughed at for his free Western sallies and audacities; but to have him startlingly transformed into a Professor Dryasdust, prosing through two mortal hours, this was too much. No wonder that they fled before his portentous pile of manuscript with cries of "Good-night, Billy!"

Mr. Bryan's theory undoubtedly was that he would disarm Eastern prejudice and disabuse the public as to his personality. The Boy-Orator business was all very well for the Platte River or Chicago, but the conservative East, he suspected, would not go daft over that sort of exuberant rashness in a candidate for the Presidency. So he would reveal himself to the astonished gaze of New Yorkers as a profound student, a careful investigator, even as a man with the saving grace of dulness. He has let it be no secret that in this he expected to do for himself what Lincoln did for himself in his Cooper Union speech. Before Lincoln spoke in New York, many people thought of him only as a rough-and-ready Western lawyer, with a talent for story-telling. In Cooper Union he showed himself the sinewy reasoner, the well-equipped thinker, the far-seeing statesman he was. Mr. Bryan, in Madison Square Garden, would in like manner show that he was no flighty youth, but a strong and serious man.

Now the trouble with all this is that vulgar opinion in the East was wrong about Mr. Lincoln, but right about Mr. Bryan. Lincoln had to make no sudden change of character in his Cooper Union speech. It displayed his powerful intellect, his saturation with our constitutional history, and his grasp of principle, but not more so than his speeches in Illinois of two years before. He was really here the same man he was there. But Mr. Bryan had to force a sea-change upon himself. He had to give over his native style of popular haranguer and skilful performer on the instrument of vulgar prejudice, and assume virtues which he had not. How absolutely in a strange and unrealized world he was wandering appears from the merest casual reading of his dreary columns. The most glaring self-contradictions, the grossest blunders in matters of fact, the emptiest platitudes and vaguest assertions, leap out to declare their author a man not accustomed to weigh his words, impatient of study and ignorant of his subject.

But the greatest difference, after all, and the truest reason of Mr. Bryan's downfall, is the fact that Lincoln could appeal to the patriotic instinct and the sense of national honor, while his foolish young imitator has to argue for the cause of private dishonesty and public disgrace. That cause would be desperate in the hands of Webster himself, if we can conceive his piercing mind caught for an instant by the free-silver sophistries. In Mr. Bryan's hands, the case becomes not only desperate but ridiculous. It is our great salvation that the free-silver logic is such a mass of absurdities and self-contradictions. It is our great good fortune that these have all been so stupidly collected and fathered by Mr. Bryan. A giant in dialectics, the most skilful adept in making the worse appear the better reason, could not argue the free-silver cause in a way to stand secure against the battering of three months' discussion before the American people. The Boy Orator has not only uncovered its and his own nakedness, but has made it and himself an object of mirth to all the people. American humor casts an enormous vote, and Mr. Bryan's spectacular failure has arrayed it solidly against his candidacy.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S SPEECH.

SENATOR SHERMAN can make a good speech when he tries to do so. His speech at Columbus on Saturday was one of the best he has ever made. It comes at the right time to secure close attention. It carries the authority of the foremost Republican Senator, and will therefore secure the widest publicity and most careful reading. It contains some matter which, if not entirely new, is new to forensic debate, and is therefore especially attractive, and it presents the old matter appertaining to the silver controversy in a very cogent way. Coming on the heels of Bryan's dismal failure in Madison Square Garden, it will be more effective than it would be without that opportune contrast.

Mr. Sherman presents with great force the historical fact that the statesmen who framed the coinage laws of 1834 and 1853 intended to introduce the single gold standard, and supposed that they were doing so when they passed those laws. This is proved by the language they used. The first of these laws was the one which changed the mint ratio of silver and gold, which had formerly been 15 to 1, to 16 to 1. Why was so radical a change made? The French legal ratio was 15.50 and the market ratio in this country was not far from that figure. If the purpose of the statesmen of 1834 had been to keep bimetallism in force, they would assuredly have adopted the French ratio. There was every reason why they should do so. Why did they not? The answer is found in the words of the House committee that reported the bill, which Mr. Sherman quotes:

> "The committee think that the desideratum in the monetary system is a standard of uniform value; they cannot ascertain that both metals have ever circulated simultaneously, concurrently, and indiscriminately in any country where there are banks or money dealers, and they entertain the conviction that the nearest approach to an invariable standard is its establishment in one metal, which metal shall compose exclusively the currency for large payments."

If this was the intention of the statesmen of the period of Jackson, Benton, Van Buren, Webster, Clay, and Calhoun (and we have never had a brighter galaxy), why did they not put it into law once for all? The answer is that they had not yet learned how to make a token coinage of silver as we do now, and they feared that they might not have any small change. This lesson in the science of

money was very slow in impressing itself on the nations of the earth. England did not learn it till 1816. We did not learn it till 1853. France did not learn it till 1864. Our small change prior to 1853 consisted mostly of foreign coins, principally Spanish and Mexican, which circulated at their metallic value, but our statesmen did not consider it quite safe to rely on foreign coins exclusively for that purpose. Moreover, there were some private contracts in existence payable specifically in silver. For these reasons silver was not demonetized, although a law was passed which was intended to have the effect of making gold "exclusively the currency for large payments." This was effected by adopting a ratio which overvalued gold sufficiently to drive silver out of circulation, as it did. One ounce of gold was then the equivalent in the market of fifteen and five-eighths ounces of silver, and this was well known to the Congress of 1834. They adopted the ratio of sixteen expressly to force silver out of circulation. It was a bulky, inconvenient currency, and it promoted the circulation of banknotes, which the Democrats of that day, and Jackson *par éminence*, wanted to get rid of. This explains the "crime of 1834," as Mr. Sherman ironically describes it.

The crime of 1853 was very much like it. After the passage of the law of 1834 our silver coins rapidly passed out of circulation. Foreign ones came in to supply the needs of small change, because our small silver coins were of corresponding weight with the dollar. There was the same profit in melting and exporting two halves, or four quarters, or ten dimes, as a whole dollar, because they yielded the same quantity of bullion. The foreign coins, however, were much abraded from long use, and each possessor tried to pass off the lightest ones rather than the best, and this led to frequent disputes. The evil grew with the lapse of time. There was no way to control the circulation of these "smooth" foreign coins unless the public were provided with better ones. The purpose of the act of 1853, which, as Mr. Sherman says, was passed by a Congress Democratic in both branches, and signed by a Democratic President, was thus stated by the chairman of the committee which presented the bill to the House:

> "We propose, so far as those coins are concerned, to make silver subservient to the gold coin of the country. We intend to do what the best writers on political economy have approved; what experience, where the experiment has been tried, has demonstrated to be the best, and what the committee believes to be necessary and proper—to make but one standard of currency and to make all others subservient to it. *We mean to make gold the standard coin.*"

The question may be asked, Why did they not go on and complete their work and actually demonetize the silver dollar? They may have thought that the silver dollar, which was then worth 4.26 cents more than the gold dollar, would never again be so low in price that it could circulate alongside of gold, as this was the time when the great outpour of the placer mines of California and Australia was taking place. Whatever the reason may have been, their intention cannot be doubted. It was to make gold the single standard, with a subsidiary coinage of silver.

The action taken in 1834 and in 1853 was initiated and carried through by the Democratic party. Mr. Sherman is justified in saying that "from 1801, when Mr. Jefferson became President, to the close of Buchanan's Administration in 1861, the Democratic party was a gold party, opposed to silver and all forms of paper money." It was not until the chance presented itself of repudiating nearly one-half of all debts, public and private, that this party, at the instigation of the Southern Populists, reversed the policy which it had pursued for three-quarters of a century.

SOME FACTS ABOUT SHIPPING.

THE spectacle of a candidate for an office among the highest in the gift of a great people conducting a campaign for a monopoly in his own business, is not edifying. It is still less so when the reasons put forward in support of his scheme are analyzed, for they show a painful confusion of ideas. To build ships is, he claims, his object; yet that industry has been as highly protected by our tariff and navigation laws as the most ardent believer in paternal government could desire. To sail ships is another matter; and if Mr. Sewall and his associates secure their primary object, a tremendous pressure for shipping bounties may be expected. The mere possession of ships does not mean marine power; it is the employment that counts.

The relative commercial importance of the leading ports of the world may be measured by the movement of shipping in them. Certain facts are generally recognized, such as that the United Kingdom has a commercial fleet, both steam and sail, larger than that of any other nation; that Norway has a sailing fleet second in size to that of England, and is a very important factor in the carrying trade of every commercial power; that Spain is strong in steam vessels, but weak in sailing-ships; that Italy has a stronger sailing-fleet than steam; and finally that the merchant marine of the United States engaged in foreign trade is very small compared with our commercial importance. If the merchant marine of the great shipping powers be ranged according to their importance, the result is as follows:

STEAM.	Tons.	SAIL.	Tons.
United Kingdom	5,964,000	United Kingdom	2,962,000
Germany	893,046	Norway	1,452 276
France	491,972	Germany	660,856
Spain	479,746	United States	586,149
United States	252,045	Italy	571,605
Norway	237,135	France	398,567

What is less generally known is the distribution of shipping movement in the ports of the various countries and the increase in a stated period, say of ten years. A special study of the subject made in the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department suggests many interesting comparisons. Some of these, based upon the aggregate of entrances and clearances of shipping, will be outlined.

No less than eight ports give a yearly movement of more than 10,000,000 tons, where only two gave such a high figure ten years ago. These ports so distinguished are:

	Year.	No. vessels.	Tons.
London	1894	14,042	14,483,580
New York	1895	8,459	13,188,085
Hamburg	1894	17,484	12,505,735
Constantinople	1893	17,876	11,638,735
Liverpool	1894	7,279	10,489,578
Hong Kong	1894		10,469,182
Cardiff	1894	10,728	10,458,891
Antwerp	1894	9,512	10,075,928

In efficiency of fleet the order will be very different. New York shows the highest return, for the average tonnage of each vessel was 1,560.3 tons. Liverpool is not far below this figure, with 1,441 tons to the vessel, and Antwerp with 1,059 tons closes the list of those having averages above 1,000 tons. Even Cardiff is ahead of London, having 975 tons against London's 800, but no other of the ports named exceeds London. Thus New York, among the great ports, stands first in an organized and highly developed shipping, where the highest tonnage is concentrated in the relatively smallest number of vessels. In another respect New York proves its increasing efficiency. The average tonnage per vessel for this port in 1885 (1,006 tons) was exceeded only by that of Liverpool (1,110 tons); yet after a period of ten years New York shows the higher average, and appears to have distanced all its rivals. By another standard of measuring importance, the relative increase of tonnage in ten years, a third arrangement is developed. Hamburg leads with an increase of 70.88 per cent., Constantinople is second with 64 per cent., and Cardiff is third with 50 per cent. Liverpool gives the least advance (5 per cent.), while New York and London give nearly the same result—20.5 in the one case, and 19.8 in the other. Hong Kong and Antwerp occupy a middle ground, the former having increased 35 per cent., and the latter 48 per cent.

It is easy to explain in every case why the increased activity in shipping should be so distributed. London is the great centre of imports ($688,395,000 in 1894); and from Liverpool are exported British products and manufactures greater in value than the entire export from London. If foreign exports be added to Liverpool's credit, that port becomes the first in rank, sending out in 1894 products to the value of $431,664,243, and London $370,837,485. New York enjoys the eminence of receiving 65 per cent. of the imports and shipping 40 per cent. of the exports of the United States; a share in the foreign commerce which easily explains its high stand

in relation to other ports. Hamburg has always held a high position in shipping—a position explained upon the same grounds as that of Antwerp, both being great receiving and distributing centres. The returns for Constantinople are explained by geographical position. As the only entrance to the Black Sea, and for Russia the only outlet to the southward by water, it must reflect the rapidly increasing importance of the Russian ports—Batum, Odessa, Taganrog, Sebastopol, Nikolaiev, and Kertch, all increasingly important shipping points, and each one of which has more than doubled its entrances and clearances in the last five years. The importance in shipping of Constantinople is as much reflected greatness as is that of Malta or Gibraltar. The coal trade feeds the barge tonnage of Cardiff, about one-third of the total exports of this product being shipped from that port. The eight ports may thus be divided into three classes. In the first, where the commerce is varied and substantial, may be placed London, New York, Hamburg, and Liverpool. In the second, the importance of that trade depends upon a single commodity, and only Cardiff can be placed in this class. In the third belong points where vessels touch, but which receive a comparatively small part of their cargoes. Here may be ranged Constantinople, Hong Kong, and perhaps Antwerp.

The same comparison could be made on a second group of ports, in which the movement of shipping was greater than 5,000,000 tons, viz.: Tyne ports, Rotterdam, Odessa, Marseilles, Lisbon, and Buenos Ayres. One and all depend for commercial importance upon some factor beyond the power of Government to create, but unfortunately not beyond the power of Government to destroy. It is the possession of some great natural wealth like the wheat fields of Argentina and Russia, the iron mines of Spain, the coal of Great Britain, or the manufacturing industries of the Manchester district, that brings shipping and gives them a profitable cargo. Or it is a geographical position that offers a favorable point for first concentrating and then distributing the merchandise movement, serving as great exchanges or entrepots. In no instance, whether it be a port with a large shipping movement, or one of the smallest with nothing but a coastwise trade, can the agency of Government be pointed to as the cause of the movement, unless it has created a monopoly and so discouraged the natural development.

To encourage further than is now done the construction of ships in the United States would be a multiplication of the instruments of commerce where the supply is already sufficient. Apart from the competition with English shipping, the immense and ably handled sailing fleet of Norway must be met, as well as the excellent steam lines of Germany and France. The mere suggestion of Government indirectly engaging in shipbuilding and in ship-sailing, by bounties and discriminating duties, opens up a vista of expense that must be enormous if the policy is to be carried on. The figures quoted show that the shipping service at New York is better in material than that enjoyed by any other port in the world approaching it in volume of trade. It is ridiculous to suppose that the interference of Government can better this situation or increase the advantage now possessed, although it may add to the profits of Mr. Sewall and his associated shipbuilders at the expense of the taxpayers.

THE HONOR AND INTEGRITY CLAUSE.

THE difference between Lord Salisbury and Mr. Olney over what is called in England the "honor and integrity clause," is one which has never before arisen in the history of diplomacy, and which ought to be thoroughly discussed, because it is practically the only obstacle to a general treaty of arbitration covering the whole Anglo-Saxon world—the greatest single advance in civilization which the race now has it in its power to make. There is no serious difficulty about constituting a tribunal, nor is there any reason to suppose that the definition in advance of all probable subjects of arbitration will be insisted on. The real trouble is the idea suggested by Lord Salisbury, and apparently adopted by Mr. Olney, that it should be provided in advance that each nation should reserve the right to withdraw from arbitration any question affecting its national honor or territorial integrity. Is this a good plan, or a necessary part of any such treaty? We think not, first, because "honor" and "territorial integrity" by no means exhaust the subjects which nations may insist on fighting about; second, because the clause, no matter how drawn, is so vague that either nation could bring almost any question it pleased within its terms; third, because this fact makes the clause itself emasculate the treaty; and fourth, because a nation, forced to withdraw, will withdraw, clause or no clause. A treaty with such a clause is exactly as if two private individuals should agree to submit all differences that might arise between them to a third, expressly reserving the right to refuse to arbitrate any question which either should consider so important that he would prefer to go to law about it. Apply the proposed clause to such differences as have actually arisen in the past between England and ourselves, and these points become very clear.

The war of 1812 involved the right of search. The right to stop an American ship and take seamen out of her did not concern our territorial integrity in the ordinary acceptation of the words, but we should certainly have maintained that it affected our honor, and it also certainly affected something very important, yet different from either honor or territorial integrity, *i. e.*, our substantial interests on the ocean. Had the treaty with the clause proposed been in existence, we should have arbitrated or not as we pleased. A treaty without such a clause would have rendered war more difficult.

The Northwest boundary question involved territorial integrity on both sides. Our feeling on the subject found expression in the simple territorial war-cry, "Fifty-four forty, or fight." The dispute was settled by negotiation. Had we had a general arbitration treaty, it would have been settled by a tribunal. But if the treaty had itself provided for withdrawal, the clause would certainly not have helped matters forward. When feeling runs high is the time when arbitration is most important and the right of withdrawal most dangerous.

When the Confederate envoys, Mason and Slidell, were taken from the mail steamer *Trent* by Capt. Wilkes, England made ready for war, considering her honor and substantial interests on the sea (analogous to, but differing from, those of territorial integrity) involved. We were in the wrong, and avoided war by surrendering Mason and Slidell. Had there been a treaty with a withdrawal clause, England would probably, in the excitement then existing, have withdrawn at once. A treaty without a withdrawal clause would have furnished both sides with a way out of an awkward dilemma, and made threats of war unnecessary.

The *Alabama* claims were actually arbitrated; but after the court had assembled, England hesitated to go on, and came very near withdrawing, because we presented a case claiming damages for a number of indirect losses, such as the increased cost of the war of the Rebellion. The objection to them was that they were so large as to threaten England with excessive pecuniary liability, and also that the intention of the treaty was not to include them. Not only substantial interests, no less important than territorial integrity, but the honor of both sides, were involved. There was no withdrawal clause, but nothing is more certain than that England would have withdrawn had not the court maintained its control by ruling the claims out. The case shows that a withdrawal clause is unnecessary, because even a specific treaty without such a clause is no bar to withdrawal.

The Venezuela controversy involves the territorial integrity of the British empire through that of Guiana, and we say that it involves our honor and substantial interests in some way. A general arbitration treaty is proposed for this and all other disputes. How will a treaty with a clause enabling either side to withdraw on the very ground which has caused the trouble, advance matters?

In every one of these five great historical controversies one side or the other has found ground for alleging that its

honor, or integrity, or equally important interests were involved. In every one a cause existed which would have enabled one side or the other to nullify any general arbitration treaty containing a withdrawal clause. In every one of them a treaty without such a clause would have tended to enforce itself.

The clause would be all very well if the question of honor or integrity involved were itself to be submitted to arbitration. But this is the very point which every nation is so unwilling to submit, while its own decision that its honor or integrity is involved means nothing to its adversary. There seems no escape from the conclusion that the clause should be wholly abandoned. We are satisfied that, the more the matter is considered, the more clear it will appear that there is no half-way house for a general arbitration treaty between submitting everything to arbitration or nothing at all. At first sight the clause seems a harmless concession to natural sensibilities; but nothing would be more harmful than a general treaty, followed, on the first occasion of bad blood between the two countries, by a notice that, under the honor and integrity clause, one side or the other proposed not to arbitrate, but to kill and destroy with all the means at its command until the party of the first part yielded. To insert it is merely to profess a willingness to agree to arbitrate everything that you may not subsequently think it incompatible with your own best interests to arbitrate.

LIBERALS AND RADICALS.

THE low estate of German Liberalism just at present has led to an interesting correspondence between Prof. Lujo Brentano and Dr. Barth, editor of the Berlin *Nation*. The former contends that the trouble with the Liberal party in Germany, and Austria too, is that it has been too stiff and unyielding. It stands just about where it did in 1848. Then it was the party of progress and hope, but its principles have become hardened into a rigid dogmatism. It will not budge before the new needs and demands of the new time. Especially by comparison with English Liberalism does it show a painful want of elasticity and capacity for change and growth. If the German Liberals had only gone in for social reform, old-age pensions, workingmen's insurance, and all that sort of thing, they would not have found themselves so out of touch with the great mass of the electorate and so feebly represented in the Reichstag.

So far Prof. Brentano. To him Dr. Barth rejoins with considerable force, so far as the situation of German Liberalism is concerned. He points out that all the concessions made to Socialism have not in the slightest degree diminished the vote of the Social-Democratic party or induced it to abate one jot of its pretensions or of its determination to become the supreme power in Parliament. On the contrary, every attempt to conciliate the Socialist workingmen of Germany has but made them stand together more solidly than ever and defy other political parties with increasing bitterness. Dr. Barth asks why, if a friendlier attitude on the labor question would have meant political salvation for German Liberalism, the actual adoption of such an attitude has not helped German Conservatism? Prof. Brentano, in fact, commends to the Liberals a remedy which the Conservatives, under the lead of the omniscient William, have tried and found to be a lamentable failure.

As for the English precedent cited, like most precedents, it depends upon who is allowed to make the application of it. It is no doubt true that English Liberalism has succeeded in retaining the sympathy and support of the great body of Radicals. If this has been done without any surrender of principle, as we believe it has been in the main, then there is no disrepute in the word "elastic" as used of that party. There must necessarily be partial readjustments of party aims and declarations from time to time. But it is also true that English Radicals have shown themselves as implacable as their German brethren. Despite the famous "Newcastle programme" of the Liberals, the workingmen's party ran separate candidates for the House of Commons in as many constituencies as possible last year, thus securing the defeat of Mr. Morley and doubtless several other Liberals. Moreover, again as in Germany, the English Conservatives have gone the greatest lengths in trying to meet the Socialists and the workingmen half way, and it is Mr. Chamberlain, a Conservative minister, possibly a Conservative Premier to be, who is now the leading champion of old-age pensions and workingmen's insurance. On the whole there seems little to choose between parties on this score, and one party seems to have been little more successful than the other in conciliating and retaining the extreme Socialist vote.

The whole question involved is a most interesting one, and has its practical bearings and illustration in the present attempts of Democrats and Populists in this country mutually to swallow each other. Any party, to live or to deserve to live, must undoubtedly keep itself open to new ideas. But how is it to discriminate between a new idea which will furnish it nutrition and growth, and a dose of poison, which its system cannot tolerate? How is it to know when to yield to a "craze," and when to oppose it? What are the signs by which a successful political alliance for common ends may be marked off from a base surrender of principle, a forced action in unison of radically antagonistic elements that are sure sooner or later to get by the ears and bring both into defeat and disgrace?

So large a subject cannot be satisfactorily treated here; but one or two general considerations may be ventured. A party organization must know that it can assimilate new elements only slowly. Sudden and sweeping changes in the party creed and in party methods are almost certain to be fatal. Time must be had, and fair and free discussion, and opportunity for frequent expression of the party mind, before a great departure can be safely made. This is one of the ominous signs about the fusion of Democrats and Populists. It is a forced and unnatural union. Up till within a very few months nothing seemed more improbable than an effective union of the Democratic and Populist parties. It was brought about—so far as the present condition of angry and suspicious alliance can be called a union brought about at all—by sharp and not too scrupulous political management. But the great vice of it is its suddenness and unexpectedness. The mass of neither party was prepared for the step. Especially in the Democratic party has this startling lurch away from the old moorings aroused great indignation and rebellion, and all the signs now indicate that a Democratic party squarely fighting Populism in this campaign would have cast a larger vote than a Democratic party will in unholy alliance with it. If ever the union was to have been made, it should have come only after much more deliberation and discussion and adjustments on both sides. As it is, the swine have rushed violently down a steep place into the sea.

As for questions of party principle which may never be compromised or surrendered, it may be said, in answer to Prof. Brentano, that there is at least one principle which must be rigid, which must be held as a dogma, and never allowed to become "elastic." That principle is that a party should never commit itself to promises or aims which no party can secure, or to social changes which legislation cannot effect. That is to say, a party must be true to the law of its being as a party. It can work only by and through discussion and law. If you can show that a large class has a remediable grievance, then you may ask a party to take it up; but things opposed to what is written in the constitution of man and society, vague aspirations which cannot be put in the terms of legislation, Utopian schemes—all these a political party is bound to resist on pain of death to itself if it yields. The Populists are really uneasy dreamers, men afflicted with nightmare, whose proposals it is beyond the wit of man to so much as draft in the form of a bill. To have surrendered to them, as the Democrats have done, is to surrender not to a policy but to a mental attitude; and mental attitudes cannot be made the law of the land.

THE ANCIENT CAPITAL OF POLAND.

CRACOW, July 20, 1896.

THE story of Poland and of the Polish na-

tion is a subject of melancholy interest. In America, for the most part, we know little enough about it. We may be aware that the Poles exist, even if they are no longer the masters of their own land, but we seldom realise what are their conditions and aspirations to-day, or how splendid were many features of their history, with all its shadows. In the time of their prosperity they sinned much, and they have suffered more than accordingly. Now, although their country is dead, they are alive as a people, filled with a patriotism whose burning intensity is purified from any vulgar taint of chauvinism by the tragedy of their situation, still struggling and hoping, working for the future and looking back on the past with inextinguishable love and pride.

It is in Cracow that we find most to recall this past. For generations the capital of the country was here, until, after the union with Lithuania, the need was felt of some more central position, and in 1609 Sigismund III., of the Swedish house of Vasa, removed to Warsaw; but here are to be found the remains of the ancient royal castle, and here, until the end, the kings of Poland were crowned, and, with a few exceptions, were buried in the cathedral. Here, too, was the short-lived republic, created at the Congress of Vienna, but suppressed and annexed to Austria in 1846. Facing northward from the hills near the town one can easily see into Russia; to the west, though out of sight, the German frontier is not many leagues away. A few miles distant are the famous salt mines of Wieliczka that produce annually some 60,000 tons, and have been worked for ages. The seven stories, the lowest being more than nine hundred feet below the level of the earth, contain a labyrinth of galleries and chambers, with lakes and with halls, chapels and images, some of them centuries old, hewn from rock salt.

Cracow, supposed to have been founded by the mythical King Cracus, lies in a plain on the upper waters of the Vistula, near the eastern end of the Carpathians. There are about 80,000 inhabitants, of whom something like a quarter are Jews, the real Polish Jews, who in most cases have kept their old characteristics to an extent that is startling in these progressive times. They are distinguishable enough, not only for their Oriental features, but on account of their curious dress —the long, closely-fitting coat that almost reaches the earth and looks like a dressing-gown, in the hand an umbrella in all weathers, on the head a cap with a visor or perhaps a tall silk hat, underneath which, down the sides of the face, fall the two ringlets that give such a curious, unattractive appearance, and that are hardly to be found out of Austria, as in Russia they are forbidden by the Government. On Saturday, the Sabbath, the coat worn seems to be of satin, while the orthodox headgear is a cap with a border of sable fur, looking uncomfortably warm in midsummer. The Jews were greatly favored by Casimir III. the Great, even if not actually invited into the country by him, and the quarter of Cracow where they live, in what was once a separate town, is still called Kasimiers, although, of course, they are no longer confined to it. Their language is the well-known mixture of German and Hebrew, while they often speak Polish none too well. In time many of their peculiarities must disappear, so that they will, at least, dress and speak like the rest of the population, as indeed some of them do now; but the mass of them, for the present, are a class apart, disliked and feared.

Most of the other inhabitants of the city wear the usual commonplace garb of civilized man. Only the peasants from the country about are still a sight worth seeing, when they appear in their Sunday clothes. We notice a good deal of variety in their dress, presumably according to differences in the prevailing styles in the regions from which they come. Perhaps the most frequent complete type of costume for the men seems to be a felt hat, often with a feather, a tight-fitting jacket of purple or red, with (over it) an open coat that is either red or white with red trimmings, and striped trousers. Both sexes wear high boots, if any, and the women array themselves in bright calico dresses, embroidered bodices, heavily bespangled with coral and blue buttons or knobs, large necklaces of coral or of imitation stones, and brilliant silk or calico handkerchiefs tied about their heads. As elsewhere, modern clothes are gaining ground, nor is every peasant rich enough, even when so inclined, to own and keep in proper condition a correct elaborate attire; hence those that are faultlessly got up are in a small minority. However, there are enough of them, and enough color of all kinds, to make a fascinating picture.

In the way of regular sights, such as appeal to the most ordinary tourist, Cracow is far richer than the few meagre pages devoted to it in Baedeker would lead us to expect. Many of the Polish sovereigns and of the great nobles lived magnificently enough, frequently importing artists from Germany or from Italy to supply the deficiencies of native talent. Both influences are well represented. Thus, on the one hand, we come across not only fine examples of Gothic architecture that suggest Danzig, but also splendid specimens of the sculpture of Veit Stoss and Peter Vischer; on the other, we can see that Italian taste was prominent even before the marriage of Sigismund I. and Bona Sforza (in the early part of the sixteenth century) brought from beyond the Alps men of southern genius, who preceded to enrich their new home with some really great works of the Renaissance. The glory of the city is the Wawel, the hill on which stands the citadel commanding the town—a castle begun by Casimir the Great, later continued in the style of the Renaissance, with a beautiful *cortile*, but afterwards neglected, plundered of its pictures by the princes of the Saxon line, who sent them to Dresden, and finally turned into a barracks and military hospital by the Austrian Government. Adjoining it is the Gothic cathedral, consecrated in 1359, where are to be found most of the tombs of the Polish kings and their families from Ladislas Lokietek (d. 1333), the father of Casimir; but the last sovereign of all, the weak and unfortunate Stanislas Poniatowski, who was deposed by Catherine the Second of Russia, lies buried in St. Petersburg. Many of these tombs rank high as works of art, forming as a whole a series nearly unequalled in the world. The most impressive are three of those in the Romanesque crypt, the oldest part of the church, the three graves of Poland's national heroes, John Sobieski, Kosciuszko, and Joseph Poniatowski, who was drowned in the Elster after the battle of Leipsig. There is another monument to Kosciusko, a mile or two away, inside a fort on a hill with an excellent view. It is a mound sixty-five feet high, built in 1820-23 by the efforts of the entire population.

Descending from the Wawel into the streets below, we found much to interest us, and not a little to regret. The old walls were torn down between 1810 and 1820, as were, with one exception, the twenty gates, in place of which we have a promenade that, pleasant as it is, is an insufficient consolation. The heart of Cracow is the great Rynek (Ring) with the brick church of St. Mary's, an imposing Gothic building, whose interior has recently been restored in a manner which, though it has provoked much criticism, has a certain effectiveness. At any rate, one can turn aside from the fresh paint to admire some splendid specimens of mediæval sculpture and stained-glass windows. In the middle of the Rynek is the Sukiennice, the Cloth Hall, a masterpiece built in the fifteenth century and very satisfactorily restored some years ago; near by it stands the clock-tower, a remnant of the ancient city hall demolished in 1820. Although fifteen churches were burned to the ground in a great fire in 1850, there are said still to be fifty left, several of them well worth a visit; but far better is the superb Gothic courtyard of the library of the University, formerly the University itself, begun by Casimir III in 1349. For good pictures, we must go to the two fine private galleries, that of Countess Potocka and the museum of Prince Czartoryski, the latter containing a Da Vinci and a Raphael, also a large collection of arms and antiquities. In the cathedral are works of Canova and Thorwaldsen. As regards native modern art there is not very much to be said. The various attempts at neo-Gothic architecture have not been uniformly successful, and in the galleries above the Sukiennice, the average visitor will find little to interest him, except Semiradski's "Living Torches of Nero," and two or three historical paintings by Mateiko.

And yet all these works have their importance, as showing that Poland lives. Cracow is not merely a great Austrian fortress, with fifteen thousand men hidden away in invisible defences round about, nor is it only an ancient capital with the Westminster Abbey of an extinct nation. Its memories and monuments not only make past ages vivid; they spur on the men of to-day. It is the seat of a university, of an academy of sciences, a centre of art and thought, of literary activity and of national life. Even in practical politics the Poles of late years have shown a marked ability. The present Austrian Prime Minister, the Minister of Finance, and the special Minister for Galicia are Poles; so is the Minister of Foreign Affairs for the whole of the Dual Empire. As a people the Poles have always been gifted, brave, and patriotic; and in this century they have, under the most disastrous conditions, shown an astonishing vitality, a persistency that hardly seemed to belong to their character. Who, then, can maintain that their part in history is over, and that the time has come when we can say with truth, "Finis Poloniæ"?

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN PERPLEXITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on "The South in the New Warfare" in one respect does more, and in another less, than justice to the South. It is hardly true to attribute the present attitude of the South wholly to the new order of politicians represented by Tillman, Watson, etc. The melancholy feature of the situation, to many of us, is that so many of the old and trusted leaders have been carried away. With

some it is probably a mere catering to the Populist element that has to be reckoned with if they are to retain their leadership. But with many more it is an honest infatuation with the free-silver idea that to thinking men is incomprehensible.

On the other hand, there are causes, for which the South is not responsible, that have combined to place her in this position. Owing to the gigantic problem thrust upon her in the sudden and wholesale enfranchisement of the negro, for a whole generation Southern politicians have had practically but one question to study—how to maintain white supremacy. Upon that depended the peace, prosperity, and progress of their country, and everything else was subordinated to it. Hence an order of young politicians has grown up who regard the carrying of elections as the one criterion of a successful politician, the one needful element in political knowledge. Is it surprising that, in a political training of this kind, education in the fundamental principles of political economy is so lacking as to make them an easy prey to political heresies, and that the political conscience has been blunted to a degree that explains its obtuseness to the moral side of this question? This, of course, is no justification; but it may furnish some food for reflection to those responsible for this state of things who now stand aghast at its consequences.

Again, the South has seen the North and East grow rich on the policy of paternalism and protection. Is it strange that in its poverty it should seek its share in the national wealth through the same means? It is only necessary to quote the eloquent warning of the late Gov. Russell to the protectionists of his own State, which was quoted by him in his Auditorium speech in Chicago. He was right. They have sown the wind, and they are in danger of reaping the whirlwind—nay, they *are* reaping it, and have been reaping it for several years, in the panic and prostration caused by the spread of this heresy.

And, I may add, this is perhaps the strongest consideration, apart from local issues, that makes the thinking Democrat in the South, who believes in sound money and free trade, hesitate about his duty. To so many, a vote for McKinley, directly or indirectly, means the maintenance of the same system of paternalism and class legislation that is responsible for the present financial heresies. And there are many of them hesitating whether it would not be better to take Bryan and free silver, in the hope that, like a dose of salts, it would quickly clear the body politic of its accumulated corruptions. It is for this large and influential class that a third ticket is most necessary. Let it be made clear to them that the hope of the ultimate triumph of true Democratic principles depends on the preservation of a nucleus free from Populism, paternalism, and protection, and they will rally to that standard, and hope for better days.

NORTH CAROLINA.

WEST RALEIGH, N.C.

IDLE FEARS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of yesterday, "Chrysostom" says: "Many McKinley votes from Democrats can be made by proper assurance, from authorized sources, that the South need not dread a renewal of the Reconstruction and Force-bill horrors." I am a born and bred Southern Democrat, and my father was before me. Neither of us ever voted any but the Democratic ticket. This year I expect to vote for McKinley, because I am a believer in the financial policy of the Republican party, and believe the financial question to be more important than all others combined. I have never thought that a "Force bill" would injure the South, but, on the contrary, would be of benefit to us. The only effect of a Force bill would be to make all the Southern States where the negroes are in a large majority hold their State and county elections on a different date from the national elections. If this were the case, a very large number of Southerners who have always voted the Democratic ticket only because of the negro question, would, while still voting the "white man's ticket" at the State and county elections, vote for Republican electors and congressmen. The number and standing of the Southerners who would vote the Republican ticket at the national election would be so great and influential that even the bitterest Republican Administration would no more dare to use troops at the polls in the South than in the North or West. And, with a "Force bill," there would be no "horrors."

Very respectfully, A MUGWUMP.

CHARLOTTE, N. C., August 14, 1896.

ENCORE DE L'AUDACE!

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I quote from the circular of Secretary Carlisle, issued from the Treasury August 2, 1896: "Neither silver dollars nor silver certificates are redeemed in gold." Publish this if you dare. ROGER SPRAGUE.

DENVER, COL., August 10, 1896.

[Apparently this should be addressed to somebody who has said that they were so redeemed. Let the galled jade wince! —ED. NATION.]

A DEPRESSION OF THE CURRENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One would hardly expect to find in the votes of the Harvard Corporation a hundred and seventy-five years ago any teaching concerning the financial problems of to-day, but here is a vote that should be of interest to every teacher about to accept an engagement on a fixed salary for the academic year 1896-7:

"At a Meeting of the Presid[t] and Fellows of Harvard College in the Library Nov[r] 16: 1719.

"Voted,

"1. That the Salary for the Ensuing Year to the Sen[r] Fellow be £80, to the Second, £70, and to the third £60. . . .

"2. That as an Addition to the Fellows Salary for this Year the Treasurer shall pay £10. out of the College Treasury to Each of the Fellows by reason of the Depression of the Value of the Bills of Credit."

The "depression" continuing, similar allowances were made in 1821, in 1822, and for a number of years afterwards. Nor was the paper money the only form of currency in Colonial New England that varied disastrously in value. All sorts of laws attempting to regulate the value of specie were essayed. Their results were such that Mr. Weeden, in his 'Economic History of New England,' exclaims, in reference to these experiments, "Alas for the knowledge of Newtons and the administrative skill of Dudleys in the artificial regulation of standards of value!"

The sense of justice of the Harvard Corporation led to the relief of their employees, but could the salaried employees of corporations of our own day—corporations of the genuine soulless sort—expect such treatment?

WILLIAM G. BROWN.

HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY, CAMBRIDGE, MASS., August 14, 1896.

THE "BYRON SCANDAL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent ("C. E. Stowe"), in the *Nation* of July 16, has anticipated me with his remarks on the "Byron Scandal." He speaks, no doubt, with greater authority than any one else could; but no one who had read Mrs. Stowe's article on the subject could be at a loss for her motive in the exposure of Lord Byron's guilt as affirmed by Lady Byron. I wish to add another fact, equally recorded in that article, but quite lost sight of, even at the time, by the crowd of furious assailants who fell upon her for speaking what she believed to be the truth, and a truth that ought to be known. They alleged (the *Quarterly Review* leading the way) that Mrs. Stowe had rushed into print in an indecent hurry to blight a great man's memory.

Thirteen years had elapsed since Lady Byron made her this disclosure before the article appeared (dates, 1856 and 1869). Lady Byron, believing her death to be imminent, had begun by consulting her as to whether she ought to break her lifelong silence on the causes of the separation, for which she had been the object of so many calumnious falsehoods. Mrs. Stowe, having heard her whole story, and fearing the effect of such a step on her fragile health, told her that she thought she "would be entirely justifiable in leaving the truth to be disclosed after her death, and recommended that all the facts necessary should be put in the hands of some persons, to be so published."

Nine years had passed after Lady Byron's death, and Mrs. Stowe waited in vain for some friendly hand to write a justificatory memoir of this noble, much-maligned woman. None such appeared, and Mrs. Stowe broke her silence at last, only on the publication, the wide circulation, and eager reception of the Countess Guiccioli's calumnies.

It is not very gratifying to one's pride in one's country to have to avow a belief that this virulent attack on Mrs. Stowe by the leaders of English public opinion was mainly attributable to three causes: firstly, that Lady Bryon was disliked as a cold, correct, virtuous woman, while her husband was an interesting sinner; secondly, that the person she chose to confide her secret to was *an American!* (this nationalist prejudice being distinctly avowed and seasoned with expressions of contempt by several reviews, though the inoffensive reason for this preference was very simply given in Mrs. Stowe's statement); thirdly, that the person preferred was Mrs. Stowe, whose anti-slavery action made her unacceptable to the then Tory upholders of the "domestic institution."

I hope we have long outgrown the two latter prejudices.—I am, etc.,

AN ENGLISHWOMAN.

AUGUST 5, 1896.

MORAL EVOLUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The incorrect reference to John Stuart Mill which is pointed out in the discriminating notice of 'Moral Evolution' in your issue

of August 13, I discovered a few days before the book was published, but too late even for an *erratum*. The needed correction is made in the second edition, which appeared in May. So entire a reversal of an author's meaning re-emphasizes the necessity of verifying references. The mistake has been overlooked in the other notices I have seen.

Theology, which is only incidental to the purpose of the book, is considered briefly in view of certain ethical modifications of doctrine, and in answer to the objection that evolution invalidates essential Christian beliefs. The recovery of the ethical value of Christianity is going on more or less rapidly in all Protestant denominations. The transcendence of Jesus is seen to consist in moral perfection rather than in omnipotence and omniscience But this is not Unitarianism, the Unitarians themselves being judges, for, with cordial approval of my ethical positions, they have expressed decided dissent from my opinions on the person of Christ and the supernatural. Orthodoxy is a shifting term. The heterodox of to-day are the orthodox of to-morrow. Greek Christianity has as good title as Latin Christianity to be called orthodox. The ethical significance of Christian beliefs, the immanence of God, and the moral transcendence of Jesus are in harmony with the views of the Greek fathers, and, as I think, of the writers of the New Testament. I say this, not in defence of "old bottles," which there is good authority for not refilling, but only to suggest that the disappearance of a mechanical supernaturalism is not a reduction of essential truths, but rather a restoration of the real value of Christianity.

Yours respectfully, GEORGE HARRIS.

BAR HARBOR, MAINE, August 15, 1896.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co.'s fall announcements include, besides the Centenary (*de luxe*) Edition of Burns's works, in four volumes prepared by William E. Henley and T. F. Henderson, and besides the uniform edition of Bret Harte's works, already mentioned, the following: 'Christianity and Social Problems,' by Lyman Abbott, D.D.; 'The Spiritual Sense of Dante's Divina Commedia,' by William T. Harris; 'A Phrase-Book from the Poetic and Dramatic Works of Robert Browning,' by Miss Marie Ada Molineux, A.M., Ph.D.; 'Letters of Victor Hugo,' edited by Paul Meurice, in two volumes; 'Some Memories of Hawthorne,' by Mrs. Rose Hawthorne Lathrop; Lowell's Complete Poetical Works, in one volume, uniform with the Cambridge Edition of Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, and Browning; 'Whitman: A Study,' by John Burroughs, and 'A Year in the Fields,' by the same writer, with illustrations by Clifton Johnson; 'Authors and Friends,' by Mrs. James T. Fields; 'Talks about Autographs,' by Dr. George Birkbeck Hill; 'George Fox,' by Thomas Hodgkin; 'William H. Seward,' by Thornton K. Lothrop; 'The Life of John Wellborn Root,' memorable for his share in the architectural planning of the World's Fair at Chicago, by Miss Harriet Monroe; 'Chapters from a Life,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps; a translation of Tsountas's 'Mycenæan Age,' with numerous illustrations; 'Talks on Writing English,' by Prof. Arlo Bates; 'Mere Literature, and Other Essays,' by Prof. Woodrow Wilson; 'Governments and Parties of Continental Europe,' in two volumes, by A. Lawrence Lowell; an illustrated edition of John Fiske's 'American Revolution'; 'A Birding on a Bronco,' by Miss Florence A. Merriam; and 'Sister Jane, her Friends and Neighbors,' by Joel Chandler Harris.

The Century Co. will publish in October 'The Cat and the Cherub, and Other Stories,' by Chester Bailey Fernald.

Brentano's have nearly ready 'Short-Suit Whist,' by Val. W. Starnes.

Mrs. Burton Harrison has edited for A. S. Barnes & Co. a new edition of the late Mrs. Lamb's 'History of New York,' now in the press. She will add a chapter on the externals of the modern city, with fresh illustrations; and this will also be printed separately in a form to match the original work.

Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, announce 'The Land of the Castanet,' chapters on Spain by H. C. Chatfield-Taylor which have been appearing in the *Cosmopolitan*.

Dickens's stories from the Christmas numbers of *Household Words* and *All the Year Round* (1852–1867) form another and perhaps the last of the Macmillan reprints edited by the younger Dickens. Since it reached our shelves the editor himself has passed away, and has done with the pious writing of bibliographical introductions altogether. He had here strung together "Mugby Junction," "No Thoroughfare," "Mrs. Lirriper's Lodgings," "The Holly-Tree Inn," and many less-known tales from those annual issues which Dickens abandoned because of imitators. From the same house we have another Balzac volume in Clara Bell's translation and Dent's ever tasteful dress, 'Pierrette and the Abbé Birotteau,' and Daudet's 'Artists' Wives,' translated by Laura Ensor for Dent's series; together with 'Macbeth' and 'Antony and Cleopatra,' in the Dent "Temple Shakspere." An etched copy of a so-called Cleopatra in the British Museum, and a view of the interior of the old Swan Theatre, are the frontispieces of these dainty booklets. Not much bigger is Macmillan's 'Guide to English Literature,' compounded of Matthew Arnold's review of Stopford Brooke's Primer, the same critic's notice of Gray in Ward's 'English Poets,' and John Morley's address (in 1887) on the study of literature. This will be found a wholesome pocket companion by any one bent on the discriminating pursuit of reading and letters. Finally, Prof. Monro's compact edition of all the attributed works of Homer (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) challenges attention alike for its beauty and its convenience. A thin paper saves from bulkiness the more than one thousand pages. There are no novelties in the text, which follows the respective best authorities, and there are no notes. The Greek font is bold.

In the uniform Mark Twain of Messrs. Harper have lately appeared 'The Prince and the Pauper,' and the collection of scraps entitled 'Life on the Mississippi.' We mean nothing depreciatory by the word scraps; on the contrary, these short chapters are highly profitable reading. Noticeable is Mark Twain's testimony in favor of Capt. Basil Hall and Mrs. Trollope. We should have liked references from as well as to the appendices; and the work was worth an index.

Scotland and The Orient determine the contents of the two latest volumes of Messrs. Scribner's short "Stories by English Authors," with a range of selection from Scott and Miss Mitford to Kipling and Ian Maclaren.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have usefully united, under the title 'America and Europe: A Study of International Relations,' a *North American* paper, "The United States and Great Britain," by David A. Wells, ex-Minister Phelps's sound Brooklyn address on the Monroe Doctrine, and Carl Schurz's address at the Washington Arbitration Conference, on "Arbitration in International Disputes." These form a peace document deserving a circulation commensurate with Jingoism and pseudo-patriotism. The same firm have begun a reissue and enlargement of the late Alexander Johnston's 'American Orations,' under the editorship of Prof. James Albert Woodburn of Indiana University. The first volume shows the plan of omission, abridgment, insertion, and annotation in the interest of further study. There will be three more, the last being new to the series. At a time when Boy Orators are in vogue, it is well worth while to go back to these landmarks in our political debate.

The Boston city fathers from time to time embark in book-making, and can now point to a goodly number of "Memorials" of eminent fellow-citizens. Some of these have been the stoned prophets of the anti-slavery agitation, and with them has been associated the late Frederick Douglass, whom the city authorities publicly commemorated in December of last year. Mr. Albion W. Tourgée's oration and Mr. Richard T. Greener's personal reminiscences form the substance of the volume, which is a sign of the times that we fear our Southern brethren can hardly read aright. Douglass was one of America's greatest orators, and he was often heard in Boston, where, after the passage of the Fugitive Slave Law and before he was ransomed, he might at any time have been seized for reduction to chatteldom. Perhaps this latter circumstance explains as logically as anything the municipal honors paid to him. The Memorial contains a portrait of this remarkable man.

A sumptuous leather-bound volume forms the First Year Book of the Society of Mayflower Descendants incorporated last year in this city. It contains, with many pictorial embellishments, a list of the *Mayflower's* passengers, with brief biographical items rather than sketches, the *Mayflower* compact, the proceedings at the first annual dinner of the Society, and membership lists (*a*) alphabetical, (*b*) by maiden name of married women, and (*c*) by descent from the respective Pilgrim fathers. It appears from the Constitution that any lineal descendant, over eighteen years of age, wherever resident, is eligible for admission.

To the frequent inquiry, Where can I find a list of works representing both sides of the currency question? the Baker & Taylor Co., 5 E. 16th St., New York, furnish a convenient response in a bulletin of such works, with price affixed and an indication of the side espoused.

Georg Herwegh was the poet laureate of the German revolutionary party which finally came to grief in the movement of 1848. He was in exile for several years before that movement broke out, and his only connection with it was as head of the German colony of Paris which undertook an expedition in aid of the insurrection in Baden. The letters published by Marcel Herwegh ('Briefe von und an Georg Herwegh,' Munich: Albert Langen) have but little bearing on the matter. The most interesting pages of the book are those which contain a lively account of the expedition, written by Herwegh's wife, a woman of great courage and intellectual gifts, who half a century ago had as thoroughly emancipated her-

self from conventional restraints as the most advanced "new woman" of our day. The description she furnishes of the ludicrous incompetence of the men who undertook to found a German Democratic Republic, only confirms the impression produced by almost everything that has been published by those who took part in that foredoomed failure. That so impotent an attempt should have thrown the governments of Germany into such paroxysms of fear, is a striking commentary on the cowardice of officialism.

The French Revolution of 1848 is lightly touched upon in M. Denormandie's 'Notes et Souvenirs' (Paris: Léon Chailley). He was at that time a young man, and confines himself to describing scenes that passed under his eyes; what little he does say is in direct support of the view that the expulsion of Louis Philippe was an offence against good government and civilization. The greater portion of his book, however, M. Denormandie fills with an account of the siege of Paris in 1870 and of the doings of the Commune. His important official position as *maire* of the Eighth Arrondissement during the period in question invests his narrative with peculiar interest, although he gives us little or nothing actually new. He describes with some minuteness the detailed methods adopted in the distribution of bread and meat in order to stave off famine as long as possible, and throws some side-lights on the social life of Paris during its period of greatest trial. What he has to say about the Commune can only deepen the detestation of right-minded men for the nameless atrocities of those desolate days.

The Baron d'Haussez is remembered in French history chiefly because he directed the expedition against Algiers in 1829 in his capacity of Minister of the Marine. The ministry of which he formed a part was that presided over by Polignac, and its arbitrary measures, which were heartily sanctioned, if not suggested, by Charles X. himself, led to the overthrow of the Government of the Restoration by the Revolution of July, 1830. D'Haussez escaped to England and occupied the leisure of exile in writing the Memoirs of his political and administrative life. The first volume of these has just been published ('Mémoires du Baron d'Haussez,' Paris: Calmann Levy; New York: Brentano's), and extends from the Restoration in 1814 to the death of Louis XVIII. in 1824. During this period D'Haussez was a member of the first Chamber of Deputies, the "Chambre introuvable," and Prefect in turn of the Departments of the Landes, the Gard, and the Isère. He here deals comparatively briefly with events, and indulges almost entirely in brilliant, though somewhat malicious, portraits of the men of the Restoration with whom he came in contact. A curious mixture they were: many of them had served every government in succession from the *ancien régime* to the Empire; some were returned *émigrés* who failed to understand the changes that had taken place during their absence, and expected offices and pensions for their fidelity to the Bourbons; a few were men who had waited patiently at home for the Restoration, obeying but not serving the previous administrations. The pen portraits would be interesting rather than valuable for historical purposes, had the volume not been most carefully edited by two well-known students of the period, the late Comte de Circourt and the Comte de Puymaigre, who have supplied excellent biographical notes rectifying the malignant wit of the author. They have also prefaced the volume with an admirable general introduction, dealing with D'Haussez himself and the principles of the Government of the Restoration. Students will look forward to the publication of the succeeding volume or volumes in which D'Haussez has to do with his political life, covering generally the policy and proceedings of the Polignac ministry, and more especially the dispatch of the expedition to Algiers.

M. Pierre Coubertin passes from athletics and education to contemporary history in his 'Évolution Française sous la Troisième République' (Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.). His chronicle is more valuable for record of fact, of parliamentary votes, of rapidly changing ministries, than for large grasp or philosophic insight. Indeed, he frankly condenses his chronicle from contemporary newspaper or periodical comment. This fact sufficiently indicates the defects as well as the usefulness of the book.

Two numbers of the *Boletin de la Sociedad Geográfica de Lima* (Peru), corresponding to the proceedings of the second and third trimesters of 1895, have come to hand. The publication of Antonio Raimondi's itinerary continues, the ground covered in the present instalments being the old mule routes from Lima to Huancayo, Tarma, and Cerro de Pasco. There is also an interesting record of travel in 1866 from Huanta to Lima by way of the famous old mercury-mining town of Huancavelica. John Ball's valuable "Contributions to the Study of the Flora of the Peruvian Cordilleras" takes up the composite plants, asclepias, gentians, heliotropes, and other less numerous groups, in the present issue. Another botanical paper, which would prove of value to the traveller in those parts, is a list of the common names of the principal Peruvian plants, followed by the scientific names, prepared by Manuel García y Merino. The paper of widest interest in the two numbers of the *Boletin* is that on the languages of the central Andean region co-existent with the Keshua ("Quichua" of some writers), by Dr. Leonardo Villar. The discussion touches the Aymará, Cauqui, Yunca, and Puquina dialects, and ends with a consideration of the antiquity of the Keshua and of the question whether it may be a primitive language. Dr. Villar answers this question in the affirmative. Nothing new is adduced in support of this contention, but the argument is presented fully, and is accompanied with references to all the important works bearing upon this interesting and most remarkable American language. A new feature in the *Boletin* is the commencement of a series of Peruvian views, beautifully reproduced by the heliograph process.

We have received the prospectus of a new quarterly *Magazine of Americana*, to be published by George Watkins at Indianapolis; bibliographical in its nature, "containing a register of new, and notes on and extracts from old, books and pamphlets relating to America, the West Indies, and the South Sea." The first number is to appear in October.

Harvard has had a professor of music for about a quarter of a century, and Prof. Paine's pupils include some of the best-known composers and critics in the country. A few years ago Yale followed Harvard's example by appointing Mr. Parker professor of music, and with the opening of the college year Mr. E. A. MacDowell will take his place as professor at Columbia. He will have the assistance of several New York and Boston critics, who will lecture on historic and æsthetic topics. There has been much discussion, especially on the part of disappointed candidates for the new chair at Columbia, as to the propriety of appointing a mere composer for this important position, when such a sublimely important being as a musical critic and analytic lecturer might have been had for the asking. The only real question was: Are Profs. Paine, Parker, and MacDowell composers only, or are they men of general culture and special erudition, who can teach and lecture as well as compose? Every one who knows these three men is aware that the alternate inquiry must be answered decidedly in the affirmative. New York music-lovers will have special reason to congratulate themselves that Mr. MacDowell, who has no superior among the living composers of Europe, will now be brought back to his native city, after his many years of residence in Germany and Boston. He is of the same age as Paderewski, and these are the two young composers of whom the best things may be expected in the future.

Harvard, Yale, and Columbia are by no means the only American colleges that have a musical department. Most if not all of the large female colleges have one, and of other colleges we have before us documents showing that good work is done at them. At the University of Wisconsin instruction is given in vocal and instrumental music, history, harmony, and most of the other branches, the only unacademic thing in the catalogue being the mention of guitar, banjo, "mandolin, and other orchestral instruments." Oberlin is peculiarly fortunate in having among its instructors so learned and interesting a writer as Prof. Edward Dickinson. Under his guidance a musical library has been amassed which has few equals in this country, and he has published several little books which will be found extremely useful by all who wish to study the history and literature of music. They are a 'Guide to Musical History' and a syllabus of 'The History of Church Music,' and are published at Oberlin, O., by Pearce & Randolph.

We have received from the Berlin Photographic Company, No. 14 East Twenty-third Street, New York, a sample of their reproductions from the precious art collection of the Hermitage at St. Petersburg, just undertaken. There will be eighty-four of these heliogravure plates, of which the average size will be 14x19 inches, and more than a quarter of the whole will be Rembrandts; Van Dyck, Murillo, Rubens, Raphael, and Ruysdael ranking next numerically. Three Titians, two Da Vincis, two Lucas Cranachs, and a Botticelli may also be named. The whole series will be issued in seven parts, at $300.

The library of the late Prof. Ernst Curtius is to be sold. The value of such a possession to some of our younger American universities is obvious, and it is to be hoped that our educational benefactors will not neglect this rare opportunity. In the opinion of Dr. Weyl, chief librarian of the Royal Library of Berlin, the Curtius collection is the most important of its kind that has been offered to the public since the death of Otto Jahn. It consists of about 3,500 bound volumes, and of at least as many more rare and valuable treatises in pamphlet form. Classical philology is represented in both old and new editions, and these volumes derive an incalculable value from the fact that many of them contain innumerable marginal comments and conjectures from the hand of the great scholar. There

are also the monumental publications from original sources, like the 'Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum et Græcarum,' as well as sets of all the more important periodicals relating to archæology, epigraphy, and numismatics. Further information may be had upon application to Mr. Charles H. Genung, Nutley, N. J., or by communicating directly with Prof. Herman Grimm, Matthaeikirchplatz 5, Berlin, W.

—Of high interest is the tenth part of the Fourteenth Report of the English Historical Manuscripts Commission, containing a calendar of the American papers in the Dartmouth collection. As Secretary of State for the American Department and Privy Seal from 1772 to 1782, the Earl of Dartmouth was the centre of American correspondence. The calendar amply proves the value of this; and the mere summary of the trade reports, intercepted letters, suggestions for peace and union, from loyalists and philanthropists as well as from statesmen, and the political correspondence passing through his hands, leads one to regret that the Commission did not give Mr. B. F. Stevens liberty to print in full the rich material found. Some of it has been reproduced in his Facsimiles, but the larger part is new. From the Stamp Act excitement to the end of the war, letters and reports of every description poured in upon Lord Dartmouth. It was not from a want of information that the Cabinet failed to appreciate the gravity of the rising spirit of opposition in the colonies, for merchants, officials, and military officers presented memorials and schemes sufficient in number to have determined any and every difference between mother country and colony. The non-importation agreements of 1765 and 1770 and the tea episode naturally became unimportant by the side of actual hostilities in 1775; yet there is hardly a paper noted in this calendar which is not precious as history and as personal expression of political opinion.

—The publication of the Hutchinson letters, and Franklin's agency in the matter, are mentioned. The visit to America of the mysterious French agent, Bonvouloir, is also incidentally brought in, and, under the influence of wine, the agent seems to have told more of his mission to the British than was judicious. He described Putnam as "a good-natured, civil, and brave soldier, but a headstrong, ignorant, and stupid general." Ward was held "very cheap," and the American officers were "perfectly ignorant of their business," and of moderate, or rather "mean parts." They had no settled or well-digested plan, and more jealousy than unanimity existed among their chiefs. This was before the appointment of Washington. Putnam sends to Major Moncrief his daughter, and writes: "If he does not like her he can send her back, and she will be taken care of and provided with a Whig husband." Ambrose Serle, a regular correspondent of the minister, in 1776 says of Charles Lee: "There is something so eccentric in the man's temper, and such a Vacancy of Principle, that it is impossible for all his Talents to support a Reputation here or anywhere." Joseph Reed is "an able man, but full of chicane, intrigue, and duplicity." As early as 1774 Carleton proposes to reinforce Gage with some Indians. On the other hand, there are some interesting letters from Eleazer Wheelock about his Indian school at Lebanon; and not a little on colonial land companies, churches, and colonial appointments. Mr. Douglas Brymner has calendared the Canadian papers, and it is reasonable to say that two men better fitted for preparing this volume could hardly have been found. The index is very full and satisfactory.

—In the *Revue Bleue* of July 25 M. Jean Le Pelletier describes a curious experiment in coeducation at the French court in the sixteenth century. The innovation, which sharply contrasts with French ideas in the Middle Ages as well as in modern times, seems to have been due to Catherine de Medici, who, says M. Le Pelletier somewhat surprisingly, was an admirable mother and devoted to all her children. The King, Henry II, coöperated heartily in the scheme, moved by his tender solicitude for the Dauphin, the future Francis II. At the time of the marriage of Anthony of Bourbon and Jeanne d'Albret, Henry withdrew from the wedding festivities, and, with scarcely any following, hurried to Saint-Germain, where the royal school was placed, "pour veoir," for so he wrote to M. d'Humières, governor of the Dauphin, "Messeigneurs ses enfants et pour en avoir tout seul la bonne chère." Besides the children of the King there were the little Queen of Scots, the young Duke of Lorraine, and more than forty others from the noblest families in France. Over 300 officers, teachers, and attendants were assigned to the service of this school. The course of study included not only Latin, but the vernacular and Italian, history, geography, astronomy, and mathematics; and while the boys were instructed in the arts of chivalry, the girls were initiated into quite commonplace household duties. But M. Le Pelletier thinks the experiment a failure. Indeed, he attributes to it the effeminateness of the later Valois kings, and a certain undesirable boldness in Mary Stuart and Marguerite of Valois. He declares with Talleyrand that the empire of woman is founded upon her "adorable faiblesse et sa divine douceur."

—The most interesting feature of the current number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* is M. Louis Couve's description of certain private houses excavated at Delos in 1894. They belong to the second and the first century B. C., when Delos, under Roman patronage, attained its highest commercial importance, and was filled with magnificent arcades and with the homes of wealthy merchants. The structures here figured give evidence of the wealth and refinement of their owners, resembling in decorative luxury the most elegant houses of Pompeii. Their plan approaches the classical Athenian arrangement of the fifth century rather than the Roman, and is characterized by the peristyle and the open court, entered directly by a long passage from the front door. Around the court the rooms are disposed in such a manner as to secure the open-air life of a warm climate, and at the same time complete seclusion from the street. Hence they are lighted from the inner court, and windows which open on the street admit the light from a height of ten feet or more. In one case only a window gives directly on the "Street of the Theatre," at the usual modern height; but this exception is due to the architect's intention to make the window, with its marble frame and bronze grill, an effective feature of the façade. In some respects these houses agree with the ideal plan of Vitruvius, while in others there is a wide departure, necessitated by the peculiarities of the site. The cistern, vaulted and strongly built, is an important provision in all, as might be expected when the rainfall is the chief source of supply, yet not a drop falls for three months in the summer. As many as three cisterns are found in the best appointed houses, communicating with each other, as Vitruvius describes, and by this communication filtering the water for drinking purposes.

—The domestic life which is here disclosed had luxuries and refinements, while it dispensed with certain comforts and even decencies. The sleeping-rooms and the slaves' quarters are cramped, ill-ventilated, and destitute of ornament. But the decoration of the larger apartments, the salon, the dining-room, and the *exedra*, is charming in taste and artistic effect, and in some instances is preserved in unimpaired brilliancy. The floors of such rooms and of the central court are paved in mosaic of novel and pleasing patterns; the walls are painted according to a decorative system at once sober and elegant, which recalls the best Pompeian style—that of the House of Sallust and of the Faun. Along the most graceful of the friezes runs a garland of flowers and bouquets of gay colors, amid which flits a Cupid with sky-blue wings and scarlet mantle, picking flowers or playing with a dog. Others, less conventional, contained masks of warriors, and Medusas, painted with great delicacy of color and design. The refinements of life were lavished on these reception rooms, whose shelves and niches indicate the provision made for statues and figurines and other bibelots. These have, in fact, been found in such excellence and number as to encourage high expectations. A "Diadumenos," perfectly preserved and superior in style to all known replicas of the famous work of Polyclitus, is the pearl of these discoveries, which warrant a general exploration of Delos as the most promising field of operations for the French School of Archæology after the completion of their labors at Delphi.

—Mr. Theodore Bacon's recent address on "What the Lawyer Owes to Society," delivered before the graduating class of the Yale Law School, has been issued in the form of a pamphlet by the university. He urges upon his hearers that they owe to society something more than the mere discharge of professional obligations. These he sums up in the three commands: "Thou shalt not rob thy client"; "Thou shalt not impose on the court"; and "Thou shalt not befoul or play tricks upon thy professional adversary." Yet the lawyer who can say, "All these have I kept from my admission to the bar up," will not have satisfied the larger and loftier requirements of the profession. "Unless you have done something, as your powers and your opportunities shall have served you, toward the formation of a just opinion in aiding the growth of jurisprudence and social advance through law—still better, toward the restraint and confusion of crude, unwise, and mischievous intermeddling with existing laws—you will have fallen short of satisfying the full scope of the obligations you assume to-day." Mr. Bacon gives several illustrations of the sort of effort which he would have lawyers make for the amelioration of things in general, and instances of what great lawyers have done in the past. While admitting to its widest extent the scope of the obligation contended for by Mr. Bacon, we are inclined to think that the class in this community which stands most in need of being reminded of it are not the fledglings of the law. According to our experience, there is

more generous enthusiasm for improvement in the junior than in the senior bar, while a judge who remembers that he owes anything to society in the way intended by Mr. Bacon is a rare bird. In the movements in this city either for law reform or against corruption in the high places of the law, the impetus has generally been given by the younger members of the profession; when any attempt is made in these directions, it is not the judges who rush forward to help it. In fact, were we called upon to get together an audience signally in need of being reminded of what the lawyer owes to society, we should feel no hesitation in distributing tickets generally among the judiciary and the leaders of the bar; to deliver the lecture, we should retain the services of a junior who still remembered what he owed to himself.

—One duty which bench and bar owe to society, and which is not mentioned by Mr. Bacon, is to do whatever is in their power to make the road to professional honors and emoluments such that dishonorable practices shall not be the readiest means of advancement. "The road to power"—and, we may add, to wealth—"will be trod"; but if to get forward on it requires base arts, honorable men will look for other paths to preferment, and the rewards of the law will more and more fall to charlatans and rogues. We have not only made the judiciary elective, but our system of nomination makes it necessary for the candidate for a judgeship in most cases either to buy his place outright, or to flatter and curry favor with a "boss," who always expects, and generally gets, favors of some sort in return. What is to be expected of judges who get on to the bench in this way? They live in an atmosphere of abuses, to which they have long been accustomed and have grown callous. One of these is the open and almost avowed solicitation of business. This is one of the essential marks of a trade as distinguished from a profession. An honorable lawyer cannot solicit business, any more than he can advertise. But unless solicitation is punished, it will certainly be practised, and the consequence is that the soliciting lawyer will get the clients, while the scrupulous one waits for them.

THACHER'S DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

The Continent of America: Its Discovery and Its Baptism. An Essay on the Nomenclature of the Old Continents; a Critical and Bibliographical Inquiry into the Naming of America and into the Growth of the Cosmography of the New World, etc. By John Boyd Thacher. New York: W. E. Benjamin. 1896. 4to, xviii, 270 pp.

THERE is something rather startling in the opening averment of this book, that "its chief purpose is to establish the time and place of the naming of America." Such language would seem to indicate that there had been some unsettling of such well-rooted convictions as were long ago fixed by Humboldt, and since fortified by Major, to say nothing of living scholars. It would seem to signify that the unbalanced judgments of Hurlbut, De Bris, Marcou, and a few others were become rampant realities. Inasmuch as these inconstant vagaries have not disturbed anybody, and since our author himself acknowledges that the circumstances of the "baptism" of the continent had been "understood for fifty years," there seemed hardly occasion to "establish" the facts, unless there was new material to bring forth and fresh arrangements of old material to present. The book in fact presents neither alternative; and, so far as the naming of the continent goes, it is the old story as told by a score of others. Even so important a monograph on the subject as the Waldseemüller of Davezac, Mr. Thacher quotes at second hand, though he is at pains to prove that critic wrong in regard to the priority of the unique copy of the 'Cosmographiæ Introductio' now in the Lenox Library, which the late Henry C. Murphy five-and-twenty years ago pronounced a made-up copy.

As to the very act of naming the continent, Mr. Thacher fails to comprehend the alternative of names which Waldseemüller offered, namely, Amerige (*i. e.*, the land of Americus) or America (the feminine form of the explorer's name). This distinction was equally disregarded by Mr. Mason, in an article in *Harper's Monthly*, October, 1892—from which Mr. Thacher borrows some points—as was pointed out at the time in these columns by Prof. Edward G. Bourne. Mr. Thacher, however, makes, in his translation, a blunder which Mr. Mason avoided. The sentence in the original text requires these alternative names to be in the accusative case, Amerigen (or Amerigem, as sometimes copied) and Americam. To English the sentence requires them to be given in the nominative form Amerige and America; the last Mr. Thacher gives correctly, but he keeps the other Amerigen. And this he does in every instance where he repeats his version of the Latin.

Mr. Thacher found it necessary to make a part of his subject the discovery by Columbus of the Antilles, and by Vespucius of the mainland. This leads him to a discussion of Columbus's landfall, which he rightly enough identifies with Watling's Island, in accordance with the present general opinion of scholars; but though he enumerates the principal critics upon this point, he seems not aware of the hydrographical deductions of Alexander Agassiz, nor of the nautical reasoning of Markham.

His other point is, that it was owing to the prior acquaintance of Vespucius with the northern continent that the little coterie at St.-Dié selected his name for the New World. In this he is not content with the fact, which Humboldt long ago emphasized, that it was not this uncertain voyage of 1497, but the surprising developments on the coast of South America, and Vespucius's description of them, which brought his fame into the ascendant while that of Columbus was declining. This is furthermore abundantly made manifest by the fact that the name "America" was applied to South America, and it was more than a lifetime before it was extended to North America in the Mercator map of 1538.

In following the arguments and representations of Varnhagen and Fiske—without, however, mentioning the latter—Mr. Thacher seeks to make it appear that Harrisse joins with these scholars in accrediting Vespucius with this undertaking of 1497. The fact is, however, that, with all his concessions—and he makes them fairly enough and with some necessity—Harrisse reaches no stronger conclusion than that the voyage is "not improbable"; and that is certainly about as far as sound and circumspect critics can go. With the arguments pro and con respecting this contested voyage of 1497, the English-reading public have of late been amply informed by the works of Markham and Fiske. Markham supports, without the best grounds, the old theory of an alibi for Vespucius. He identifies the incidents enumerated by Vespucius with those which characterized the voyage of Pinzon and Solis which took place after 1506. He appeals to the contemporary knowledge of Las Casas, and avers that those who discredit Herrera throw doubt on Las Casas, whose very language Herrera copies. Fiske has for the most part reiterated the arguments of Varnhagen, and they are now in a briefer way repeated by Mr. Thacher, who, to assist the student, reprints the original mongrel Italian of 1505, the Latin version of 1507, and the English rendering published by Quaritch in 1893. While there are some considerations which lead one to hesitate before wholly rejecting the voyage, the case is not helped by that reckless criticism which either ignores what is in the way, or by forced interpretation turns such obstacles about. The evidence of the Cantino and Canerio maps is of course additional to what Varnhagen employed, but this and that of the Peter Martyr map of 1511 by no means indicate that such a Vespucian voyage could but have induced their configuration of a coast northwest of Cuba. That such a coast did not result exclusively from this voyage of 1497 is clearly indicated by the gap in the coast line, where Vespucius says there was none. Again, it is an entire assumption on the part of the advocates of the voyage that Vespucius's own narrative called the country of his landfall Lariab and not Paria; the former name never appears again in accounts of that region, and the Latin corrected version is just as likely to be right as the careless mongrel Italian, and even more so.

It is somewhat amusing to find Mr. Thacher taking "comfort in following the lead" of Harrisse, when he apparently knows that *maestrale* means northwest, and not northerly, as Harrisse translates it, and for the reason that Harrisse's interpretation carries Vespucius, not to the California coast, where a northwest course (overland) would have taken him, but to the Carolina coast, by a track which in rounding Florida really boxed the compass, whence it was possible to return by an eastward course to Europe. It is always much better in historical problems to be left in doubt than to seek consistency by perverting evidence.

It is a pity that Mr. Thacher had not applied to this Vespucian voyage some of the caution with which he discusses the claim for the Apian map of 1520 to be the earliest "engraved chart and authentic map to bear the name of America." It certainly is the first map with that characteristic which bears a positive date; but to contend for its having that honor dogmatically is to discredit the views of such scholars as Davezac and Harrisse, who by analysis place the undated Hauslab gores before it; and the Nordenskiöld gores have the same priority allowed them. Mr. Thacher leaves out of consideration the Tross or Boulengier gores, for which a similar claim is also made. Scholars also generally credit what is known as the 1515 globe of Schöner, though Mr. Thacher treats that with the same distrust. In discrediting the Hauslab gores as marking a state of geographical knowledge anterior to the Apian map of 1520, he gives no recognition to the belief which Varnhagen and Davezac entertained, that those gores were the work of Waldseemüller; nor does he seem to understand that the gores are a production distinct from the Hauslab mounted globe, which Harrisse associates with

the Schöner globe of 1515, and which Gallois in 1890 strove to identify with the globe (which Waldseemüller often mentions) on which he said he was obliged to omit much that he put on his lost map, and which he intended to "conform to the descriptions of Vespucius."

With all his dependence upon Harrisse, it is apparent that Mr. Thacher has not studied him carefully. He says that "Harrisse has so effectually disposed of the claims of the Cabots that no scholar of to-day seriously contends for English priority" in discovering the mainland of North America. Harrisse really undertakes to prove that the date of the Cabot landfall as given on the Cabot mappemonde, June 24, 1497, is too late by two or three weeks, which would bring it early in that month; while by Mr. Thacher's own statements of the length of Vespucius's outward voyage, whether we take the Italian or Latin text of the narrative—and they do not agree—the Cabot landfall was a month earlier than the imagined sighting of the Honduras coast by Vespucius. If Mr. Thacher had said instead that Markham had disposed of the Cabot claim by reason of his denying that Cabot, in sighting Cape Breton, saw the mainland at all, there might be more question; but he appeals to Harrisse, who makes Cabot's landfall on the main of Labrador.

Mr. Thacher goes over the early maps largely for the purpose of showing that the geographers of that time very soon, or within four or five years of the discovery by Columbus, began to play fast and loose—as they certainly did—with the notion that the new lands constituted an independent continent beyond the Antilles. In this belief he would place Vespucius in the forefront, as he perhaps was, though the claim of Columbus to have reached India was denied by Peter Martyr even earlier. In all this Mr. Thacher seems not to have heard, while deploring the loss of all of Christopher Columbus's cartographical handiwork, of what is really the most important development of the last few years, the discovery, by Prof. Wieser, of a map which Bartholomew Columbus, doubtless with the privity of his brother, carried to Rome, after the last voyage, in which the two brothers were companions. This sketch-map shows that they had reached the conclusion that a sea lay beyond the Isthmus of Panama, which one must track if one would reach the Ganges and return to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope.

In his treatment of the early maps to establish identifications of landmarks Mr. Thacher is certainly not alone in the failure to understand that the most important factor in the problem is not longitude, or latitude, or even distance, but the course which they pursued in dependence upon the compass or the north star, since this is really the only element which is constant and immutable. A recognition of this principle would throw out more than one of his conclusions.

When he speaks of the La Cosa map as "the first map of the world ever made," it is hard to divine what Mr. Thacher means. If he intended to restrict that description to those which show any part of the New World, how would he class the Ptolemy maps of 1482, which show Greenland? Again, when he assumes that the continental coast trending north in the Cantino map was the result of Vespucius's exploration, he ignores the second voyage of Cabot, and sundry references to others than Spanish ships on the coast at an earlier date. Besides, there are a multitude of other interpretations to be disposed of—perhaps easily—like Stevens's theory of a "bogus Cuba," and Markham's belief that what is usually supposed to be the point of Florida was in reality the northern cape at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. Once more, when Mr. Thacher speaks of the possibility of the student chancing upon the facsimile of the Stobnicza map made at Amsterdam (by Muller, not Müller, as he prints it) to gain knowledge of it, before his own facsimile became known, he seems to ignore the reproduction of it which Mr. John Russell Bartlett introduced into the Carter-Brown Catalogue twenty years ago, and the numerous reproductions which have since been laid before American scholars.

Instances of misconception like these—and if we had more space we could multiply them—show that Mr. Thacher, while in his convenient series of maps he puts us under obligation, really has added nothing to our existing facilities beyond giving another resort for the student. It is well enough to have this series of maps at the end of his books, fourteen in all, ending with Ortelius, in the exact size of the originals, but this precision does not help scholarship. Mr. Thacher's book has evidently—as, indeed, he acknowledges—grown in his hands beyond his original purpose, and a profuse appropriation of paper has made it additionally larger. The features which mark the author's particular propensities are the attention which he gives to water-marks and binder's folds, the passion of a collector.

RECENT EDUCATIONAL WORKS.

The Common-School System of Germany and its Lessons to America. By Levi Seelye, Ph.D. New York: E. L. Kellogg & Co.

Horace Mann, the Educator. By Albert E. Winship. Boston: New England Publishing Co. 1896.

Froebel's Gifts. By Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora Archibald Smith. Boston: Houghton Mifflin & Co. 1896.

Child Observations. First Series: Imitation and Allied Activities. Edited by Miss Ellen M. Haskell. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1896.

A New Manual of Method. By A. H. Garlick, B.A., Head-Master of the Woolwich P. T. School. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

Second Year-Book of the National Herbart Society. Edited by Charles A. McMurry, Secretary, Normal, Illinois. Bloomington, Illinois: Pantagraph Printing and Stationery Co. 1896.

Hegel as Educator. By Frederic Ludlow Luqueer, Ph.D., Sometime Fellow in Education in Columbia University. Macmillan Co. 1896.

DR. SEELYE has spent four years in Germany, and now seeks to depict the Prussian school system and draw therefrom lessons applicable to American schools. He has read widely the current pedagogical literature and diligently visited German schools of all kinds. The kindergarten, he well reminds us, in Germany is not regarded as a school so much as a place where the children of poor parents can be left for the day. The women in charge of it have little training, and teachers generally regard its educational value as but slight. A rescript of the Minister of Education in 1884 forbids teaching even the rudiments of reading and number, and every other specific preparation for the work of the elementary schools. The author is greatly impressed with the contrast between this status of the kindergarten in the land of Froebel and its position in this country, where many of the brightest women are engaged in the work, and where it is constantly pressing upon the work of the public schools. His comparisons are carried up step by step through primary and secondary education. Chapters are also devoted to administration, buildings, school money, pensions, education of girls, examinations, courses, etc. The two needs in this country most urged are professional training of teachers and compulsory education for seven years. Here the author wants superintendents with large powers appointed for ten years; teachers' positions to be made permanent, and pensions provided. Best of all the thirty-seven chapters are those that deal with the training of teachers and the history of the Prussian school system. The merit of the book is extremely uneven, but, on the whole, it is one of the best of the many studies of German schools recently published in this country.

Mr. Winship's study of Horace Mann came just in time for the celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of his birth, May 4. The leading features of his life and his salient opinions are concisely stated, and bring home to our minds, what we were in danger of forgetting, the great work which his enthusiasm and devotion accomplished. The development of the public high school in place of the old endowed academy, the organization of teachers' associations, the establishment of normal schools and of school supervision, to say nothing of the great improvements in methods and the vast interest in public education which he aroused throughout the country—perhaps no one man in modern times has achieved more in this field. Like Fichte, Mann believed that education was the one holy cause of the world, devotion to which should measure the merit of men and states. That a member of Congress and President of the State Senate should resign his career to serve this cause, showed a sincerity which is no less manifest in the fourteen volumes of his life and works. If Lotze was right in saying that the supreme happiness of man is to get himself fully expressed, surely Horace Mann, with his passion for utterance in diaries, confidential personal letters, speeches, and controversies, must have been happy. The modern critic would call him neurotic. His enemies say that his statue in front of the Boston State House beside that of Daniel Webster, whom he prominently withstood, was erected by partisan zeal; and Mr. Winship's book shows, by its halting timidity in dealing with the great controversy with the forty-one Boston schoolmasters, which his biographer had almost omitted, how strong yet among the pedagogues of that city is the animus against reform. To our mind, Col. Parker's view is truer in this respect than that of Commissioner Harris.

'Froebel's Gifts,' really the work of the second of the two authors named in the title, is the first of three volumes to appear on the theory and practice of the kindergarten. As the last of so many books on this topic we think it may be regarded, as indeed it should be, as also the best. The author has had mature experience as a kindergartener, and is well up in kindergarten metaphysics. She evidently does not know German, but there is almost nothing good on that subject now which is not in English. Her mind is candidly open to results from the new field of child-study which is so fruitful of transforming suggestions in this field, and it is to be hoped that the later volumes will more fully utilize re-

sults in these lines. No two parties in the whole range of education are perhaps more widely apart than the old orthodox metaphysical Froebelians on the one hand and the progressives on the other. Miss Smith stands well between, but with a leaning towards the old. The stultifying effect of the worship of sphere, cube, and cylinder and the other mathematical and mechanical gifts upon school drawing, and the possibility of radical reconstructions here, do not occur to Miss Smith. Still, on the whole, we must cordially admit her book to be the best in any language in its limited sphere.

Miss Haskell has selected from 35,000 incidents illustrating the nature of children, which Principal Russell of the State Normal School at Worcester has taught his pupils to record, 1,207 cases of imitation which are typical, and which are divided into eleven groups or chapters, by the ages three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, twelve, and sixteen. These charming records are printed baldly, without a word of comment or theory; but in a thirty-page introduction by Principal Russell we are reminded, on the authority of Darwin and Huxley, that there is no wall of circumvallation that separates science from common sense; that observation must be superficial before it can be deep; that the mind grows somewhat like the skull, from centres of ossification that are at first independent and grow together later; that the child is not an homunculus, but a radically different being from the adult; that the irresistible fascination of these records suggests a more or less prolonged stage of silent education by imitation. On the whole, this book should be ranked with the works of Burroughs, Thoreau, and Jefferies as a brilliant and suggestive bit of nature-study directed towards nature's consummate flower, the child—of all things in the world the object most worthy of love, reverence, study, and service.

Mr. Garlick attempts to give in one small volume an epitome of school hygiene, discipline, classification, teaching, object lessons, and each of the chief branches of school work, based on ten years' experience as headmaster of the Woolwich P. T. School. From its nature the book does not lend itself to description. It is copiously illustrated with cuts of apparatus, object-lessons, etc., and the author has carefully studied the English literature of his subject, so that he speaks in a broad, comparative way. It is the best manual of its scope and size in English, but its chief fault of overcrowding and of too much fine type is rather grave.

The fourteen articles of the Second Year-Book of the Herbartian Society are chiefly devoted to culture-epochs, or the differences and likenesses between the stages of development in the race and the child. Professors Hinsdale, White, and Galbraith see but little fruitfulness in comparing philogeny and ontogeny. Professor Dewey urges that in these comparisons the child and not the race should lead. Dr. McMurry vigorously champions his own very ingenious application of the "epoch" method to American schools against the above attacks, and against the five-fold courses recommended by the Committee of Fifteen. The best article by far is that of Dr. Lukens, who makes a clear case against many theories of muscle-training, and would have all children pass through a prolonged period of receptivity—all the cortex being sensory and only one-third being motor—before active education should begin. A play stage must precede every successful direction of education by work. Drill cannot come till the motor has overtaken the sensory development. He would begin handwriting two or three years later, put its chief strain on the fifth school year, and then stop it, and advises that a long period of free and spontaneous drawing precede the grammar and rhetoric of the pencil. In fine, the Herbartian Society has made here a very important contribution towards the clearing up of many of the most obscure practical problems of education.

Dr. Luqueer has gathered, translated, or condensed Hegel's most important contributions to pedagogy, preceding them by a valuable account of Hegel's educational life. Although this great idealist himself wrote no treatise on pedagogics, his disciple Rosenkranz has evolved from his system a philosophy of education widely read in this country. With the aid of this and of Thaulow's work the author has given us a very serviceable picture of Hegel's conceptions in a more concrete form than they have hitherto had either in English or in German.

THREE NOVELS.

The Governor's Garden: A Relation of Some Passages in the Life of His Excellency, Thomas Hutchinson, sometime Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of His Majesty's Province of Massachusetts Bay. By George R. R. Rivers. Boston: Joseph Knight. 1896.

A Bad Penny. By John T. Wheelwright, author of 'A Child of the Century,' 'Rollo's Journey to Cambridge,' etc. With illustrations by F. G. Attwood. [Papyrus Series.] Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. 1896.

Will o' the Wasp: A Sea Yarn of the War of '12. Edited by Henry Lawrence, U. S. N., and now brought before the public for the first time. By Robert Cameron Rogers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

THE tremendous accession of "patriotism" which our country experienced last winter has operated to produce several new stories turning on critical periods in American history. Mr. George R. R. Rivers gives us one, founded on the garden of Gov. Hutchinson. He tells us that he has spent most of his life on this estate in Milton, and has long had the design of writing such a story and exhibiting the Governor in his true character. Notoriously the character of Hutchinson has given rise to very bitter discussion, and no doubt the favorable view of him lately produced by Prof. Hosmer will come nearer the final verdict of history than the traditional conception of a dark and designing minion of tyranny. But no one before Mr. Rivers ever pictured him as an amiable old twaddler, whose time in 1774 was wholly occupied in gush over the beauties of the "pleached" walks of his garden on Milton Hill, surrounded exclusively by domestic society, and seeing nothing of such friends and enemies as Andrew Oliver or Samuel Adams. Mr. Rivers's Hutchinson may be Thomas, but he is no Governor at all, good or bad. He is surrounded by a mass of melodramatic characters, impossible Indians and extinct pirates, liberal Tories, and bigoted Whigs, lovers and villains, who career in a wild dance at all seasons of the year from Nantasket Roads by Summer Street and the Neponset River to Blue Hill (of which Mr. Rivers asserts the ancient name to have been *Massawachusett*, a form not common with our historians) and Ponkapoag; all these spots being, of course, perfectly clear in the mind's eye of a life-long Miltonite, but far otherwise even to the average Bostonian. When they have exhausted these unhappy hunting-grounds, it is a trifle to go marooning in the Caribbean Sea, or robbing travellers not far from Gadshill. It is not pleasant to speak harshly of what is a labor of love; but when one thinks of the 'Heart of Midlothian,' one is amazed that a cultivated New Englander should imagine that he is honoring his historic home by such soulless puppets traversing such unreal ground. The story appears in a kind of imitation antique style, the proper names being all in italics, and is illustrated by several black profiles, which the author tells us are chiefly fictitious.

We have also two stories apparently intended to support the thesis that the war of 1812 was a source of unmitigated glory to the United States, and especially to New England. Mr. John T. Wheelwright, who gained considerable reputation some years ago for reckless comicalities, has had the courage to bring into the fiercest light the only naval contest of that war which is remembered in England—the battle of the *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*—as if, after all, it redounded to America's credit. His hero is a runaway boy from "Oldbury" (Newbury), selected on the "wild-oats" theory—namely, that if you wish to find a thoroughly intelligent, honorable, and right-feeling young man, who will prove entirely trustworthy in ordinary times and heroic in a crisis, you must look for him in the family plague, who steadily resists all attempts to train him according to the accepted standards of his time; it being understood that a boy of fifteen is sure to know what is worth while for him to do better than anybody three or four times his age. The story is lively and carries one on easily to the dénouement; the good people being mostly bad, and the bad people mostly good. There are some clever descriptions of places and manners in the first decade of this century. But, surely, such a word as "gripsack" was unknown in those days; would it were now! Mr. Wheelwright twice makes one of his characters play with a "fob," which he evidently imagines to be a kind of outside appendage to an antique watch; if he will read over the first scene of Gulliver's life in Lilliput and the inventory of his property, he will find out what a fob is. He has probably one on his own person at this moment.

A much better story of this period is 'Will o' the Wasp,' by Robert Cameron Rogers. Readers of the 'Autocrat' will remember how Dr. Holmes speaks of the intense interest attaching in his boyhood to the gallant *Wasp*, which disappeared towards the end of the war, and was never heard of. This "yarn" purports to be the adventures of an old sailor who saw her sink, was taken prisoner and paroled in England, but, being affected in the head by an old wound, never thoroughly realized his position, and lived to extreme old age in the delusion that the countries were still at war. It is an extremely spirited and carefully written narrative of the imaginary triumphs and escapes of an ancient corvette, and may be cordially commended to all those who love stories of naval adventure, especially if, like the Hon. Theodore Roosevelt, they are all on fire to have some more fighting at sea with somebody.

Introduction to the Study of Latin Inscriptions. By James C. Egbert, jr., Ph.D., Ad-

junct Professor of Latin, Columbia College. American Book Co. 1896.

WORDSWORTH'S 'Fragments and Specimens' and Allen's small but most scholarly and compendious 'Remnants of Early Latin' have hitherto been the only books in English which served as an introduction to the study of Latin inscriptions. In neither of them is the matter confined to inscriptions alone, for it includes also the remains of archaic literature. There has long been a call for a work of some size which should be devoted solely to the teaching of what the classical student is constantly wanting to know about Latin epigraphy, and such a work Prof. Egbert has provided.

The volume is a small quarto of 468 pages, printed in clear and sometimes in inscriptional type, with numerous process reproductions from the stones themselves. The introduction contains a general bibliography of the subject, including periodical literature, and an account of the contents of the 'Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum,' with useful explanations of the means of presentation employed in these volumes and of their general economy. Then follows the first part, consisting of three chapters—the first and second on the Latin alphabet, historical and morphological, the third on numerals. In the second chapter we note a particularly good account of the methods of Roman stonecutters—a topic too often neglected, yet, in its details, often of the first importance in determining the weight to be attached to the documents under consideration. The chapter on numerals, too, will be welcomed by many who have wrestled with this delicate matter, whether in studying the stones or in composing modern Latin inscriptions after the ancient pattern. Each chapter in this and in the two other parts concludes with a special bibliography.

The personal name plays a most important part in inscriptions. The student must understand the nature of Roman names in order to comprehend inscriptions, and, on the other hand, inscriptions are our chief source of information about the nature of names, since, as Prof. Egbert remarks, in them "the Roman name has its fullest use and most complete form." The first chapter of the second part is, therefore, devoted to this subject, and deals in a clear and trustworthy manner with the appellations of men, women, freedmen, naturalized citizens, and slaves. The names and titles of the emperors are treated in the second, and official titles in general in the third chapter of this part. Here, and calling for special praise, is a chronological list of the emperors, with their various titles and the dates when these titles were assumed, calculated even to months and days. For this valuable contribution the author thanks Mr. George Olcott, a Fellow of Columbia College.

In the first chapter of the third part we pass from public to private life, and are shown dedicatory, sepulchral, and honorary inscriptions, together with a wide selection from inscriptions cut upon comparatively small and movable objects. To show how deeply the author goes, we need only refer to his quotation of several examples of oculists' stamps—tablets intended to be placed upon eye-salves and the like, giving the name of the physician, the disease, the remedy, and the method of its application. The next chapter is devoted to public documents, such as laws, decrees, and diplomas, to private documents, such as wax tablets, and to graffiti. The last chapter tells how inscriptions are restored and dated, and concludes with a table of Latin abbreviations, covering over forty pages.

Prof. Egbert is thoroughly at home in his subject, and all English-speaking students must be grateful to him for his clear and simple presentation of it. His book should be in the revolving bookcase of every classical scholar, while college teachers will find it admirably adapted to the needs of classes in epigraphy, since many of its pages are given up to inscriptions for practice, provided with brief explanatory notes. The author's style is interesting, and the publishers have done all in their power to add to the attractiveness of the work. We venture to prophesy that it has before it a long and useful future.

A Primer of Evolution. By Edward Clodd. Longmans, Green & Co. 12mo, pp. 186. Illustrated.

INJUSTICE is done to this excellent little work by calling it a primer. It is an abridgment rather than an elementary first book, and it is suited to educated readers or advanced students rather than beginners. The story of creation is admirably told; it is the story of the changes of matter, ethereal, gaseous, liquid, solid, and living. The beginning is beyond us. Matter, force, and energy may possibly be one; the transition between inorganic and organic energies may be possibly found in the electric group; having the same ingredients, the difference between the inorganic and the organic must lie in the mixing, the greater complexities of the organic constituting difference in degree but not in kind.

"The organism has—(1) infinite complexity of structure; (2) inherited tendencies; (3) mobility and continuous motion, therefore capacity to vary. (4) Variations are induced by the surroundings on which, as vehicles of energy, life depends; (5) when the surroundings change, the organism adapts itself or not to the change; (6) such as fail to adapt themselves perish; (7) such as adapt themselves vary in greater or lesser degree; (8) these variations, being transmitted, are stages in the development of different life-forms. To put the matter briefly, likenesses are inherited, variations are acquired."

Concerning intellectual functions, our author states that there is no break in the series which, starting in reflex movements in amœbæ and carnivorous plants, advances along the line of animal instinct and intelligence, and ends in the complex movements of the brain of civilized man with its infinite modes of response to infinite stimuli; that there is fundamental correspondence between the nervous systems of the lowest and the highest; that there is not a faculty of the human mind which is not possessed in lesser or greater degree by the animals nearer to man; that instinct is a higher form of reflex action, and that the distinction which man has set up between instinct and reason is unreal.

That portion of the book relating to the causes of the diversity in living forms is the least satisfactory. The explanation is very familiar and very inadequate, namely: the modifications which exist have been developed through the potent agency of natural and sexual selection acting upon variations induced by diverse conditions; more organisms are born than survive; the race is to the swift, and the battle to the strong—the weaker, be it in brain or body, going to the wall, the vast majority never reaching maturity, or, if they do arrive at it, attaining it only to be starved or slain; victory is assured to that form which has some advantage, etc. "The vast majority" makes an impressive showing in figures, but it was destroyed by accidents before strength and swiftness were developed, and there is no reason why the survival of the remainder in great part may not also have been due to accidents. The slower or the weaker may have withdrawn from competition, through intelligence or reason, selecting a dwelling in the rocks or the thickets, to establish new tendencies in variation, and finally a new race, without any other form of selection.

Spiritual matters are passed over by our author with scant consideration: the duty of theology, he says, is to readjust itself to what science proves to be true, otherwise it is doomed; in the end, when it is seen that theories about gods and all other spiritual beings have nothing whatever to do with man's duty to his fellows, he will occupy himself with that duty alone.

The Astronomy of Milton's 'Paradise Lost.' By Thomas N. Orchard. Longmans, Green & Co.

MR. ORCHARD has by no means confined himself to the strict limits which his title-page suggests, but has used his subject rather as a peg whereon to hang a discourse which enters deeply into general historical and descriptive astronomy. Indeed, one who takes up the volume through interest in Milton may reasonably feel somewhat disappointed that there is so much astronomy and comparatively so little Milton. Our author's method is a logical one, for he outlines the story of astronomy up to Milton's time, describes the changes which the previous century had wrought in scientific and popular belief, notes the acquaintance of the poet with Galileo and other leaders of thought, describes the objects which are mentioned in the poem, including, of course, everything in the heavens that is noteworthy, and, incidentally to this description, brings forward the quotations which have reference to all these objects.

One cannot help praising the literary work of Mr. Orchard, for his English is good, and he gives an excellent review of 'Paradise Lost,' which evidences much thought and study. The astronomy, too, is of pretty good quality. It is true that it is of the picturesque rather than the precise, for the author has apparently a better acquaintance with what has been written about astronomy than with the opinions and practices of the working astronomer of the day. He has therefore perpetuated some minor errors, and has occasionally missed the real point of interest respecting the object described. For example, the universality of the law of gravitation is stated to have been proved by observations of the motions of the double stars. The thoughtful astronomer of to-day cannot quite agree with Mr. Orchard, albeit he is repeating what has been said before. The computer of the double-star orbit *assumes* the law and bases his deductions upon this assumption. Lacking proof as yet, he begs the whole question, and hopes by reasoning backwards from effect to establish the cause. Then, again, it is an inexact statement to say that some of the orbits of the double stars "approach in form that of a comet." The comparison might be of value in conveying an idea to children or to those who are inexpert; but when one understands such technical terms as eccentric, apastron, and the like (as one must who reads the book), and can appreciate a parallax of 1-20 of a second, and can realize that a globe subtending an angle of 5′ must have a real diameter 1-687 of its distance from the eye, etc., one is above the kindergarten illustra-

tion, and can learn that ellipses may be of very different forms, and that the orbits of the double stars form a well defined group which is perhaps midway between the almost circular orbits of the planets and the very elongated ellipses of the periodical comets. The presentation of an account of the variable star, Mira Ceti, which makes no mention of the fact that its vagaries have fairly driven the patient observers wild, is lacking in completeness, for this extreme irregularity of light-variation is the most interesting feature of Mira "the wonderful."

It is unfortunate that some of the statements put forth by Mr. Orchard have been superseded by scientific activity during the preparation of his book. Thus, Gore's orbit of 70 Ophiuchi, which is figured in the volume, has been replaced by See's orbit of the same double star, and the latter, with its introduction of a third body into the system, is quite different from Gore's. The periodical time of Mira Ceti is no longer given as 334 days, which are Mr. Orchard's figures, but for thirty years certainly has been known to be 331 days, and the most rapid in period of the double stars is no longer Mr. Orchard's Delta Equulei, but Kappa Pegasi, while there are indications that still a third star will halve the diminished periodic time. These matters are all minor ones, it is true, and have little to do with Milton, but they do affect the character of the book.

The historical portion of the volume is quite as minute as is the descriptive astronomy, and serves to show Milton's relation to the science. It presents in concise form the beginnings of astronomy, passes to the consideration of the work of the old philosophers and students, Thales, Pythagorus, Hipparchus, and Ptolemy, then the more modern masters, Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, Keppler, and Galileo, most of whom have biographical notices several pages in length. Then there is outlined the astronomy of the seventeenth century, to show the environment of the poet. Copernicus had been dead half a century when Milton was born, but the celestial system which he originated was not generally accepted in England even when Milton had reached man's estate. The early education of the poet, therefore, gave him the idea of the Ptolemaic scheme, a central earth, with the sun and planets (each in its own sphere) revolving about it. In his earlier poems he is quite committed to this idea, but there is reason to think that before he died he believed with Copernicus. Some passages in 'Paradise Lost' give evidence of this, but, for other reasons, the general idea which prevails in the great poem is the Ptolemaic. The literature and models which Milton studied were addicted to the older cosmography, and the scheme of Ptolemy afforded picturesque and poetical features that are lacking in the Copernican. To a remarkable extent Milton embodied in his poem the science, philosophy, and theology of his times, and in astronomy the accuracy of his facts fairly divides the honors with the beauty of his language. His astronomy was most remarkable, and Mr. Orchard has brought abundant proof as to its quality and fulness.

Poems of Uhland. Selected and Edited by Waterman T. Hewett, Ph.D., Professor of the German Language and Literature in Cornell University. Macmillan. 1896.

THE first collection of Uhland's poems appeared in 1815, and in 1875 they reached their sixtieth edition; since then this average of one edition annually has been greatly increased. His poetry has become an essential part of the culture of the German people, and the innumerable translations and musical settings it has received have made it an international possession. The modesty which distinguished the poet's character still attaches to our estimate of him. We involuntarily think of Uhland as one of "the humbler poets," and yet, if we except Goethe, there is none among the lyric poets of Germany that surpasses him. An excellent test of a poet's lyric quality is an appeal to the composers. Beethoven and Weber and, strangest of all, Franz, have never set Uhland to music, but we have the authority of Dr. Max Friedlaender for the statement that, after Goethe, Uhland is equalled only by Eichendorff and Heine in the estimation of composers. It is with a disapproving side-glance at Heine that Prof. Hewett writes of Uhland: "He never utters a sentiment and then scoffs at himself, because he has trusted and loved." On this genuineness rests Uhland's best title to his lofty place.

This handsome edition includes more than two hundred out of a total of about three hundred and fifty poems. Prof. Hewett's judicious annotations and carefully prepared critical apparatus are a credit to American scholarship. An excellent biographical introduction contains all the essential facts in the story of the poet's busy life. The bibliography is far from complete, but all the more important publications are recorded. The list of English translations and translators is apparently all-inclusive, and it is so valuable a feature that no edition of the works of a foreign writer should ever be published without it. When we add that besides the initial index there is also a chronological list of the poems and an index to first lines, it will be seen that everything has been done for the convenience of the student. For the quality of paper and typography the publishers' name is a guarantee. There are several misprints, but we have noticed only two that are at all likely to mislead: on p. xxi the date of "Des Knaben Wunderhorn" should be, not 1805, but 1806–1808; and on p. 342, Fraenkel's edition is dated 1839—a half-century too early.

Aux États-Unis. Par Dr. Auguste Lutaud. New York: Brentano's. 1896.

DR. LUTAUD saw a good deal of the United States, and his general impressions were those of a fair-minded observer. There is nothing very original in his volume; even his remarks on the "drug-store," in which he has called attention to one of the most fundamental differences between European and American civilization, yet one which has been generally overlooked, seem to be in part taken from another writer. Nevertheless they deserve notice. What the English call a chemist and we an apothecary occupies on the Continent a position entirely different from that which he holds generally in the United States. In France, for instance, his business is not regarded as purely commercial. It partakes of a solemn and professional character; the druggist is an educated man, must invariably have a diploma, and, when he "fills a prescription," officiates responsibly, almost as one holding a public office. In this country, speaking in general, he is a merchant, a vender not merely of drugs, but of a dozen other things which, to a European, have no sort of connection with his calling. He sells not only certain things which are connected with the care of the body—*e. g.*, tooth powder, hair brushes and hair tonics, and perfumes—but he has a soda-fountain, behind which he establishes a bar-tender, who serves out not merely soda-water and syrups, as in the earlier and purer days of the republic, but all sorts of beverages, many of them of a highly alcoholic character; he has also a stock of cigars and cigarettes, and he not infrequently has a supply of stationery, liquors, candy, canes, and umbrellas, pocket-books, razors, knives, and "notions" generally. If he is a benevolent man, he always has on hand not only a city directory for free consultation, but a few postage stamps. Dr. Lutaud would have us believe that he is also a florist; this, however, is an inaccuracy which may be pardoned in a foreign observer.

It must be confessed that for accurate observation we do not go with absolute security to French writers of "impressions de voyage." When Dr. Lutaud says that one does not spend any more in travelling here than in Europe (p. 5), he contradicts not only Baedeker, but common experience, and makes a statement which is certainly not supported by that made on p. 98, that one may in New York be asked a dollar for washing a shirt. Surely error must lurk somewhere here. He is perfectly right in remarking that a railroad crossing in the United States makes the traveller understand in how free a country he is; but the warning addressed to the public is not usually, "Take care; the railroad is crossing here" (p. 40). The worthy doctor is mistaken in thinking that "pride alone can explain the existence" of buildings twenty five stories high; and no statue, so far as we are aware, has been put up in Madison Square to the memory of any one named William Stewart (p. 88). Central Park was not, as some one seems to have told him, laid out by a French engineer (p. 90), nor do the gigantic boats which ply on the Hudson carry travellers "from New York to Buffalo" (p. 92).

The advice given for ocean voyages (p. 31) is only in part good. "If seasick, remain in your cabin" will do only for the Latin race. The Anglo-Saxon rule is the reverse of this. On the other hand, "Don't try to comfort persons who are seasick; you will only increase their shame and wretchedness" is excellent, as is also, "Don't tell stories of shipwreck to your neighbors at table"; "Don't forget that the steward is an important person"; "Don't ask when you will arrive; not even the captain can tell you." One of the most amusing things in the book is the account, given in the chapter on the Mormons, of the steps taken by the Cannon household to conform to the law suppressing polygamy.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, L. W. Abraham Lincoln: A Poem. Putnams. $1.
A Story of the Heavenly Camp-Fires. Harpers. $1.25.
Bayne, S. G. The Path of Astronomy. Harpers. $1.
Beebe, Katherine. Home Occupations for Little Children. Chicago: The Werner Co. 75c.
Boggs, Martha F. A Romance of the New Virginia. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Bolmer, W. B. The Time is Coming. G. W. Dillingham. $1.
Brasza, Countess di. A Literary Farce. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Brooks, J. W. History of the Court of Common Pleas of the City and County of New York. The Author. $5.
Chautauqua Required Literature for 1896-7. 5 vols. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Cochran, Mrs. M. A. Poole: An Army Story. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1 25.
Collinson, Joseph. What it Costs to be Vaccinated. London. William Reeves
Conrad, Joseph. An Outcast of the Islands. Appletons. $1.
Conwell, R. H., and Perkins, T. E. Songs Tried and Proved. Philadelphia: A. J. Rowland. 30c.
Cœur d'Or. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's. 75c.
Conyngham, Dane. Eunice Quince, American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Cornish, W. W. M. Behind Plastered Walls. G. W. Dillingham. $1
Dana, C. A. Proudhon, and his "Bank of the People." B. R. Tucker.

D'Annunzio, Gabriele. Episcopo & Company. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
De la Camp, Otto A. A Spiritual Tour of the World. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Deschamps, Gaston. La Vie et les Livres. Troisième Série. Paris: Colin & Cie
Dicey, A. V. A Digest of the Law of England, with Reference to the Conflict of Laws. With Notes of American Cases, by J. B. Moore. London: Stevens & Sons; Boston: Boston Book Co.
Dickinson, Mrs Ellen E. The King's Daughters. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Dugard, M. La Société Américaine. Paris: Hachette; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Hardwicke, Henry. History of Oratory and Orators. Putnams. $3.
Harvey, Charles M. History of the Republican Party, together with the Proceedings of the Republican National Convention at St. Louis. St. Louis: I. Haas Publishing Co.
Hume, Fergus. The Third Volume. Cassell. 50c.
Jayne, Lieut R. H. The Golden Rock. American Publishers Corporation.
Jokai, Maurus Black Diamonds. Harpers. $1.50.
Lynn, W. T. Remarkable Eclipses. London: Edward Stanford.
Macpherson, Hector. Here's to the Heather: Poems and Songs. New York: Scottish-American Press.
Melville, Herman. Moby Dick. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Melville, Herman. Omoo. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Melville, Herman. The White Jacket. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Merron, Eleanor. As the Wind Blows. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Mossell, Rev. C. W. Tous-aint L'Ouverture; or, Hayti's Struggle. Lockport, N. Y.: Ward & Cobb.
Needham, Geo C. Conflict and Conquest. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 50c.
Pritchard, M. J. Without Sin: A Novel. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Rexdale, Robert, The Cuban Liberated. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Roberts, C. G. D. The Canadian Guide-Book. Appletons.
Scidmore, Eliza R. Guide-Book to Alaska and the Northwest Coast. Appletons.

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Bronson's French Verb Blanks. 8vo, 50c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 27, 1896.

The Week.

THE meeting at Madison Square Garden on Tuesday night of last week was immense in every way, and its effect upon the country as a contrast to the Bryan demonstration of the previous week must have been great. It is hard to speak of such a meeting without falling into the language of hyperbole. It is sufficient to say that more people came than there was room for in the vast building, that they came to listen and to learn, that they gave eager attention for an hour and a quarter to a closely reasoned argument, and that they applauded enthusiastically and repeatedly every sentiment that coupled the American name with honest dealing and honest money. The meeting was a great tribute to Mr. Bourke Cockran as an orator, but it was a far greater one to the cause which he advocated. The call for an honest-money Democratic convention in this State came as a fitting echo to the meeting. It would have been strange indeed if there were no Democratic leaders here who were capable of assuming direction of the party indignation which was revealed at that meeting. Every allusion which Mr. Cockran made to party honor and principle as being more worthy of preservation than party regularity, was greeted with prolonged shouts of approval. Nothing in his speech commanded more hearty commendation from an assemblage obviously composed very largely of Democrats than the following declaration:

"A Democratic convention may renounce the Democratic faith, but the Democracy remains faithful to Democratic principles. Democratic leaders may betray a convention to the Populists, but they cannot seduce the footsteps of Democratic voters from the pathway of honor and of justice. A candidate bearing the mandate of a Democratic convention may in this hall open a canvass levelled against the foundations of social order, and he beholds the Democratic masses confronting him, organized for the defence."

It has been plain since the nomination of Mr. Bryan that he commands no support in this city or State from the most eminent men of the Democratic party, or from the great mass of the party's rank and file. At the same time it has been revealed that he does have the support of a majority of the regular party machine, and that if the machine has its own way in the matter, the regular Democratic convention will approve his candidacy, and nominate Bryan and Sewall electors as the only regular Democratic Presidential ticket in the field. In view of this situation it was inevitable that self-respecting Democrats should take formal action to show that there was still some moral purpose left in their party. They have called a State convention to meet at Syracuse on August 31 to elect delegates to the Indianapolis convention, and they ask the coöperation of all Democrats in the State "who reject the Chicago platform and nominees, and who believe that labor should be paid in honest dollars, and that debts, public and private, should not be repudiated, but should be scrupulously paid; of all Democrats who would defeat the attack now sacrilegiously made in the name of Democracy upon industry and thrift, and would protect from attack savings-bank depositors, pensioners of the war, beneficiaries of life insurance, and earners of honest wages in every form, and of all Democrats who have been and are loyal to the principles and policy to which the Democratic party has steadfastly adhered during more than a century." If they cannot assemble an impressive convention on that platform, then their party is fitly represented by Sheehan, the defaulter, and Danforth, the canvasser of illegal election returns; and the sooner the fact is made known the better.

The part of Bryan's New York speech which is going to prove most effective against him is that in which he contended that the passage of a free-coinage law would raise the price of silver so that a silver dollar would be worth as much as a gold one. "We contend," he said, "that free and unlimited coinage by the United States alone will raise the bullion value of silver to its coinage value, and thus make silver bullion worth $1.29 per ounce in gold throughout the world." As a contention this is, of course, ridiculous. It not only flies in the face of reason, but also in that of our recent national experience. Senator Stewart and the other silverites "contended" in 1890 that "four and a half millions a month would certainly put silver to par," and yet under the Sherman law providing for purchases to that amount the price of silver in the market fell from $1.06 per ounce at the time of its enactment to 73 cents when it was repealed. If the country had never tried this experiment of booming the price of silver by legislation, its advocates might stand some chance of making people believe that there is something in the theory that it can be done. So, too, if the experiment had been made long ago and under entirely different conditions. But the trial has occurred within the past six years, and everybody is so familiar with the result that it seems like an affront to intelligence to bring out the disproved theory now.

However, Bryan has committed himself in this claim to the idea that the silver dollar ought to be worth 100 cents in gold. Of course he had to do this in order to escape the accusation that the policy which he advocates would enable people to repudiate half their debts by paying them with silver dollars that would be worth only about 50 cents in gold. But the free-coinage men have no wish for honest silver dollars, and they are plainly telling their candidate that he is altogether wrong in suggesting the possibility that there will be silver dollars of this sort. The Detroit *Tribune*, which is perhaps the most earnest advocate of free coinage in the Western press, took Bryan up on this claim at once, and is publishing articles every day to show that he is altogether wrong. Here is a sample of what it says:

"It is the contention of rational defenders of free coinage that it would not raise silver to a parity at the existing ratio, and upon that fact they base chiefly their claim that free coinage will bring relief. We insist that free coinage is a good thing, because under it the dollar as at present expressed by 23.2 grains of gold metal will disappear at once and never return to oppress us."

It is a great thing for the sound-money cause to get the advocates of free coinage out openly on this platform, because it shows that their policy, by their own confession, means repudiation.

One of the commonest sayings of the supporters of Bryan is that there is no silver in Europe that could be spared to come to this country, and consequently that all the talk about our being inundated with that metal in the event that we adopt free coinage at the ratio of 16 to 1 is nonsensical. If this were true, it would still be necessary to account for the silver of Asia, which is a much larger quantity. But the *Nachrichten* of Bremen of August 6 furnishes a conclusive answer to the statement that there is no silver to spare in Europe. In an editorial on "The Presidential Election in the United States," it says:

"What, then, would the victory of the American silver party mean? In the first place, it would furnish us a magnificent opportunity to get rid of our old thalers. In a similar manner, other nations, too, especially France and Belgium, would dump their superabundance of silver, which gives them so much trouble, upon the American market, and—like other nations, too—would use American free silver coinage to carry out the unavoidable transition to the gold standard. Furthermore it would be very profitable for the refining works and arbitrage houses to ship their silver, and to exchange for it American products at half the price which American consumers have to pay. Even if the United States should wish to exclude foreign silver, or, to speak more accurately, if they could, the director of the mint would soon see further billions of silver [marks] accumulate in addition to the two billions [marks] of silver which he has already in his vaults. What dangers to industrial life are implied in this accumulation of fictitious values, has been clearly shown by the outflow of gold, as well as by the crisis of 1893, the panic on the Exchange on December 26, 1895, and July 16, 1896."

The explanation of this matter is that the German Government is pledged to retire

all the old silver thalers at some time, and is only awaiting a convenient opportunity to do so. Such an opportunity would be furnished by a free-coinage law in the United States, and would be immediately availed of. A large lot of these old thalers are lying in the vaults of the Reichsbank, and these would be immediately available. Probably all the rest could be gathered up before Mr. Bryan could bring Congress together in extra session to enact such a law.

Bryan's candidacy bears some striking resemblances to Greeley's as his campaign advances. There is the same wrangling between two separate campaign committees. Greeley had his Liberal Republicans, who were at war with the Democrats, each being suspicious of the other, and each anxiously in search of the campaign funds which never came. Bryan has his Populist and his Democratic committees, who are agitated by like distrust and anxiety, and every day brings the two into more irreconcilable positions. Then he has what Greeley did not have, two candidates for Vice-President on his ticket with him, both of whom insist upon running, and one of whom persists in assailing not only his rival at the tail of the ticket, but also the head of the ticket. Greeley was able to accept both nominations which were made of himself, the Liberal Republican and the Democratic, but Bryan has as yet been able to accept only one of the two offered him, and it is clear that the longer he waits about the second the more difficult will acceptance be. All these conflicting and confusing influences are combining daily to create a popular distrust of his candidacy, and to make it certain that when election day arrives he will receive, as Greeley did, a vote of lack of confidence from the country.

The Popocratic appeal for campaign funds puts the Bryan campaign on the Altgeld-Tillman level. There is not a word in it about Democratic principles. It is a frantic effort to array the "plain people" against the "favored classes," and it is expressed in the language which has been familiar to us in the Ocala platform and in the speeches of all the Populist and Anarchist orators for the past dozen years or more. We must be "big enough and strong enough to have our own financial policy; if not, then we are the serfs of the money-changers of Europe, and are doomed to a vassalage more ignominious and more degrading than that against which our fathers fought a century ago." "We have allied against us in this contest not only the financial forces of Europe, but the subsidized press and all the monopolies and Trusts here at home." "To the overflowing treasury of the money powers we will oppose the accumulated offerings of the masses fighting to be free, and ask the Ruler of the Universe for his blessing." These are the ravings of despair as well as of pure Populism. The writer of the address has clearly given up all hope of any assistance from the respectable and intelligent section of the Democratic party, and is placing all his hopes of success upon the ragtag and bobtail of all parties. His address will add force to the third-ticket movement by showing the importance of having some candidate in the field for whom self-respecting Democrats, who cannot bring themselves to abandon their party, may cast their votes.

That is an excellent example which the sound-money men of both parties are setting in the Raleigh district of North Carolina. The present Representative is a Populist, who is of course a silver man, and who owed his success two years ago to the support of the Republicans. He has been renominated by the Populists. The Democrats have nominated a candidate, who is also for free coinage. Under these circumstances the Republicans have put up a man who is a pronounced advocate of the gold standard, and he will be supported also by those Democrats who believe in sound money. Democrats of this school communicated with the leaders of the Republican party in the district before the latter made its nomination, and asked that a man be selected whom they could accept because he was right on the burning issue.

We have heard accounts from time to time of the strength of the Democratic revolt against Bryan in the State of Kentucky. All these accounts were more than confirmed by the convention of sound-money Democrats held at Louisville on Thursday, at which 4,000 men assembled from all parts of the State to form an organization and send delegates to the Indianapolis convention. A full electoral ticket was nominated and a full delegation to the National convention appointed. The name of Gen. S. B. Buckner was proposed as a candidate for Vice-President on the National ticket. A telegram from Senator Lindsay was read saying that he was prevented by illness from attending the convention, and expressing his hearty sympathy with the objects of the convention. Senator Lindsay had previously been claimed as a supporter of the Bryan ticket. As there is no defection whatever in the Republican ranks in Kentucky, there is very little doubt that that State will cast its electoral vote for McKinley and Hobart. The plurality for Bradley, the Republican candidate for Governor last year, was 8,912. At this election 16,911 votes were cast by the Populists. With such leaders as Buckner, Lindsay, Breckinridge, Watterson, and the sound-money Democratic press of the State opposing the Bryan ticket, it is pretty safe to put Kentucky in the Republican column.

A new Secretary of the Interior has been appointed to fill the place of Hoke Smith, who is forced out by his own sense of propriety. The appointment, in his place, of ex-Gov. Francis of Missouri as Secretary of the Interior is a clear indication of President Cleveland's preferences in the present campaign. Gov. Francis has been from first to last an uncompromising opponent of the free coinage of silver. With him there has been no variableness or shadow of turning. He has been as sound as any member of Mr. Cleveland's cabinet or as Mr. Cleveland himself. The cabinet will now be a unit, and it is very probable that some of its members will be heard from in a more public way after the meeting of the Indianapolis convention. There is a great desire to hear from Mr. Carlisle, whose voice would be most potent in all sections of the country, and especially in Kentucky. Mr. Carlisle could do more than any other man, perhaps more than all others, to make the probability that that State will vote against Bryan a certainty.

The method adopted by ex-Gov. Flower of showing a Watertown audience that the collapse and ruin which have overtaken the country in the last twenty-five years are a mere figment of the silverite fancy, is very effective. This fancy is based upon and appeals to the universal human tendency to think of the remote past as "good old times," and to long for a return to them. The only way to dissipate it is to appeal to the actual facts. To the Watertownians, just beginning, under the spell of silver, to dream of the good old times of 1870, when they were all so rich and happy, Mr. Flower, in the clarion voice of Truth, speaks as follows: You now have 800 men employed in the manufacture of wagons. Did you have a single wagon factory here in 1870? No. You have now 300 men engaged in manufacturing car-brakes. Did you have a brake company then? No. You then had two paper mills. How many have you now? Twenty-seven. At that time your population was 10,000; it is now 20,000. Were your wages higher? Not so high. Were your streets paved and sewered? No. And the audience, recognizing the voice of Truth, became convinced that the demonetization of silver had not brought them to ruin.

Mr. Lucius B. Swift of Indianapolis has been making a collection of the prices of farm products in Indiana from 1873 to 1892 in order to test the assertion of the silverites that there has been a steady decline of such prices, and that it has been due to the demonetization of silver. These are the prices nearest to the farm. They show approximately what the farmer realized. The prices during the suspension of specie payments

are reduced to gold values, and the results are the following:

	1878-1877.	1878-1892.	1888-1887.	1888-1892.
Corn, per bushel.....	35.6	41.8	37	39.8
Oats, per bushel.....	29.6	31.6	28.8	35.2
Wheat, per bushel...	95	102.6	79	87.2
Rye, per bushel.....	69.8	70.4	57.6	68
Potatoes, per bushel.	53	60.6	50.8	59.4
Hay, per ton.....	9.31	9.47	8 21	9.54

Of the six crops, there was only one on which the Indiana farmer did not realize more in the last-named period than in the first. That one was wheat, as to which there were peculiar influences at work in the increased cultivation and better means of transportation of that cereal in other parts of the world, especially in India, Argentina, Southern Russia, and Asia Minor. "How," asks Mr. Swift, "are Coin and Teller and Tillman and Altgeld going to explain to the Indiana farmer why the disuse of silver struck down one crop and raised up five? If the whole are reduced to tons, it will be found that corn outweighs all the rest. What kind of a man is Coin to omit notice of such a crop, or to take for comparison the one crop which had fallen in price and omit the five crops which had advanced?" The conclusion he comes to is that Coin and his crowd are given to lying.

Mr. Swift pursues the subject to the panic of 1893, and shows that the hard times that followed the period of 1888-'92 were due to a fruitless attempt to furnish a market for our silver-mine owners. The Bland-Allison act of 1878, under which we paid them $308,279,261 gold in twelve years, did not satisfy them. So in 1890 "we again allowed ourselves to be bullied by the silver-mine owners, and agreed to nearly double our purchases of silver in order to help their market. Under this law, up to 1893, we purchased of them $155,981,002 worth of silver, out of which we coined $36,000,000, and stored the rest as one would store hay or oats. We have it on hand now to the extent of 4,800 wagon-loads, counting a ton to a load." This measure of greed and folly caused the panic of 1893, from which the farmers as well as all other classes and trades have suffered. We were just beginning to recover from that disaster when a new agitation was started to upset the gold standard altogether by the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. This is what we are suffering from now. Here is where the farmer's misery comes in. Mr. Swift is the editor of the *Civil-Service Chronicle*. He was not specially interested in the money question until the present campaign began. He then took it up and made his studies in his own field for his own instruction, and has embodied his findings in a little pamphlet of eight pages which ought to be widely circulated.

The San Francisco *Argonaut*, a silver Republican paper, says that there is a small premium on gold in California, and that it has had a disturbing effect on business. It is an open secret that there has been a premium on gold in this city of about three-quarters per cent. ever since Bryan was nominated. Nor has it been confined to New York. We have seen circulars from brokers in Cincinnati and elsewhere offering one-half per cent. premium for gold and also for legal-tender notes. One of these circulars was published in a Memphis silverite newspaper, with sarcastic comments on the Shylocks and the Rothschilds and the whole race of money-brokers and money-lenders. This premium is merely an omen of what would take place if there were a general belief that there was danger of Bryan's election. It is a premium of gold and gold notes over silver and silver certificates. One of the commonest assertions of the silverites in the South is that silver would remain at par with gold under free coinage because the silver dollar is now at par with gold. They scout the idea that it is kept at par by being limited in quantity and being receivable for Government dues. But in point of fact it is not at par with gold. Anybody possessing any gold has been able to get a premium for it at any time during the past thirty days, although the banks have done everything in their power to discountenance and discourage it. The idea that the United States, which is scarcely able to maintain the redemption of its legal-tender notes, can, by its mere flat, double the value of all the silver in the world and of all that is to be produced hereafter, is too childish for description. Yet that is what is meant when it is affirmed that our silver dollar of 412½ grains would be at par with the gold dollar under free coinage.

The following letter from Senator Sherman is published in a morning paper in reply to an inquiry touching the policy of the Republican party in regard to means for increasing the revenue:

"MANSFIELD, O., August 22, 1896.

"DEAR SIR: The only way in which a Republican administration can correct the evils of the past is by increasing the revenue by a new tariff law, and this, I fear, is not practicable."

It is said that an attempt was made by Republicans in Ohio to suppress this letter as though it contained something of a damaging character. It is difficult to see why it should be damaging to mention the notorious fact that the Democratic-Populist-Silver-Republican combine controls the Senate, and is almost certain to control it for two years from next March, and that this combine will vote for no tariff bill which does not include the free coinage of silver. The union of these three elements was not nearly so firm at the last session of Congress as it will be in the next one. Its cohesiveness has been greatly increased by the joint nominations made at St. Louis, so that the question to be determined in the coming election as regards the tariff is not whether McKinley is to be elected or not, but whether a sufficient number of States can be carried by the Republicans to wrest from the tripartite alliance the control which it now holds in the Senate. It is evidently Senator Sherman's opinion that that is not to be expected at the coming election. In this opinion most good judges will agree with him.

On the 15th of the present month the *Evening Post* published a special telegram from London saying that the *Financial News* of that city had branded as a forgery a certain article, widely circulated by the silverites in this country, purporting to be an extract from that paper of March 10. The *Financial News* itself of August 13 has now come to hand. At the head of the editorial page is the following paragraph:

"We have received numerous letters from American correspondents containing what purport to be editorials from the *Financial News*, and which have been reprinted in various Western papers as 'campaign literature.' One Omaha paper prints an article stating that it is 'from the London *Financial News* of March 10.' No such article was ever printed by us, and its whole tenor is directly opposed to the view we have taken of the effect of free silver in the United States. So far from advocating free silver coinage, we have persistently pointed out that it spells repudiation and the withdrawal of all European capital."

Since the publication of this denial a new edition of the forgery has been issued and circulated. At the bottom of the article are the words: "London papers have since been cautioned not to discuss American politics under date August 13." This date is evidently a reference to the *Financial News's* exposure of the forgery. Of course the forger gives no clue to his own identity.

The chemists have been holding an international congress of applied chemistry, at which M. Berthelot has declared that chemistry was creating "a new man and a new earth." What he means is, that we may look forward to a time when by chemical processes we shall not only greatly reduce the cost of production, but actually produce wheat, meat, etc., at such a very moderate expense that the cost of living will be reduced to almost nothing. Chemistry will render wholly unnecessary nine-tenths of the toil which is now wasted in enabling the earth to produce. This may seem all very well to chemists, but there is one person whom it will never deceive. The philosophical bimetallist knows that what the world is suffering from now is low prices of food, shelter, and clothing. They are ruining the poor man as it is; and yet the chemists would reduce prices to nothing if they could. Imagine an earth on which man could get everything he needs to sustain life for nothing at all! Where would prices be then? There would be no getting back to "where we were in '73." Even free coinage of copper would not save us.

LORD RUSSELL'S ADDRESS.

NOTHING could be finer than the spirit that pervaded the address delivered by the Lord Chief Justice of England before the American Bar Association last week, and the address, according to all accounts, was received with unparalleled enthusiasm. Lord Russell spoke in the main as a lawyer to lawyers, considering the development of international law, its fundamental conceptions, and the possibility of extending its scope in certain important respects. But it was as a representative Englishman speaking to representatives of a people largely English by descent, and even more largely English in institutions, that he was most attentively and sympathetically listened to. It is but a few months since the Venezuelan dispute subjected the relations between the new country and the old to a terrible strain, and the thought of this could not have been absent from the mind of the audience or of the orator. With excellent taste, however, Lord Russell avoided all direct reference to this painful episode, while indicating, by the almost pathetic earnestness of his utterances, the supreme importance to the happiness of mankind of the subject which he was presenting.

It is hard to say whether Lord Russell was more graceful in his complimentary mention of the contributions to international law made by American lawyers and statesmen, or in his references to the deficiencies in the practical application of the principles of morality, which have been a reproach to this nation as well as to others. We may take pride in the names of Story, Kent, Marshall, Wheaton, Dana, Woolsey, and Wharton. We may feel satisfaction in the thought that our Government has defended the rights of neutrals, and that by its action these rights have come to be at once defined and enlarged. We may accept as not exaggerated Lord Russell's statement that "to the United States—to its judges, writers, and statesmen—we largely owe the existing rules which relate to a state of peace, and which affect the rights and obligations of powers which, during a state of war, are themselves at peace." We may accept as an excuse for our refusal to agree to the prohibition of privateering our profession of willingness to abandon the practice if more complete immunity of private property in time of war were secured. And we may especially take pleasure in the reflection that, of the sixty instances of effective international arbitration since 1815, the United States has been a party to thirty-two. Yet when we think of our Mexican and Indian wars we must admit that we need not be too boastful of our civilization.

For, as Lord Russell eloquently declared, civilization is not dominion, wealth, luxury; not even a great literature and widespread education:

> "Its true signs are thought for the poor and suffering, chivalrous regard and respect for woman, the frank recognition of human brotherhood, irrespective of race or color or nation or religion, the narrowing of the domain of mere force as a governing factor in the world, the love of ordered freedom, abhorrence of what is mean and cruel and vile, ceaseless devotion to the claims of justice. Civilization in that, its true, its highest, sense must make for peace."

For the extension of civilization in this sense surely the two great divisions of the English-speaking world can work together. "No cause they espouse can fail; no cause they oppose can triumph. The future is in large part theirs. The greatest calamity that could befall would be strife which should divide them."

Lord Russell's review of the progress that has been made towards international arbitration is very impressive. Although there have been attempts in this direction almost from the beginning of history, it is hardly a quarter of a century since these attempts have attained significant proportions. Within that period a number of influential organizations have been formed, whose members, as Lord Russell reminds us, are not vain idealists, but men of the world. They do not claim to be regenerators of mankind, nor do they promise the millennium, "but they are doing honest and useful work in making straighter and less difficult the path of intelligent progress." It has already become a common practice to introduce arbitration clauses into treaties, and in a number of cases the principle has been carried so far as to extend the agreement for arbitration to all questions in difference whatsoever.

It is true, as the Chief Justice points out, that there are limits to the application of the principle of arbitration. Theoretically every state is sovereign—otherwise it is not a state. But practically nothing is more common than the coercion of one state by a number of others; not by violence, but by diplomatic pressure. Indeed, when we consider it, why should not the principle of arbitration be as valid as any existing rule of international law? No nation ventures to defy the public opinion of mankind as expressed in what we call the law of nations; if this public opinion were to insist that the principle of arbitration should be incorporated in the law of nations, it would unquestionably be respected. Lord Russell maintains that arbitration will not cover the whole field of international controversy; "men do not arbitrate where character is at stake, nor will any self-respecting nation readily arbitrate on questions touching its national independence or affecting its honor." But do not men arbitrate where their honor is involved? Will litigation help them to save their characters any better than arbitration? And what nation whose independence is in danger would not be safer in invoking the justice of mankind than in calling on the god of battles? We may say flatly that the independence of no great nation now existing is in danger, and that it can be in danger only at the close of an exhausting war, when arbitration would be to its advantage and in the interest of the peace of mankind. No state, not of the front rank, but would find its honor and independence better protected by the public opinion of the great family of states than by its own military levies. What preserves the autonomy, the sovereignty of Holland, of Belgium, of Greece, of Switzerland, of Denmark, of Rumania, even of Italy? Not its own material force in any case, but the moral force of the public sentiment of Europe. As Lord Russell suggests, there may yet be a formal league of the great powers to coerce recalcitrant members of the family of nations, and meanwhile the silent forces operating in favor of peace and justice are growing and multiplying throughout the world.

THE MAIN QUESTION.

THE editors of newspapers are overwhelmed with inquiries concerning this, that, and the other aspect of our present financial problems, and concerning economic history in general. It would be ungracious to deny that many of these inquiries are made by intelligent men, and show an intelligent comprehension of the nature of the crisis through which we are passing. Nor ought any one to deprecate the acquisition of knowledge in this way, whether it be monetary science concerning which curiosity is aroused or any other subject. Especially in political matters, we are all necessarily being educated, and our form of government is such as to make the proper exercise of the suffrage a matter of conscience. Hence our journals generally welcome discussion, and cheerfully undertake to satisfy every correspondent who sincerely asks for information.

Nevertheless it is quite evident that a great many people are spending their time in inquiries that are practically irrelevant. We are confronted with a comparatively simple problem, the question whether this Government shall permit any one that owns any silver to take it to the mint and have that quantity of it which the owner can now sell for only 53 cents in the market stamped with the dollar mark. Of course, there are a thousand collateral inquiries bearing more or less directly on this main question. Some persons do not understand the difference between the effects of free coinage and restricted coinage. Some do not know that we have at present the gold standard. Some wish to be assured that the demonetization of silver in 1873 was a just measure. Some require proof that silver has depreciated and that gold has not appreciated. Some question whether we are not suffering from a lack of money. Some wish to know whether a rise of prices does not stimulate industry, and whether the increased use of money fol-

lowing increased trade would not bring silver dollars to a par with gold. Many are perplexed by the inconsistencies, real or fancied, in the arguments on both sides, and the question, How do you explain this? or, How will you answer that? may be heard on every side.

But, as we have urged and must continue to urge, what we are confronted with is a practical measure with very pronounced moral and economical bearings. We may concede, for the purposes of argument, that gold has appreciated in value, and that a mistake, or even a crime, was committed in demonetizing silver in 1873. We may admit that rising prices stimulate trade, with its corollary that prices must be kept rising perpetually or trade will collapse. We may even go so far as to grant that laborers get better wages when prices are high, although we know of no facts to prove it and many to disprove it. We may go to the extreme length of admitting that an act of Congress can raise the value of an ounce of silver the world over from 70 cents to 129 cents in gold. Or we may even allow that our Congressmen can put up the value of silver here, by free coinage, while it remains the same as it is now in India and China, if any one chooses to advance that proposition. But, having made all these concessions, the true issue would remain unaffected. For no one can deny that the possibility of free silver coinage has already occasioned very great losses to many poor people who are innocent of the crime of 1873, or of any responsibility for the gold standard. They had been earning wages before the present agitation began, and now their wages have ceased. They had been doing business, and now find there is no business to do. Others had owned securities, and they have been forced or frightened into selling them at a loss. No one in his senses can honestly maintain that employers are discharging workmen because they are afraid the present standard of value will be maintained. They are doing it because they fear it will not be maintained. That is what they all say, and that is what the facts prove. Nor can any one assert that he knows any creditor, rich or poor, who wants to be paid in the future silver dollars instead of dollars of the present standard. And this being so, it appears to us that people who know nothing at all about standards of value, or prices, or monetary science in general, are perfectly competent to determine what is their present duty.

Men are often heard to say that the more they read and talk about this silver controversy the less they understand it. Then let them cease worrying about it and reading about it. Let them ask themselves whether, leaving silver out of consideration, it has an honest look for Congress to ordain that any article that now sells for 50 cents shall sell for a dollar. We know that they will be assured that the fiat of Congress can make the article worth a dollar, but there is nothing but assertion offered to support this claim; and, on the other hand, a very large number of our people, very probably a majority of them, feel that they would be defrauded by such a legislative fiat. If it is not probable, is it not at least possible, that their fears are well grounded and that they will be defrauded? Does it recommend itself as just and wise and honorable to any fair-minded man to vote for legislation that will probably, or even possibly, defraud a very large number of people of a particularly defenceless class? Can he imagine any way in which the losses suffered by these people can be repaired in case the claims of the free-coinage advocates are mistaken? And is he ready to take the responsibility, the awful responsibility, of doing what is in his power to commit our Government to an experiment which may possibly, and which it is believed by a very large proportion of the best-educated and most conscientious members of the community will certainly, bring shame on our country, create panic among the wealthy, and spread poverty among the poor?

There was a time in New England when eternal salvation was made to depend on the correct answer to a number of difficult if not incomprehensible metaphysical propositions. Many of these have been since generally abandoned as erroneous, and we have come now to believe that a man who sincerely tries to live a pure and upright life may safely trust his salvation to the grace of the Almighty, even if he cannot understand the Westminster catechism. The common sense that has come to prevail concerning eternal salvation may properly be called on to display itself in the solution of our financial problems. Instead of puzzling over ratios and values and appreciation and depreciation, let people ask themselves and ask others which side in the present contest stands most clearly for national honor and good faith, and for honest and just dealing between man and man. There is plenty of sophistry to be heard on both sides, we admit; but with this simple touchstone the voter who sincerely desires to do what is right will not find it difficult to select the true course.

THE FALL IN PRICES.

MR. BRYAN made a speech on Saturday at a small town in Dutchess County in the course of which he said:

"If two men speak against our position, one of them will probably say that there has been no fall in prices, and he will denounce the people who are complaining that gold has risen in price; and after he has proven that to the satisfaction of every man who does not think, then his colleague will tell you that not only have prices fallen, but that it is the greatest blessing in the world to have prices fall. Now, these two are not consistent, but it follows all the way through. Why is it?"

That is a dishonest statement, as Mr. Bryan knows very well. It has not been denied that the prices of some things have fallen since 1873. It has not been denied that more have fallen than have risen or remained stationary. It is denied that all prices have fallen, and it is affirmed that the decline of those which have fallen can in every single instance be traced to and explained by known conditions affecting the production and transportation of those particular articles.

For example, the price of white paper has fallen. Why? Because formerly it was made exclusively from cotton and linen rags, of which the supply was limited. Somebody discovered a process of converting rye straw into paper pulp, thus enlarging the supply of raw material. Then somebody invented a process of converting wood into paper pulp by machinery. Then somebody else found a chemical process for doing the same thing. Then improvements of these processes were made from time to time, constantly cheapening the production. All the steps which have lessened the cost of paper can be pointed out seriatim and have been pointed out repeatedly. But philosophers of the Bryan school tell us that it is all due to a scarcity of gold. They do not single out paper, or steel rails, or any other specified articles, but they lump them all together and discountenance any particular examination of particular things.

Returning for a moment to Mr. Bryan's Dutchess County speech, he says that of any two men opposed to his view of this question, one will probably say that "there has been no fall of prices," and the other will say that they have fallen and that the fall of prices is the greatest blessing in the world. We have kept a pretty close watch on this debate during the past fifteen or twenty years, and we have never seen or heard of one speech, or newspaper article, or publication of any kind, that has affirmed that "there has been no fall of prices." We defy Mr. Bryan to point out one such speech, article, or publication. What has been said and proved frequently is, that there has been no fall in prices that cannot be explained independently of the annual production of gold or the existing supply of gold. This is perfectly well known to Mr. Bryan. Consequently the statement which he made on Saturday was a dishonest statement.

We have frequently adverted to Mr. Wells's book published in 1890 entitled 'Recent Economic Changes,' in which the causes of the decline of all the leading staples of commerce which have declined are set forth with great exactness. This examination included the statistics of the area of land devoted to the cultivation of wheat and cotton, and the quantities produced in all the countries from which statistics could be obtained, together with the progress of railway building and other means of cheap transportation that have been introduced since

1873. All the silverites fight shy of Wells's details. Lately Gen. Walker has deigned to pronounce his (Wells's) argument "monstrous and absurd." Prof. Farnam, in the last number of the *Yale Review*, says and shows that "those epithets would apply more appropriately to the arguments by which Gen. Walker justifies them." As Mr. Wells's book is easily accessible, we need not go into details.

A year or two before Mr. Wells's book was written, Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin, then of Harvard, now of Chicago University, published a very searching review of the same question. He first collected all the tables of average prices then available that had any repute among statisticians, including those of Jevons, Soetbeer, Sauerbeck, Palgrave, Mulhall, and the London *Economist*, and, after subjecting them to a critical examination, he gave his reasons for thinking that the Hamburg tables of Soetbeer were the best and most trustworthy. Well, these tables showed that, taking the year 1850 for a starting-point represented by the figure 100, prices had risen in 1873 to 138 and had declined in 1885 to 108. Now the year 1850 was a bimetallic year. It was more than twenty years before "the crime of 1873" was committed. All the virtues of silver money were in full force at that time. Yet prices were higher by 8 per cent. in 1885 than they were in 1850.

Another fact brought out by Prof. Laughlin has been generally overlooked, viz., that the year 1873 was the culmination of a speculative period of almost world-wide extent. All such periods are marked by a general eagerness to buy property of every kind with the expectation of selling it at a higher price. The competition of buyers in the market is what puts up prices. This competition was going on at a furious rate from the close of the civil war to 1873. It was especially active from 1870 to 1873. The price-figure in Soetbeer's tables for 1870 was 122. It was pushed up by the speculative movement to 138 in 1873. Then the bubble burst, there was a competition among sellers, and prices fell to 117 in 1879. Then there was a recovery and a rise to 122 in 1883, when another reaction came, not so disastrous or widespread as that of 1873, but sufficiently marked to leave its impress on business. Prices fell to 108 in 1885.

Another thing shown by the Hamburg tables was that prices were not all moving in the same direction. "I have collected twenty-one articles," says Prof. Laughlin, "out of the one hundred quoted at Hamburg which show an upward tendency by comparing the average prices of 1881-'5 with those of 1871-'5." These articles were malt, buckwheat, hops, veal, mutton, pork, butter, bristles, buffalo horns, herring, dried fish, almonds, wine, champagne, cocoa, pepper, allspice, rum, ivory, flax, and India rubber. Mulhall's tables of London prices showed an additional list of articles which had either risen in price or remained stationary, including barley, beef, beer, brandy, cigars, cheese, currants, eggs, gloves, leather, oats, oxen, raisins, and silk. Some of these articles may have risen and some may have fallen since these tables were prepared. It has been proved that corn, the chief agricultural product of this country, has not declined in price since 1873, if we consider its price at the place of production. It has fallen at the seaboard markets by reason of the decline in the cost of transportation and in proportion to that decline. That is the reason why "Coin" and the other falsifiers of his financial school always take the seaboard prices for the purpose of comparison. The article of most importance, however, that has not declined in price since 1873 is labor. The man who works with his hands gets more value, more commodities, now than he did then or ever before in this country.

MR. BRYAN AND FIAT MONEY.

DOUBTLESS there are many sincere believers in bimetallism who think that the free coinage of silver by our Government would not cause prices to rise, but only prevent them from falling. Some probably reconcile it with their consciences to hold that free coinage would cause a rise of prices, but that, after rising to a certain unknown height, they would remain permanently at that level. Such persons object to being classed with the Populists and feel aggrieved at being charged with favoring inflation. But if they are supporting Mr. Bryan with any idea that his views are the same as their own, they are committing a very serious mistake. Mr. Bryan favors the free coinage of silver, but he favors it only incidentally. He believes that the Government should issue all money, and that when the people demand it, it should issue irredeemable paper money. He is not proclaiming this belief openly, now and here. It would not be well received in this part of the country, and he has told us here that a free-coinage act passed by our Congress would double the value of silver all over the world. But he has professed this belief publicly and deliberately, and has suggested particular measures for its practical application. In order that his position may be clearly understood by those who are disposed to vote for him, we shall present that position as he has himself defined it.

In the first place, he has emphatically declared that he favors irredeemable paper rather than our present money. He, of course, after the manner of his kind, assumes that he stands for "the people," but as the people may take a different view of the assumption, we shall assume that when Mr. Bryan says the people demand a certain thing, he means that he believes in it. He admits that he hesitates "to see any legislative body exercise the power to issue irredeemable paper and fix the volume thereof." But he hesitates because he remembers "how the creditor has overreached the debtor in the financial legislation of the last thirty years," and "how great moneyed interests, acting as a unit, have secured legislation against the unorganized masses." Hence he will not insist on irredeemable paper "unless the pretended friends of a 'sound currency' make it necessary by the complete demonetization of silver as a standard money." But as silver has long been demonetized as a standard money, this being the chief complaint of the free-silver party, Mr. Bryan must be now ready for fiat money. He says "the choice may be avoided for the present [*sic*] by the full and immediate restoration of silver to its place as a coördinate part of the money of the world." But if the time comes "that the people must choose between a constantly appreciating metallic money and an irredeemable paper money which gives a hope of relief, they will choose the latter system, with all its defects and dangers." Mr. Bryan says that we have now a constantly appreciating metallic money in gold. He tells us that if we coin silver freely it will appreciate to $1.29 an ounce. Our readers can draw their own inferences from these statements.

Holding these views concerning fiat money, Mr. Bryan would, of course, have "the people" forbid the making of contracts payable in any "particular kind of money." He holds that the Government has an undoubted right "to prohibit special contracts in money." He rejects the notion of the "right of private contract," because it enables the creditor to oppress the debtor. The debtor being under duress, "it is not freedom of contract, but freedom to extort." This restraint of the cupidity of men that possess capital by legal-tender acts and stay-laws Mr. Bryan compares with inserting rings in the snouts of hogs. The people, therefore, are to issue irredeemable paper as money, and to forbid any one to contract to receive or pay out anything else. The greenback, Mr. Bryan admits, was at a discount during the war, but that was because the Government would not receive it in the payment of duties. By driving gold and silver out of use among mankind, fiat money could be maintained, we suppose, at a parity with itself.

Having shown that the people should issue all money and prohibit the use of anything except what they issue as money, Mr. Bryan proceeds to explain how this money is to be distributed. We venture to say that if he would now repeat in his speeches what he said on the floor of Congress, he would gratify a very deep and anxious curiosity on the part of many of his hearers. He cannot quite adopt the "sub-treasury plan" of the Farmers' Alliance, but he thinks it is quite as good a plan as our national-bank system. "If

it is safe to issue on bonds at par or up to 90 per cent. of their face, it would certainly be safe to issue on other kinds of property up to 50 per cent., or 25 per cent., or at least to 10 per cent. of their market value." Mr. Bryan does not really condemn the Populist scheme of having the Government issue money "based" on land or wheat to the owners thereof. Of course, if "the people" demand it, Mr. Bryan is not the man to refuse them; but he assures them that there are better ways of getting the money into their pockets, "plans more just and equitable than that of loaning." This "loaning" has an offensive sound; it suggests the disagreeable thought of repayment, and Mr. Bryan's more just and equitable plan connotes nothing so repulsive. Every Populist should welcome it with delight as an improvement on any plan yet proposed.

For what Mr. Bryan offers as a financial system to be adopted by a great commercial country is simply the undertaking of vast public works by the general Government for the purpose of distributing irredeemable paper money among the people. "Government paper can be issued to pay for special improvements which Congress may deem desirable. Harbors can be deepened and rivers can be improved in this way." Mr. Bryan himself introduced a bill to issue $70,000,000 in greenbacks to be used in constructing the Nicaragua Canal. This he regarded as much better than issuing bonds, because the people have to pay interest on bonds; and as to any trouble about redeeming the greenbacks—pshaw! Let the Government exercise its option of paying coin obligations in silver, and we shall have no more trouble with the reserve. The remainder of this "more just and equitable plan" we give in Mr. Bryan's words:

"We can, by the issue of a few millions a year, construct a ship canal from Buffalo to the Hudson River, and thus give to the grain of the Northwest ocean rates from Chicago and Duluth to Liverpool, not to speak of the military advantage of such a canal. We might, by the issue of a few millions a year, connect the Mississippi River with Lake Michigan, and thereby increase the commerce between the Northwest and the South."

"Money could be issued in another way. We can use any available coin on hand to take up matured bonds and replace the coin so used with paper money. I have introduced a bill during this Congress to provide in this way for the payment of the two per cent. bonds now outstanding, payable at the option of the Government and amounting to about $25,000,000. These methods are suggested as legitimate means of distributing Government issues without resorting to money-loaning or to the use of banks. Government paper should be issued in the place of national banknotes as they are retired."

All the foregoing quotations from Mr. Bryan are taken from his speech in the House June 5, 1894, beginning at page 5,808 of the *Congressional Record*.

JOHANNA AMBROSIUS: A LYRIC SUDERMANN.

CAMBRIDGE, August 18, 1896.

UNTIL within a year and a half ago the name of Johanna Ambrosius was not known outside of the little East Prussian village where she herself, as the wife of a poor peasant, led a humble and monotonous existence. To-day her poems have passed through the twenty-seventh edition,* and she is hailed throughout Germany as a lyric genius destined to play an important part in the literary revival which has been so brilliantly initiated by the dramatic achievements of Sudermann and his associates. What is it that has given this simple peasant woman, whose intellectual resources until very recently were confined to a few back volumes of the *Gartenlaube*, such an extraordinary hold on the national heart? What is it that has raised her at one stroke far above the host of clever and refined singers who, during the last thirty years, have re-echoed the melodies of the great masters?

The secret, I think, lies in this, that in Johanna Ambrosius there has arisen a new voice in the struggle for the emancipation of the German woman. Whatever one may think of this movement, it would be folly to deny either its volume or its strength. It is naturally strongest in socialistic circles; indeed, the Social-Democratic party is thus far the only political organization which has allowed women a considerable share in its meetings and deliberations. But the influence of the woman movement is by no means confined to Socialist gatherings. It pervades the air, it is felt in the family, it agitates the universities, it has entered the drawing-rooms, it has deeply affected the novel and the drama; everywhere we notice as one of the leading forces of the day the striving of woman for a fuller and more complete individuality. If this were not so, such a figure as Sudermann's *Magda* could not have been created.

There is a good deal of family likeness between the heroine of "Heimat" and Johanna Ambrosius. The circumstances are different, the abiding traits of character are the same: in Sudermann's drama, an impetuous, unruly girl, who, craving for a fuller life than that afforded by "respectable" society, falls a prey to sin, and through sin rises to the level of her true self; in the East-Prussian peasant home which has been and still is the scene of Johanna Ambrosius's life, the agonies and struggles of a woman who, harboring in herself a world of passion, longing, and ideal striving, is smothered by the hard facts of actual starvation, degrading toil, and absolute intellectual loneliness—until at last the long repressed despair breaks forth with volcanic power, shakes the very foundations of this life, and lifts it into a higher sphere.

Of Johanna's mental development her sister, who, it seems, has been the only one to stand faithfully by her in all these gloomy struggles, has given a sympathetic sketch, from which a passage relating to the years of girlish maturity and early married life may here be quoted:

"Even in those early days," she says, "we both felt how alone we stood in our village surroundings. Our souls began to retire within themselves; the longing for freedom, for light, for life became irresistible. Johanna had outgrown the obedience demanded by her parents, but oppressive to body and soul; her own will often manifested itself; and, half following her will, half submitting to the force of circumstances, she entered service in the house of strangers. Perhaps she hoped to find outside of her family what her soul craved. She soon returned home, and, in order to find freedom, as she thought, she accepted the hand of a simple, but good and honest, peasant lad. By the side of the man of her choice Johanna went with eyes open into poverty and hardest toil. Proud and uncomplaining, she bore the self-chosen fate until she lay broken on the ground. The whole misery of a life wrestling in vain for food had seized upon her. Out of the night of these boundless sufferings there rose—the poet."

It would be indelicate to pry into the details of the family tragedy which these words half disclose and half conceal. Some German literary periodicals have already given too much publicity to them. From the merely personal point of view, it might even seem as though too much sympathy had been accorded to Johanna herself, and too little to the "simple but good and honest peasant" whose fate, by the side of this fiery, soaring idealist, appears pathetic in the extreme. What makes Johanna Ambrosius such a remarkable, nay, inspiring, figure in the modern woman movement, is the fact that her own sufferings, instead of embittering her, have opened her heart to the woe of all her fellow-sufferers, that her own struggles have made her a leader in the universal struggle for a fuller humanity.

The most striking note of her poetry, to be sure, is one of passionate longing for a happiness which she knows can never be hers. She fairly revels in the maddening consciousness of being for ever shut out from life's best gifts—peace of soul and intellectual companionship. She consumes herself in the thought of what might have been. There was a time when her heart swelled with hope, when the *fata morgana* of love conjured up before her a world of bliss and beauty. But all that is now for ever destroyed, and all is dark. "Ah, bind my hands with iron chains, lest they draw a beloved head to my bosom! Wall in my heart and close it fast, lest the flames of love blaze forth from its windows! Make me deaf, make me blind, lest I see happiness! Oh miserable, God-forsaken child that I am!" She sits at dusk by the hearth, and gazes into the flickering fire as it dances up and down before her eyes, for a moment bringing back the color of youth to her cheeks, awakening in her the glow of long-suppressed passion and desire, and then quickly dying away—oh that the raging fire within might consume itself as quickly! She consecrates her songs to Pain, her best and inseparable friend. He stands before her threshold with drawn sword, and wards off whoever might disturb them; only his sister Sorrow he at times invites to keep them company:

"Nur manchmal ladet er zu Gaste
Sich seine Schwester Leid,
Die bleibt dann lang bei uns zu Raste,
Und näht für mich ein Kleid."

She cries out to God to make an end of it; to deliver her at last from ever pressing the wounded breast against the rocks, from lying bound without being allowed to rest her head; to take from her the glowing chains which, with hellish fire are burning deep into her heart.

Whatever she sees about her assumes the melancholy hue of her own darkened existence. She tells of how "Mariechen, süsses Mariechen mein," the fairest girl in the village, is plunged into misery by the old witch Care; how the happiness of her young married life is poisoned by want; how, embittered and hardened by his and his children's hunger, the same man who had loved her so fervently turns away from her, and at last raises his arm to strike her:

"Der Schlag traf gut, nun noch ein Hieb:
Ade, Du Glück, gebaut auf Lieb!
Die alte Hex' Sorg' in die Faust sich lacht,
Und schleicht sich weiter durch Nebel und Nacht.
Was wimmert so schmerzlich im Sternenschein?
Ach Mariechen, süsses Mariechen mein!"

*An English translation, by Mary J. Safford, is announced by Roberts Bros., Boston.

She describes a peaceful farmhouse enclosed by wheat-fields. Its white gable blinks cheerfully through a cluster of hemlocks; like a column of frankincense, the smoke rises from the thatched roof and loses itself in the evening red; the spring water gently trickles over the mossy stones of the well; the doves are cooing in their cotes, swallows are chasing through the air, a cat lies sleepy on the threshold. But where is the housewife, where the farm hands? From the fields she comes, with her child. Cold as marble is her face, her forehead overshadowed with grief. Shyly she gathers the broken pots and glasses strewn about in the yard. Has a storm raged here? Has some evil spirit entered? In the arbor lies the husband by the side of his bottle.

With all this gloom, the poetry of Johanna Ambrosius as a whole is far from having a discouraging or depressing effect. There is nothing enervating, nothing disintegrating in it. While often reminding us of Heine's truthfulness and simplicity, this woman has nothing of Heine's scepticism. Even in her saddest moods we recognize a bravely struggling soul, a character faithful to itself, a heart embracing all mankind. Her woes have sanctified her; they have strengthened her trust in the final victory of goodness and right; they have fanned in her a burning desire to help, to comfort, to inspire. And although the range of her thought is narrow, she compensates us for this by a freshness of feeling which gives even the oldest truths the stamp of a new acquisition. It is indeed touching to hear this daughter of the people speak of the exalted mission of the poet: "Through sleepless nights in the throes of creation he moans for the lost Paradise; he weeps for all men, he bears the burden of all mankind; he dyes the roses with his heart's blood, he bleaches the lilies with his tears; his poems are sighs, they are prayers offered up to God from the depth of his soul for the sake of a suffering world.—Oh bear them lovingly in your hearts, like your own children! You know not from what pains they have been born." And who could help being moved by that "Last Song" which this peasant woman would fain sing, a song which shall be wafted through the world like a gentle breeze of May, which shall bring refreshment to the dying, which shall calm all pain and encourage all good fighters, and which at last shall swell into a raging gale and drive the serpent Sin back into the sea? When this song shall be accomplished, the singer herself will break her lyre and sing no more; in the forest would she be buried, and none should know who conceived the song:

"Im Wald müsst ihr verscharren
Mich heimlich unterm Tann,
Und Niemand sollt' erfahren
Wer dieses Lied ersann."

It will be of interest to see how Johanna Ambrosius will bear the popularity which has so suddenly come to her and the honors which have been so profusely showered upon her. She seems great enough to justify the hope that recognition will bring out in her the joyous rather than the commonplace.

KUNO FRANCKE.

SIR JOHN EVERETT MILLAIS.

LONDON, August 14, 1896.

WITH Sir John E. Millais the Royal Academy has lost the only President of distinction as an artist whom it has had the honor to claim since the days of Sir Joshua Reynolds, its founder. When there was question of Millais's election, but little more than half a year ago, many feared his health might hinder him from accepting the new dignity, for it was known then that the disease from which he suffered was fatal, and that his active services must be limited to several months at the utmost. But there were few, within or without the Academical ranks, to regret the choice or his acceptance. It was felt that so long as he still was living, no one could well be chosen before the man who was at once the most distinguished and most popular among English painters.

Perhaps with his fellow-Academicians his popularity was his chief recommendation. But by all those whose interest is in a man's art rather than his social virtues it could not be forgotten that he was a great artist, even though in later years he had produced a mass of work which appealed mainly to the British public. It is curious, now every Academical reward has been heaped upon him, to remember that he began his career as a rebel to the very Academy over which he was afterward to preside. But this rebellion was, in a way, a forecast of the prosperity which was to follow. For that matter, Millais may be said to have been prosperous from the beginning. Two inevitable anecdotes told of him record his first success, at the age of five (he was born in 1829), with some French officers stationed at Dinard, he startling them with the cleverness of his childish sketches; and his second, at the age of nine, when Sir Martin Archer Shee, at the time President of the Academy, gave his official approval to the boy's training, not as the sweep he had at first suggested, but as an artist. Good luck went with Millais to the schools, both private and Academical: it seemed as if he had but to stretch out his hands for all possible prizes to fall into them. And he was as yet merely a youth, barely twenty, when he suddenly sprang into notoriety, and his name became a by-word in the mouth of English artists and critics and students; for it was then that he and Rossetti and Holman Hunt joined together to form the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, and create a greater excitement than had ever startled English schools and studios. Of that much-discussed association it is not my intention to give the story here. The main facts are too well known and have been the inspiration of too much "copy" to be in need of repetition. The Pre-Raphaelites were rebels — rebels against Academic convention and tradition; and rebels, moreover, as eager to make their disaffection public as those youths of the Cénacle who, twenty years before, had led the famous fight in the Théâtre-Français. For the Brotherhood, rebellion had that element of worldly success which Millais seems ever to have carried with him through life. Most students could have their pictures rejected or skied at the Academy, and never a soul the wiser for their disappointment. But whatever neglect or insult was offered to the work of the Pre-Raphaelites was always sure in the end to prove the kindest of advertisements. Better, after all, to have one's painting called an atrocity, or abomination, or any other hard name, than to have absolutely nothing said about it.

I do not mean by this to pretend that the three youths who dared public opinion by venturing to paint in their own fashion rather than after Academic formulas were merely posing, in the fashion of the little groups of would-be innovators who have posed since. They were immensely in earnest, as, indeed, all young men who have anything in them must be. But, nevertheless, if their admirers were awed chiefly by the nobility of their principles, the chances are that they themselves were not indifferent to the fact that, thanks to their own independence and Mr. Ruskin's gallant championship, they had become three of the most talked-about men in England. Millais had made a name when most painters are still struggling through the schools.

That he threw in his fortunes with Rossetti and Holman Hunt is not as strange as may appear now in the light of later events. He was essentially an artist, and, differ as they might on many points, he still had far more in common with them, willing as they were at all hazards to assert their individuality, than with the fashionable Elmores and Pickersgills, Creswicks and Lees, who kept on turning out the old exhausted banalities according to the most respectable official recipes. Indeed, art had sunk to such a depth that to have painted as an artist paints, even if one had not called it Pre-Raphaelitism, must then have meant to inaugurate a revolution. Of the three, Millais was the only one who had really mastered his trade, and he had nothing to learn from the Brotherhood. The others influenced him in the choice of subjects, no doubt; it was Rossetti, the poet, who found for him his "Isabella," his "Mariana"; it was Holman Hunt, the preacher, who sent him into the "Carpenter's Shop" to paint the Child Christ. In another way, however, they were more useful to him. Had he not identified himself with them, he would have missed the severe and excellent training his few years as a Pre-Raphaelite gave him. For part of the Pre-Raphaelite creed was inexorable respect for detail—a respect which eventually was to permit the freedom held to be a crime at the first stage of their apprenticeship. Millais was endowed naturally with a facility that proved fatal enough when he began to care more for the quantity than the quality of his work. Nothing, therefore, could have served him to better purpose than the restraint put upon him by the creed he had accepted. He was kept within bounds, his habit of observation was developed, his knowledge of form cultivated. And he was too much an artist to sacrifice beauty to detail with Holman Hunt, or drawing to symbolism with Rossetti. The little "Mariana" is a picture jewel-like in the splendor of color, though worked out with a minuteness that would not have discredited a Mabuse or a Van Eyck. The "Isabella" has a certain decorative harmony for all its naïve conscientiousness in the presentment of every trivial fact; while in the "Ophelia," his masterpiece, the infinite intricacy of the foliage along the banks, of the ripples on the water, of the flowers trailing from the hands and hair of the floating figure, are so well subordinated that you see only the solemn beauty of the landscape and of the white, upturned face, lovely in death. The poetry is not only in the subject and its associations, but in the painter's treatment. This really is the supreme achievement of Pre-Raphaelitism. Millais himself in his Pre-Raphaelite days painted other memorable pictures—"The Huguenots," "The Order of Release," "The Proscribed Royalist"—but none that could surpass the "Ophelia," one of the few canvases that should reconcile the nation to Mr. Tate's gift of his collection and the gallery which is soon to play the part of English Luxembourg.

That, in the course of time, the Pre-Raphaelites should separate was inevitable. The

three leaders of the movement had little but that first outburst of youthful enthusiasm to hold them together, and, soon enough, each went his way: Rossetti into the retirement that became a mystic; Holman Hunt to the Holy Land to study Scriptural color on the spot; Millais straight, one might say, into the arms of the Academy, to which he was elected an Associate (1853), as if he had never painted his protest against it. However, there could have been no escape for him. In youth, as in maturity, he was the "genial good fellow" all the papers are now busy calling him, unfitted by temperament for the rôle either of rebel or recluse. In other centuries, a painter as great, as prosperous, as active would have been invited to court—like Holbein, like Titian, like a host of others; or sent on embassies—like Rubens; or made a dignitary of state—like Velasquez; and the honors conferred upon him would have been so many incentives to further effort and finer accomplishment. But in the England of this century the artist who would achieve social success, who would continue in evidence, has but one alternative, and that is, to cater to a public notorious for caring and knowing less about art than any public elsewhere, and, in thus catering, to coarsen and degrade his art. This is why so few painters hitherto have been able, once in the Academy, to fulfil whatever promise their talent held out before election. Millais, strong as he was, could not but be affected by the demands that his new position made upon him. Not that his work showed the results immediately. He painted many good pictures after his election—"The Vale of Rest," "Sir Isumbras," for instance; many good portraits—"Hearts are Trumps," in which he was not afraid to challenge comparison with Reynolds; "Mrs. Bischoffsheim," with a somewhat chastened Pre-Raphaelitic love of detail in the rendering of the elaborate gown. Besides, it was in the sixties, or thereabouts, that he produced some of those wonderful illustrations which alone would insure his fame.

Millais was not the least among the men who contributed to the pages of *Once a Week* and the *Cornhill*. He could lend loveliness to the hideous crinoline of the day, as you may see in his drawings for Trollope's 'Framley Parsonage'; he could add dignity and solemnity to the Scriptures, as his designs for the Parables will show: his Sower, an impressive figure, high on the rocky hillside, a dramatic silhouette against the sky; his Foolish Virgins in the wide voluminous skirts which, for him, were full of subtle grace; his Enemy Sowing Tares, vague, shadowy, awful, as he passes through the darkness of the night. These illustrations should be better known—probably will be before long, for already the collector has an eye on the books that contain them, and that have ceased to be sold for a song. And yet, it should be added, the very next drawing to his most masterly design, as likely as not, is found to be rubbish, for he could do as bad and as careless illustration as anybody.

Of his black-and-white work, good or bad, there is not overmuch. Paint was far more profitable, and the commercial instinct, as I think Mr. Holman Hunt has pointed out, had never been dormant in Millais; not even when, as a boy (in another familiar anecdote), he, the bursar of his class, collected so many pence for buns that the confectioner threw in an extra one for himself, and his lunch cost him nothing. What artist, so far as that goes, has not been commercial? Read Dürer's Journal, or Vasari's Lives, or Rossetti's Letters, if you are still burdened with superfluous illusions on this score. But the trouble was that Millais, to make his pictures sell, had to paint them to suit the patrons who came to the Academy to buy, and, gradually, he fell away from his own high standard. When an exhibition of his work was held in the Grosvenor Gallery, in 1885, it was almost tragic to trace the steady deterioration where one had the right to look for progress. "Bubbles," "Cherry Ripe," "Sweetest Eyes Were Ever Seen"—these were the things he produced in maturity; he who had painted the "Mariana" and "Ophelia" in his youth. The fault with a picture like "Bubbles" is not that it was appropriate to advertisement, as the stolid British critic seems to think; what artists objected to was that it was such a cheap, trashy piece of painting.

It will be kinder to his memory to forget the commonplace, the triviality, the sham prettiness to which he stooped. The worst of it was, his popularity increased in proportion as his art suffered. Honors and distinctions were poured upon him, and he was a man who revelled in honors and distinctions. He was made a full Academician (1863), a Trustee of the National Portrait Gallery (1881), a Baronet (1885). Recognition came as well from abroad. He was appointed Knight of the Legion of Honor (1878), an Associate of the Académie des Beaux-Arts (1882). And while Rossetti was allowed to die, neglected to the last by the Academy, while that institution remains blind to the existence of Holman Hunt, Millais, as crowning touch to a long and prosperous career, was elected its President, with the gratification of knowing that his election gave universal satisfaction—the multitude exulting in his prosperity, for which his title, his big house, his skill as sportsman, seemed so many securities; the few bearing in mind the great artist he had once been. Fortunately, posterity judges an artist by his strength, not his weakness; and certain it is that, though his later pictures might to his advantage perish with him, there are others which will stand the test of time triumphantly. N. N.

THE DISPUTED TIARA IN THE LOUVRE.

St.-Germain-en-Laye, August 8, 1896.

Seldom has public attention been roused as it is just now by a question of archæological criticism. The tiara of Saïtapharnes and the gorgeous necklace purchased together with it—for the large sum of 200,000 francs—have become a favorite topic of conversation. People talk about them, and judge them, who had never heard of the existence of Olbia, nor of the extension of Greek civilization to the northern shores of the Black Sea. Of course, as the daily papers have taken the matter in hand, much nonsense has already been printed about the tiara, and it is probable, the debate having only just begun, that we shall hear a great deal more of it.

I do not intend to enter now on a scientific discussion of the subject, which is going to be treated at length, in answer to M. Furtwaengler's article in *Cosmopolis* for August, by M. Héron de Villefosse in the same magazine, and by my brother Théodore in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* for September. Many arguments, both pro and con, are scarcely to be understood without the help of illustrations. My aim is to state briefly the origin and history of the dispute, and to collate for the first time some information, derived from private sources, on the forgeries which are being manufactured in southern Russia. But, to avoid any misunderstanding, I wish to declare at the outset that I consider the tiara and necklace as perfectly genuine antiques. The contrary opinion, expressed by a man of such high achievements as M. Furtwaengler, is nothing but a colossal mistake, which is traceable to two causes: (1.) The German professor is well acquainted with the *fact* that forged antiquities are being made in Russia, but he has never *seen* any one of them, so that he entertains no precise idea as to the ability and scientific training of the forgers. (2.) He believes, and has made many people believe, that the greater number of the golden objects found in southern Russia belong to the fourth and fifth century B. C., so that he cannot admit the authenticity of an analogous find which betrays distinctly a much later date. The fact is, that the discovery of the tiara of Saïtapharnes gives the death-blow to much that has been written by M. Furtwaengler in his famous 'Winckelmannsprogramm' on the golden fish found at Vettersfelde. The chronology of the discoveries made in southern Russia, and probably also that of the local fabrications of pottery, bronze, etc., must now be entirely revised. M. Furtwaengler had better set to work on that important subject than lose his time in arguing the falsity of the tiara. But now to our own *historique* of the debate.

In the spring of 1893, being at Odessa, I was much surprised to find that the little museum of that town, as well as some private collections, contained a large number of jewels, golden vases, etc., which were evident forgeries by unskilled hands. A dealer in antiquities, M. Lemmé, told me that there existed, in the hamlets near the site of Olbia, a whole manufacture of forgeries, not only in gold and in terra-cotta, but in marble. I had already noted, in the Museum of Odessa, some Greek inscriptions, engraved on marble slabs, wherein the ordinary formulas of epigraphy were absurdly blundered; M. Lemmé and Prof. Uspenski showed me a few others, in their possession, the falsity of which was beyond question. I learned that an inscription numbering about 600 letters had been sold to a gentleman named Surutchan, who was making a collection at Kishinev. That inscription has happily remained inedited, but in the pamphlet on the Surutchan collection recently published by Prof. Latysheff there are a good many suspicious inscriptions, similar in character to those I saw in Odessa. On returning home, I published a note on the subject in the *Chronique des Arts* (1894, p. 53) and also mentioned it in the *Revue Archéologique*.

Almost at the same time the late Aug. Geffroy, then director of the French School in Rome, wrote to the French Academy, announcing that Count Tyskievitch, a well-known Russian amateur living in Italy, had bought a magnificent collection of gold and silver objects discovered in a tumulus near Olbia. The most important piece was a large silver dish, with reliefs *en repoussé*, relating to the Eleusinian mysteries (*Comptes Rendus de l'Académie des Inscriptions*, 1894, pp. 30–32). In fact, Count Tyskievitch had really purchased these things from a Russian gentleman who had just arrived in Rome, and letters from archæologists, asking for information about them, were already pouring in at his address. One day he received a visit from his friend Count Gregory Stroganoff, the possessor of a marvellous collection of antique jewelry, who came from Odessa to Rome, where he usually passes the winter. On seeing the "treasure" at the house of Count Tyskievitch

he exclaimed, "Musica! musica!" which is the euphemism adopted, among Roman collectors, for denouncing a forgery. Count Stroganoff said he had seen in Odessa several works by the same hand, which was then busy at Kertch, the ancient Panticapæum, and that the Museum of the Hermitage in St. Petersburg had lately acquired in Odessa a large collection comprising many forgeries in the same style. Count Tyskievitch soon acknowledged his mistake, and returned the "treasure" to the Russian gentleman, who, it appears, contrived to sell it to Germany. The reliefs on the silver dish were nothing but slavish copies of the paintings on a Greek vase discovered years ago at Panticapæum, and abundantly illustrated by Stephani. Very few people are aware of these particulars, for which I am indebted to Count Tyskievitch. As Geffroy's letter was printed in the *Comptes Rendus*, the "treasure" continues to be quoted from time to time; I find a mention of it in the *Revue des Études Grecques* for 1895 (p. 444), whence it may find its way into other periodicals.

M. Furtwaengler has told me that, in 1895, a golden object with an inscription, said to have been discovered in Olbia, was offered to the Berlin Museum and rejected, its authenticity having been questioned by M. Dressel. M. Furtwaengler had not seen it, but thought it must have been a clever forgery, as Prof. Curtius had at first considered it genuine. I do not remember exactly if the object in question was a crown or a vase, but rather believe that it was a crown.

The tiara of Saitapharnes first belonged to a dealer at Otchakoff, a place between Odessa and Kherson. It was offered, but not shown, to Count Tyskievitch, who refused to go to see it, its provenance from Olbia having immediately raised his suspicions on account of the painful experience he had had the year before. I believe the tiara went to Lemberg and was offered there for sale before it was carried to Vienna, where it still was at the beginning of the current year. For several weeks it remained at the Museum in Vienna, where nobody questioned its authenticity, but where the funds for such a costly purchase were not obtainable. From Vienna, a dealer named Vogel took the tiara and the necklace to Paris (March, 1896), together with a red-figured vase of very late style said to have been discovered with the tiara. They were submitted to the appreciation not only of the keepers of the Museum, but of the members of a committee to which is intrusted the care of the large sum derived from the sale of the *diamants de la Couronne* (about 400,000 francs a year). I had the honor of assisting, in the Louvre, at the memorable sitting at which the acquisition of the tiara and necklace were decided upon. The sitting lasted several hours; we were perfectly aware of the existence of forgeries from Southern Russia, and examined every detail with the utmost care. Men like MM. Heuzey, de Villefosse, and Pottier felt no uneasiness in the presence of such astonishing works of art; but we were conscious that the question of authenticity was some day or other to be raised, on account of the exceptional and mysterious character of the discovery. So we quietly waited for our fate.

The first person to attack the genuineness of the tiara was, I believe, the keeper of a French provincial museum; but as he wrote nothing on the subject, I think it unnecessary to give his name. Most people accepted the statement of the authorities in the Louvre, attributing the tiara to the fourth or third century B. C.;* a few amateurs declared it was Roman, and a correspondent of the *Indépendance Belge* went so far as to assign it to the Byzantine period. It is useless to dwell on such assertions, which betray more than ordinary ignorance of archæology and epigraphy.

About the middle of April, Prof. Furtwaengler arrived in Paris. He went to see the tiara and examined it at first through the glass case. His opinion was formed immediately: the tiara and the necklace were both forgeries. When he told me so, I advised him to take the tiara in his hands and look at the inside, which he did the next day, but very cursorily. His verdict was that the whole tiara was modern, with the exception of *two small bronze nails* inside the rim, and that the only antique parts of the necklace were a few beads and tablets of iridescent glass. Hours of discussion ensued, in which I naturally learned much from my opponent, but could not prevail upon him to withdraw or to modify his judgment. I must say, to the honor of Prof. Furtwaengler, that he sincerely lamented what he called the Louvre's misfortune, and deliberated what he should do to alleviate it without giving offence or annoyance to the keepers. He finally decided on going to see two of them, with whom he spoke very frankly, suggesting that the Louvre should immediately take steps to prosecute the dealers and get the money back. His opinion was listened to with respect, but convinced nobody. Prof. Furtwaengler left Paris with the impression that our blindness could be cured only by means of a printed demonstration, which he accordingly prepared to write. But others were hurrying to grasp from his hands what Renan has called "la priorité dans l'erreur!"

Some days before M. Furtwaengler's departure, Count Gregory Stroganoff came to Paris. He had heard from St. Petersburg—where nobody had yet seen the tiara—that it was a forgery, and went straight to the celebrated dealer, M. Feuardent, deploring the Louvre's credulity, etc. Feuardent advised the Count to go and see the things himself, which he had hitherto neglected to do. An hour later Count Stroganoff returned to M. Feuardent's office; he declared that a man must be raving (*enragé*) to question the genuineness of the tiara. He wrote in consequence to several of his Russian friends, in particular to Count Tyskievitch, who had asked information from M. Fröhner and received the assurance that the tiara was authentic, which he accepted reluctantly.

During M. Furtwaengler's stay in Paris, I had written to a friend of mine in Odessa, begging him to go to M. Lemmé and try to get information from him. M. Lemmé had not seen the tiara, not even a photograph of it (the first decent publication appeared on the 1st of May in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, with a good article by M. Michon); but he did not hesitate to say that it was a forgery, originating at the factory in Otchakoff. He spoke to my friend about several forgeries of the same kind which he had recently come across, one of the most interesting being a golden crown, with an inscription, which had been purchased by the German Consul in Odessa; others had been bought by a banker in Frankfort-on-the-Main, etc. The rumor that the Louvre had been sorely deceived was spreading at that time (end of April) from Odessa to Moscow and St. Petersburg.

* I believe it is somewhat later than 150 B. C.

One of the most decided opponents of the tiara in St. Petersburg was M. G. Kieseritzky, the successor of Stephani as curator of the antiquities in the Hermitage. He had not seen it either, but judged that it *must* be a fraud—and said so. A professor of Byzantine and Turkish history in the University, M. Vesselovsky, caught up his words, and perhaps thought he would make himself immortal by being the first to print an onslaught on the tiara. So he published a short and smart note, under his name, in the *Novoe Vremya* of the 19th (31st) of May. Early in June I received a visit from Count Stroganoff, who showed me a translation of the note. He continued to believe in the tiara, but nevertheless felt uneasy. "Prof. Vesselovsky is not an urchin," he said. "He cannot have written such a note, in which he asserts that the tiara was made quite recently in Otchakoff, without having serious reasons to give." The Count insisted that I should write immediately to Prof. Vesselovsky, asking him to give me his reasons. I did so, but never received an answer. Another Russian savant, Prof. Kondakoff, passed through Paris some days later. He, too, had condemned the tiara before seeing it, and maintained his opinion afterwards. But he gave no arguments, and, as far as I know, discussed the matter with nobody. This certainly does credit to his modesty, Prof. Kondakoff being a Byzantine scholar and not an archæologist.

Meanwhile the *Petit Journal* and the *Revue Encyclopédique* had reproduced a translation of Prof. Vesselovsky's letter. The public at large believed in the Russian's assertion; first, because a Russian, in contemporary France, is something more than an ordinary mortal, and, secondly, because our public is always ready to believe that the officials of its own country are lazy or ignorant. The height of the ridiculous was reached by M. Arsène Alexandre, who, writing in the *Figaro* (July 8), expressed the hope that the stupid authorities in the Louvre would profit by the hard lesson they had received! The following is a typical phrase extracted from that sensational article to show the author's competence in the matter of antiquities:

"D'abord, on devrait se convaincre une bonne fois que nulle part il n'existe plus un objet d'art ancien de quelque valeur qui soit inconnu. Il faut être naïf comme un conservateur de musée, ou ignorant comme un directeur des beaux-arts, pour croire que le trésor artistique de l'humanité n'est pas catalogué et mis au jour jusqu'au moindre tesson."

Is it possible that M. Alexandre never heard about English country-seats?

When the article in the *Figaro* appeared, M. Kieseritzky had just arrived in Paris. He brought photographs of the forged golden objects in St. Petersburg and in Odessa, with the idea that the tiara, when examined by himself, would betray the same crude workmanship. But . . . *longe aliter res se habuit*. M. Kieseritzky soon asserted that both tiara and necklace were authentic and indisputable, and he authorized M. Kaempfen, the director of the Louvre, to state his opinion as such in an answer to M. Alexandre's article (*Figaro*, July 18, 1896).

We have had occasion to examine, by the side of the tiara, not only the photographs and some *original forgeries* brought by M. Kieseritzky, but a number of golden things, said to have been found in Olbia, which a Polish dealer recently offered to the Louvre. The latter were a winged sandal, a crown with glass jewelry, a mask with a long Greek in-

scription, all in *repoussé* gold and of bad workmanship. The Greek inscription was stupid—a dedication ending with the word Χαῖρε! Here, then, we had some *genuine* antiquities from the factory at Otchakoff. Among M. Kieseritzky's photographs was that of the crown with a Greek inscription which M. Lemmé had mentioned to my friend in Odessa. Although the falsity of the whole is quite apparent, I remarked that the inscription and many details of the decorations so closely recalled the tiara in the Louvre as to render a mere coincidence most unlikely. So I believe that the tiara must have been at Otchakoff *for a long time*—some years, perhaps—and been imitated there by forgers, until the forger-in-chief, whoever he may be, decided upon parting with his original treasure, because the imitations had become suspicious and would sell no longer.

Between the best of the Otchakoff forgeries and the weakest part in the tiara, there is such an immense difference of technique and of style that if Prof. Furtwaengler had been able to compare them, as I did, I am certain he would never have published his deplorable article in *Cosmopolis* (August 1). I call it deplorable because it is a real misfortune for archæology when a man like M. Furtwaengler exposes himself and the science he so gloriously represents to the ironical sarcasms of lookers-on. There is not one argument in his article that will bear being tested, and several assertions in it are (*mirabile dictu*) serious blunders, which will have been duly exposed by the time this article appears. The *Journal des Débats* of August 3 having published a résumé of M. Furtwaengler's paper, M. de Villefosse answered in the same daily (August 6), and, though his letter is short, it contains enough overwhelming evidence to upset the whole romance constructed by M. Furtwaengler's scepticism.

The good result of the controversy will be to attract to the tiara the full attention of all archæologists. It is well worthy of being widely known and deeply studied, not because it is a masterpiece of art—the excellence of the *technique* is counterbalanced by the provincial vulgarity of the style—but because it is a storehouse of genuine information. Here I pause, it not being my purpose to describe the tiara and show what a quantity of new facts it may teach us. I, for my part, think that the question of authenticity is settled, but it still remains to discover *when* and *where* the tiara was found. It may transpire that, instead of being a recent find, it is a very old one—readers of the *Antiquités de la Russie Méridionale* will perhaps guess what I mean; if they do not, I refer them to the conclusion of the article which is going to appear in the September number of the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*.

SALOMON REINACH.

Correspondence.

ASSURANCE FOR THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To "A Mugwump," writing on "Idle Fears" in your last issue, it is sufficient answer to say that some of the Southern States already hold their State and county elections on a different date from the national elections, Virginia being one of them. Yet in these States, not less than elsewhere, there exists great apprehension that Republican government will mean an attempt at negro domination. Like "A Mugwump," "I am a born and bred Southern Democrat, and my father was before me," and I am going to vote for McKinley for his own reasons. More than that, I want as many as possible of my compatriots to be enabled to do the same thing by having their minds made easy in essential sentiments. CHRYSOSTOM.

VIRGINIA, August 24, 1896.

THE CART BEFORE THE HORSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of a recent comment in your Notes on President Gilman's endorsement, in the August *Atlantic Monthly*, of "the admission of women to the advantages of higher education, either by coeducation, or by 'annexes,' or by separate foundations," as "one of the greatest gains" of the past half-century of educational development, may I call your attention to the following item from the London *Athenæum* of August 1?

"*Autres pays autres mœurs.* The *University Circular* of Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, states that the 'medical department is open to women: the other departments are not.' This is the converse of the rule observed in most of the British universities."

Evidently the British critic is as much at sea as the American observer of social phenomena, to explain why Dr. Gilman and his colleagues continue to occupy, alone among the authorities of leading American universities, a persistent attitude of exclusion towards women who seek the advantages of higher education. Their friends can only hope that the unexpectedly explicit declaration of the able head of the Johns Hopkins University may be accepted as an intimation that a change of heart is to be looked for in the near future on the part of those who control the policy of the University. C. M.

BALTIMORE, August 17, 1896.

Notes.

MR. BRYCE'S recent articles in the *Century Magazine* will form part of a work, 'Impressions of South Africa,' which the Century Company has in preparation. They announce also 'Rhymes of the States,' by Garrett Newkirk, a help for little pupils in national geography, and a new edition of Joel Chandler Harris's 'Daddy Jake, the Runaway.'

Scott, Foresman & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Primitive Buddhism, its Origin and Teachings,' by Mrs. Elizabeth A. Reed.

Dr. George E. Post, professor in the Syrian Protestant College at Beirut, has just published a 'Flora of Syria, Palestine and Sinai,' the work of thirty years. Profit, in the nature of the case, is hardly to be looked for, but reimbursement for the cost of publication will be furthered by any one disposed to send for a copy of the book (to the above address), at the price of a pound sterling. Transmission of the volume will be by registered mail.

We are glad to observe not only that M. Hanotaux has not dropped his Life of Richelieu, as we feared, but that the second volume, covering the years 1614-1617, has just appeared under the sub-title of "Le Premier Ministère."

Those who are interested in the criticism of art and who can read French (and all who are interested in art-criticism should be able to read French), may find much to interest them in André Michel's 'Notes sur l'Art Moderne (Peinture)' published by Armand Colin & Cie., Paris. M. Michel touches upon many artists and many "movements," from the romantic revolution of the thirties to Impressionism and those still later phases of French art which are, though our painters are hardly yet aware of it, displacing Impressionism in France; and he touches nothing on which he does not throw some light. The notes on Corot, Ingres, and Delacroix are especially interesting, and those on Impressionism and "on some methods of painting" give a clear and, we think, a just notion of what will be for the painter of the future, "who will not be an Impressionist," the permanent acquisition from the modern analysis of light. Even in those articles that have less value, M. Michel drops by the way many pregnant observations. In speaking of Raffet, for instance, whom, with the Frenchman's love for *la peinture militaire*, he vastly overrates, he says: "Is it that a picture, unless it is intended for some monumental decoration, is always large enough? This is a disquieting thought at the moment when the Salons are about to spread before our discouraged eyes so many paintings of a useless acreage." This sentence is the condemnation of much that passes for modern art, and it is, unfortunately, not only the painters of France that need a warning against the "useless acreage" of the Salon picture.

The appearance of a fourth edition of J. Fitzgerald Molloy's 'Most Gorgeous Lady Blessington' (Scribners) attests the popularity of a most entertaining book. It combines all the features of a memoir of a curious, sad, and interesting life, a picture of a literary society of recent date, yet wholly vanished, and a collection of anecdotes about its members. The style is perhaps rather conversational, but not slangy, and the literary skill of the book in presenting vivid character-sketches in a few touches is remarkable. Byron, Dickens, Disraeli, Bulwer, Landor, D'Orsay, N. P. Willis, Lord and Lady Blessington, the Countess Guiccioli and each member of her family, Lady Blessington's violent father and insane first husband, even De Boissy, who finally marries "la Guiccioli," and is proud to introduce her as "ma femme, ci-devant maîtresse de Lord Byron"—all are as clear and distinct as if we had known them. Lord Byron, especially, is a wonderful portrait in a few pages, and signed, as one may say, by himself, for much of it is taken down from his own lips. It is curious to contrast a sympathetic account, such as this, of the literary circle for which Gore House was a sort of salon, with that given by Carlyle of literary London, and to see that the affectations which irritated him so much, and drove him to the extreme of a semi-savage, semi-humorous unconventionality, were bone of its bone and flesh of its flesh. Poor Lady Blessington is throughout more natural than any of her courtiers; she remains the beautiful, charming, sensitive, clever, good-natured, unaffected, and unlucky Margaret Power to the end.

Mr. Edmund G. Ross's 'History of the Impeachment of Andrew Johnson,' published by the author at Santa Fé, forms a thin volume of 180 pages, giving all the leading facts of the trial and of the controversy which produced it. Mr. Ross was one of the Republican Senators whose votes prevented conviction. The account is clear and to the point, and, owing to the fact that it is a report and criticism of

the proceedings by one of the judges, possesses historical value.

Littell's Living Age is to take on a monthly supplement, free to its subscribers, containing readings from American magazines and new books, and a list of books of the month. Occasional translations from articles in foreign reviews and magazines will form a still more decided departure.

The "Summer Number" of *Modern Art* (Boston: E. Prang & Co.) resembles its predecessors in being better in appearance than in substance. Its printing is so handsome, its paper so good, and its decoration so sumptuous that one is disappointed to find its letterpress so indifferent. The principal illustrations of the present number are a chromolithographic reproduction of a color print from wood blocks by Arthur W. Dow, a heliotype from the painting "Lullaby" by Miss Wally Moes, and several reproductions of book-bindings by the Club Bindery. Mr. Dow gives some account of his experiments in color-printing after Japanese methods, and Mr. William Loring Andrews writes of the Club Bindery, while Mr. Prang contributes an article on lithography. Mr. Philip Hale, not the well-known musical critic but a young painter, writes somewhat flippantly of "Artists' Little Games," his serious conclusion being that Claude Monet is the only artist who is "wholly and absolutely sincere"; and there are notes on the Kelmscott Press, on the German *Pan*, and on "The New Movement in Dutch Art." The "Table of Art Reading" is an excellent idea and may be of use to students, but one must protest against the inclusion in it of articles, illustrated by photographs of models, of which some of the cheaper magazines are making a specialty. The printing in red ink of several of Mahomet's denunciations of all art and all artists is a curious freak of the editor's.

In the annual review of Continental literature published by the *Athenæum*, in its issue for July 4, reports are given from thirteen countries; Sweden, Portugal, the Balkan States, and Turkey being unrepresented. Judging simply from the amount of space given to historical works, one must infer that history is the most important sphere of literary activity in France and Spain, while the drama and fiction occupy a similar position in Germany and Norway. The general impression left by the record as a whole is, that while the last twelve months have been a season of great productiveness, there has not been a single work of commanding originality or power. No writer of the first rank in his own country, with the possible exception of Björnson, who has published a work, has sustained his reputation. This is especially the case with the dramatists and novelists. Works on socialism are still numerous, particularly in Belgium, but their number and their importance are less than in previous years. The most earnest and in some respects the most encouraging report is from Russia. Here the future of the peasant, in view of the probable abolition of the communal system, is the subject of keenest interest to many writers, both radical and conservative.

The most interesting paper in the *Geographical Journal* for August is Dr. Donaldson Smith's account of his adventurous journey from Berbera on the Gulf of Aden through Somaliland to Lake Rudolf. He narrates with great simplicity, but very effectively, his numerous adventures with the Abyssinians, Gallas, who are being rapidly exterminated or enslaved by their powerful neighbors, and the Borans. These last are an interior tribe, and the richest and most powerful natives whom he met with. They are superior even to the Mohammedan blacks, which is very unusual in Central Africa. The Right Hon. Geo. N. Curzon gives in detail an account of the various lakes and passes in the Pamirs, and Mr. O. H. Howarth describes scientifically Popocatepetl and the volcanoes of the valley of Mexico. In a brief paper upon the great seawaves which destroyed 27,000 lives in Japan last June, Prof. J. Milne gives it as his opinion that the disaster was "of a seismic rather than volcanic origin," and that off the eastern coast of Japan "a submarine range of mountains may be slowly growing upward." There is also a summary of the remarkable explorations of two Russians in Central Asia during the past two years, in which 10,600 miles were surveyed, and numerous rich collections of natural history, including 30,000 insects and 25,000 specimens of plants, were made.

Just in time for the Bayreuth Festival, Schottländer of Breslau (New York: G. E. Stechert) issues H. T. Finck's 'Wagner and his Works' in a German translation by George von Skal, which is so fluent and idiomatic that the reader would hardly suspect that it was not written in that language. The pages on the Dresden Revolution, on the relations between Franz and Wagner and others, have been rewritten and the work in all respects brought up to date. The new preface calls attention to the fact that the accusations of extreme partisanship are refuted by the censures of Wagner in the chapters on the Revolution, Judaism in Music, the silly comic libretto 'A Capitulation,' the neglect of the chorus, and the tiresome philosophical and political prose writings. An interesting footnote has been added (ii., 420) giving the opinions of Hanslick and Billroth (two extreme anti-Wagnerites) on the renegade Nietzsche. 'Wagner und seine Werke' is neatly printed and bound, in a form convenient for the pocket.

The second number of the serial publication *Bausteine zur Elsass-Lothringischen Geschichts- und Landeskunde* (Zahn: Fuchs) is a pamphlet of 28 pages entitled 'Ein Hexenprozess in Elsass vom Jahre 1616,' by J. Denner. It gives a full account of the trial for witchcraft of two women—Apollonia, widow of Michael Spener, and her daughter Dorothea, widow of Jacob Pfister. The materials are derived from the archives of Lower Alsatia, and now printed for the first time.

The *Historische Zeitschrift* (Munich: Oldenburg), founded by Heinrich von Sybel, and after his death edited by the recently deceased Heinrich von Treitschke, will be henceforth conducted by the sub-editor, Friedrich Meinecke, with the aid of an editorial committee composed of eight scholars. In connection with the review there will also be published an "Historische Bibliothek," consisting of biographical and historical essays issued at irregular intervals as supplements to the periodical, and sold separately at a moderate price. The first of these supplements, a sketch of the early intellectual development and character of Heinrich von Treitschke, will appear in the autumn of the present year.

The number of the *Deutsche Medicinische Wochenschrift* for July 23 contains an interesting report, by Dr. Marcuse of Berlin, recording his observations on the effect of the Röntgen rays on the human body. On July 1 he began to take photographs (or shadowgraphs) of a young man seventeen years of age. The sittings were frequent, and lasted as a rule from five to ten minutes, and considerably longer in photographing the internal organs of the chest. The tube was brought very close to the body and sometimes into actual contact with it, but the degree of heat developed by the current was quite moderate, and the young man was dressed and felt no inconvenience from it. After a time it was noticed that the skin of the parts towards which the tube had been directed had grown intensely red with a brownish tinge, and showed a tendency to peel off, and, when washed with vinegar, hung down in shreds. On the head the scalp turned pale and became bald in spots as big as a dollar; what hair remained was short, brittle, and thin, and dropped out easily. On the back the skin came off in places as large as an ordinary dinner-plate, and the tissue thus exposed was slightly bloodshot. The surrounding skin for the breadth of two fingers was brownish-red. The young man felt no discomfort during the process of photographing; what the after-effects may be remains to be seen.

We have already predicted that, when the Germans had once been convinced of the undesirableness of existing restrictions upon the activity of women, they would, such is their thoroughness, introduce changed conditions of a far-reaching nature so quickly as to leave other nations distinctly behind. The Hon. Mrs. Bertrand Russell, in an interesting article on Women in Germany in the *Nineteenth Century*, points out that, in spite of appearances, the millennium which women look forward to is likely to come to them sooner than in any other country. The party of the Social Democrats is the only strong political party in the world which demands the full equality of the sexes. When German working-women make up their minds to demand any particular measure of relief, they have an organized body of forty-seven members of the Reichstag ready to enforce their claim. Liebknecht has already expressed himself in favor of the "most thorough and complete emancipation that they can possibly desire."

Skirmishing over the question of degrees for women, at the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, still continues. At Cambridge a "syndicate," carefully selected so as to display no preponderance of known opinion in favor of or in opposition to degrees, has been selected, and two memorials from members of the Senate have been extensively signed; the one against the proposal to admit women to membership of the University has received over 2,000 signatures, and the other, suggesting that women should receive some title not implying membership, has received nearly 1,400 signatures, of which more than 1,100 are common to both memorials—a fresh illustration of the universal instinct to "hedge." At Oxford, the "Association for the Education of Women at Oxford," pending the ultimate victory of its cause, has decided to give three kinds of certificates to those of its students who comply with certain conditions of residence and examinations, including a class in an Oxford honor examination. The first certificate will be given for the strict B.A. course, with full residence, as prescribed for men; the second will be given for a course approved by the Council of the Association, as an alternative to the degree course, and for this three examinations and twelve terms' residence will be obligatory, but there will be no limits of standing; for the third, eight terms' residence, without an intermediate examination, will be sufficient. These certificates will record the nature of examinations passed, together with the college or hall at which the

student has resided, and will doubtless be akin in value to the Harvard Annex certificates, which are now replaced by Radcliffe College degrees.

We have received the first circular of the American Woman's Sound-Money League, whose headquarters are at Boston, Mass., and officers, Mrs. Marion A. McBride, President and Manager; Mrs. Sarah Joy White, Vice-President; Miss Helen M. Winslow, Treasurer. This organization intends primarily to spread practical information regarding the currency question among American women, whose influence and intelligent zeal, if properly directed, can materially assist in the righteous settlement of the money question in November. The members are women who "sympathize" with sound money, and who "believe that a definite and an unquestioned standard of values, . . . known as the *gold standard*, . . . is indispensable to help relieve the industrial situation." It is proposed, in the principal cities and towns, to form branches of the League, which will distribute carefully prepared printed matter, and speakers for public meetings of women will be provided. Short, clear, practical statements, selected from the writings of acknowledged authorities on finance, will be sent to any part of the United States. Detailed information will be supplied by Mrs. Marion A. McBride, Arlington Heights, Mass.

—At this time of the year, when so many city families go to the country for a change of air, it is of interest to take note of a recent utterance of Prof. Leyden of Berlin, which has aroused much discussion in the German press. Having been asked whether the air of Berlin was specially injurious to those suffering from diseases of the lungs, he said that Berlin air was unjustly maligned; that it was mainly a question of dust, and that there was plenty of dust in the cities of the Riviera, where consumptives are sent for cure. He further intimated that the therapeutic overvaluation of air came from England, and dated back to the time when epidemic diseases were erroneously traced to the air as their source, whereas we now know that water is the chief medium for the conveyance of disease germs. When these utterances reached Vienna, the *Neue Freie Presse* interviewed several professors at the university, who unanimously protested against Dr. Leyden's notion that air is not a remedial agent. Prof. Oser conceded that air is not a direct remedial agent, but that its indirect effect on the healing of disease is of the utmost importance. The cool, dust-free air of the seashore and mountains gives a sound sleep, improves the appetite, and thus makes it much easier to conquer disease there than in the city. Prof. Chiari would consider air as a direct remedial agent, on the ground that pure country air, free from dust and too sudden contrasts of temperature, healed catarrhs which in the city were chronic. Prof. Gruber was disposed to think Berlin a better place for consumptives than Vienna, because the latter city is more exposed to draughts and sudden gusts of wind; while Dr. Kammerer thought that the principal trouble in Vienna was not so much the presence of dust or the quality of the air as the stagnation produced by the way in which the houses are built, whereby two sides of them are insufficiently ventilated. In some parts of Vienna only eight per cent. of the building space is left free.

—Another Goethe mystery has been solved. The "schoene Maylaenderin," with the light brown hair and almost blue eyes, whom Goethe met in Rome in 1787, and who flits unnamed with such poetic grace through the closing pages of the 'Italian Journey,' has been identified. For more than a century this fair Milanese has been known by no other name. M. Valeri, of the Victor Emmanuel Library in Rome, an ardent student of Goethe, has now discovered in the records of San Lorenzo in Lucina that in the house, unmistakably designated by the poet, there lived in 1788 "Carlo Ricci, business man; Maddalena, his sister, spinster, aged 20." As this coincides perfectly with all the known details, M. Valeri's point seems to be established. The name of Maddalena Ricci was not, however, unfamiliar to Goethe students, although she has not before been identified with the fair Milanese. It will be remembered that, just as Werther was in despair upon learning of Lotte's engagement, so Goethe, at the very inception of his love-making, grieved at the news that his fair one was already affianced. The engagement was broken off, however—why, does not appear—but in less than three months after Goethe's departure from Rome, in April, 1788, Maddalena had married another. Two letters in the Goethe archives refer to this event. One from Angelica Kauffmann, dated Rome, November 1, 1788, and published in volume v. of the "Schriften der Goethe-Gesellschaft," announces to Goethe "dass die Signora Maddalena Riggi sich nun Volpato schreibt." This Volpato was the son of the famous engraver. The other letter (as yet, we believe, unpublished) is from Maddalena's brother Carlo to Goethe, under date of January 20, 1789: "Vous êtes aussi obligeant que vous vous souvenez de moi et de ma sœur. Elle est mariée depuis Juillet passé au fils de Mons. Volpato. Elle a reçu avec reconnaissance votre souvenir." The poet had sent her a box of flower-seeds. After their tender parting, described in the chapter on the Second Sojourn in Rome, these half-confessed lovers never met. Unlike Frederica of Sesenheim, Maddalena of Milan remained heart-whole. But those who delight in the poetic charm with which Goethe invested all his relations with women will continue to think of that bright and gracious figure at Castel Gandolfo as the "schoene Maylaenderin," and forget that she was Maddalena Ricci, who married twice and died in 1825, leaving eight children. She is buried in the vault of the Volpato family in the Church of Santa Pudenziana at Rome, and with her is now buried a once fascinating theme for the doctor dissertations of ardent undergraduates.

—The French papers abound in tributes paid to the memory of the late Edmond de Goncourt by his literary friends, and in criticism (much of it of the obituary sort) of the work of the two brothers. M. Émile Faguet's finding in the *Revue Bleue* is brief and pointed: the Goncourts had, he says, the curiosity of genius, but not its intelligence. This is a rough-and-ready summing up, as he himself admits, and will require some attenuation and adaptation to make it fit quite smoothly. The two statements which oftenest recur in all these notices are that the Goncourts were artists, and that they were the founders of Naturalism. They certainly preceded Daudet and Zola, but, if Naturalism means Realism, one is forced to remember that even in French literature there was plenty of realism long before their day. The brothers Goncourt seem to have been radically unlike in many regards, as Edmond himself said; though he adds that, unlike as they were, they both received absolutely identical impressions from life and from the world. Probably no one will ever be able to distinguish the work of Edmond from the work of Jules, and while it is possible that some hints about this, or even a plain statement about it, may be contained in the fuller journals that are to see the light twenty years hence, nothing is known now.

—The reading of the will of Edmond de Goncourt satisfied to the full the curiosity of Paris on the point about which it was widest awake. As compared with the average man of letters, the Goncourts were rich men, and their fortune was at their own disposal. It was well known that they intended to use it in founding a new and purely literary Academy, in deliberate rivalry of the Académie Française, and much speculation has been indulged in as to whom M. E. de Goncourt would appoint as its first members. No one can fairly complain of the substantial justice of Goncourt's list. He did not fill it up from the "Grenier," but chose men who best represented, in his judgment, the literary movement in France, and it may be said that most of the men of his choice compare favorably with some recent accessions to the greater Academy. Above all things he seems to have valued originality and individuality of literary temperament. As was expected, M. Alphonse Daudet heads the list. Then follow the names of MM. Léon Hennique, J. K. Huysmans, Octave Mirbeau, Gustave Geoffroy, Paul Margueritte, and the two brothers J. H. Rosny. Two vacancies are left which will be filled by the Academy in session. It is said, and probably with truth, that Zola was excluded on account of his offering himself as a candidate at the French Academy, and Coppée and Loti because they had been received there. Each member of the new Academy will receive an annual income of six thousand francs. M. de Goncourt also founds a yearly prize of five thousand francs, to be awarded by his Academy to the author of the best novel, or of the best book of history, æsthetics, or erudition, or of the best collection of short stories. The manuscript of the "Journal des Goncourts" in its complete form will be deposited at the Bibliothèque Nationale, to be published only when twenty years have passed by.

—The *Korean Repository*, founded and supported chiefly by the American missionaries in a land which seems destined to become a Russian protectorate, keeps steadily on its way. Vol. ii., for 1895, shows in its table of contents a commendable variety both in contributors and in subjects treated. Furthermore, there is encouraging proof that the resident foreigners are mastering the language. The six numbers of vol. iii., for 1896, now before us, are well filled with excellent papers and essays, the substance of which comes from the native literature. Besides the standard linguistic and missionary themes are some illuminating chapters from the Korean historiographers and on native poetry. The renderings of Korean verse, while making us acquainted with the stock of native ideas and revealing the passion of the Korean for the beauties of nature, yet seem to invite the presence of a genuine poet who can explore further depths. Prof. Homer B. Hulbert, the managing editor, in the June number, continues his researches into the origin of the Korean alphabet. For the first time, we believe, he gives us documentary authority for the statement made by Japanese writers,

by Mr. W. G. Aston, and by the French scholar M. Courant, that King Se Jong, near the beginning of the present dynasty (founded A. D. 1392), invented the *en mun* or Korean alphabet of twenty-five letters (at first twenty-eight) which are purely phonetic signs. The passage, which shows that the King called in the aid of scholars to revise and criticise his work, occurs in one of the three or more private manuscript histories of the present dynasty, all of which agree essentially in their account of the origin of this remarkable instrument for the expression of thought. In the same number of the *Repository* is a review of the book 'Se-Quo-Yah, the American Cadmus and Modern Moses,' by Mr. George E. Foster of Ithaca, New York. There is also a very interesting article on a visit to the city and battle-field of Ping Yang, where, on September 15, 1894, was fought the decisive battle which emptied Korea of Chinese and decided the future of the peninsula. The city was nearly ruined, and has regained only partial prosperity. We note that the Korean *Independent*, published by a native Korean who is an American citizen, and issued thrice a week in Seul, in both Korean and English, seems to be flourishing, though small enough as yet to suggest leaven and mustard-seed. It is apparently potent as an educator.

MISS EDGEWORTH.

Castle Rackrent. The Absentee. Ormond. Popular Tales. By Maria Edgeworth. 3 vols. Macmillan.

THE republication of Miss Edgeworth's works suggests two questions each of which is worth consideration. And first: Will her writings find many readers at the present day? To this inquiry, an honest critic, however keen his admiration for Miss Edgeworth, must return a doubtful answer. No discriminating reader can indeed fail to recognize the talent or the wit of the author of 'Castle Rackrent' or of 'Ormond,' but keen appreciation of Miss Edgeworth's gifts is consistent with the admission that her writings reveal defects or characteristics which militate in 1896 against her popularity. Her most interesting tales are marred, and her inferior stories are completely spoilt, by the spirit of didacticism. She has not written a novel or a story which might not be called a moral tale. The moral she points is generally, to modern readers at least, obvious enough; she never omits to draw it out and emphasize it at tedious length. The ethical conclusions which she enforces are always sound and are often important. To keep out of debt is to keep out of danger; the procrastinator who puts off till to-morrow what he ought to do to-day is likely (though not, as Miss Edgeworth holds, certain) to come to ruin; constant ill-luck is generally the sign of incurable incompetence. These conclusions and the like are summed up in copy-book maxims and are generally true, but they are hardly interesting. A perusal of Miss Edgeworth's tales makes us admire and perhaps envy the simplicity of a generation with whom trite truisms still passed for profound paradoxes. But it is difficult not to feel that the truths, say of 1800, have sunk into the platitudes of 1896, and the propounder of platitudes will never long command the ear of a busy and restless world.

Miss Edgeworth, again, lacks the kind of literary skill which is now the common property of scribblers who do not possess a tenth of her talents. Never was there an age which, in the world of letters, displayed less originality than the present day. The English people on both sides the Atlantic cannot at this moment point to a living historian, poet, or man of letters of nearly first-rate genius. In no field of intellectual activity is this sterility more noticeable than in the province of romance. Novel-readers abound; novelists of genius hardly exist. Anthony Trollope would never have claimed a place among the great novelists of England, yet, since Trollope's death, there is no story-teller who has occupied anything like his position. But the disappearance of originality from the field of literature has been accompanied by a wide diffusion of literary skill. For one lady who in Miss Edgeworth's day could write passable and accurate English, we may now find a score who can express themselves in print with ease and (to use language which has now gone out of date) with elegance. Our ordinary story-tellers know how to tell a story. The dullest of writers would now hesitate to produce the cumbersome introductions which were written by a man of genius like Scott for the amusement and the admiration of one generation and for the weariness and astonishment of the next. Scott, Miss Austen, and Miss Edgeworth are now suffering from their own success. They taught their countrymen and their countrywomen the art of story-telling, and in the mechanism of narration they have been surpassed by their pupils and imitators.

Miss Edgeworth, lastly, is not an author who anticipated the current sentiment of to-day. In this matter she falls short of writers so different from each other and so unlike modern novelists as Richardson and Madame de Staël. Each of them belongs to another time than ours, but the sentiment of 'Clarissa' still excites interest and tears, and appeals to some modern vein of feeling. In the pages of 'Delphine' you may find raised the questions which still torment or excite European society. Miss Edgeworth belongs to her own age; she speaks a language which, plain and simple as it is, or because perhaps it is plain and simple, is hardly intelligible to readers entranced by vague ideals and supremely interested in the study of morbid and exceptional characters.

No one can guarantee that Miss Edgeworth's novels will, as things now stand, obtain many readers. Are Miss Edgeworth's novels worth reading? This is a question which may be answered without any hesitation whatever. There are few writers whose works better repay thoughtful perusal. Miss Edgeworth's writings are above all things noteworthy for the immense effect they have produced in two different directions. Her 'Parent's Assistant' and her 'Moral Tales' set the example of stories for children—which, by the way, are quite a different thing from the tales about children with which we are now inundated. Of the girlish sentimentality of such books as 'Little Lord Fauntleroy,' of the spurious pathos to be found in 'Misunderstood,' or of the humorous delight felt by the author of 'A Golden Age' in the dreams and escapades of childhood, not a trace is to be found in a single line written by Miss Edgeworth. She does not tell tales about children for the amusement of their elders, but succeeds in the far more difficult feat of telling tales to children which a child can read with interest and delight. Her sentiment, it is true, is a trifle out of date. We are afraid there are many little boys, and even some little girls, who might laugh at the melodramatic rescue of simple Susan's pet lamb. Who is the elderly gentleman who can now say, as Scott seems to have said, "When you come to the return of the pet lamb you have nothing to do for it but to put your head down on your hands and cry"? But if the sentiment of the eighteenth century is more or less obsolete, the essential merits of Miss Edgeworth's tales will permanently commend them to children. She has always a real story to tell; it is invariably definite and intelligible; it is marked by that detail and precision in which children delight, and (what is no small matter) it never fails to satisfy poetical justice. The good boy at last gets the cake or the prize; the bad boy, the sluggard, or the liar is brought to deserved disgrace. Even where, as in 'The Contrast,' the excellent Franklins are ruined and the worthless Bettesworths come into a fortune, everything turns out right in the end. The transitory misfortunes of the worthy Franklins prove the sterling character of their virtues, and are compensated for by a restoration to permanent prosperity. The accidental luck of the vile Bettesworths reveals their wickedness and conducts them to final ruin. This accurate distribution of reward and punishment may not quite correspond with the realities of life, though the doctrine that good sense and good conduct lead to prosperity contains far more truth than sentimentalists care to admit. But, however this may be, to children poetical justice is poetry, and gives unalloyed pleasure; and were it granted that Miss Edgeworth does not always hit the taste of modern children, they owe to her an untold debt of gratitude. She is the inventor of stories for children. To have created a whole department of literature is, it must be added, no mean intellectual achievement.

Miss Edgeworth's writings, again, afford the earliest example of novels written to illustrate national character. In this matter she displayed the highest originality. 'Waverley' and 'Old Mortality' have rightly enough overshadowed 'The Absentee' and 'Ormond.' It would be idle to compare the talent of Maria Edgeworth with the genius of Sir Walter Scott; but it must never be forgotten that she was not the disciple but the teacher of Sir Walter. With characteristic generosity he proclaimed to the world, in the last chapter of 'Waverley,' and afterwards in the preface to his collected novels, that her descriptions of Irish character had encouraged him to make a similar experiment upon Scottish character in the Waverley Novels; in other words, Miss Edgeworth planned and carried out in her pictures of Irish life a new kind of literary work, of which she was in strictness the inventor. A glance at Fielding, or Richardson, or Smollett, or Miss Burney will show any one who reflects upon what he reads, how great was the innovation of which Miss Edgeworth was the author. In the works of all these writers there are admirable descriptions of personal character, and Smollett, at any rate, was well aware of the dislike in his day of Englishmen for Scotchmen. But no one of the authors we have mentioned attempts to describe national characteristics. To portray the peculiarities of a nation was a new idea, nor can it be said that Miss Edgeworth failed in the execution of her own conception. Had she not been surpassed by Scott, she might still claim to be the most successful of what we may term "nationalist novel-writers." The truth is, that a critic may fairly regret that she did not confine herself to sketches of Irish life. 'Castle Rackrent,' 'The

Absentee,' 'Ormond,' or 'Ennui,' is worth a hundred 'Harringtons' and 'Helens.' In 'The Absentee' she is a novelist of first-rate powers who is a little too apt to moralize; in 'Harrington' she is a moralist of a somewhat dull type, who, after all, wraps up her moral in a passable story. She rises to the height of her power in 'Castle Rackrent.'

This tale is Irish, and nothing but Irish; it is the serio-comedy or comic-tragedy of the fall of a great Irish family. The humorous element is not absent from a single page, yet the oftener the tale be read, the more one is impressed with its essential melancholy. It is the tragedy of the Irish gentry. As the owners of Castle Rackrent succeed each other, generation by generation, they display the characteristics of a doomed race. The glorious spendthrift, the litigious niggard, the careless, good-natured inheritor of a great name and a ruined estate—all and each, by some strange fatality, hurry on the destruction of the family. When the last of the Rackrent family dies in a drinking bout, and the grasping agent, the son of a devoted dependent, has robbed his former masters of their land and wealth, the tragedy is complete and the story ends, and, as with so many other stories of Irish misery and failure, the reader feels that somehow or other each man has played his natural part. The Rackrent family kept persistently along a road which led to destruction, but the road was the broad path which most of us in their case would have followed; the men had their virtues no less than their vices, and there is no reason to suppose that the owners of Rackrent Castle were essentially worse than English squires. They were overpowered by the force of circumstances, and the great charm as well as the great originality of Miss Edgeworth lies in this, that she saw all the humors and follies of Irish life, and yet felt its tragic side and sympathized with the virtues of the Irish people. At first sight Miss Edgeworth's insight and sympathy seem a little paradoxical, for her own character was that of a staid, very sensible Englishwoman, who, whenever she displayed her feelings, exhibited the sentiment of the eighteenth century. She did not belong to Ireland as Scott belongs to Scotland; and in truth it is just because she stood a little outside the people whom she loved and whom she painted, that her pictures of Ireland as she saw it are so good.

Here we come across another characteristic of Miss Edgeworth's works which may detract from their popularity, but adds to their essential interest. They embody in its best form the feeling and the faith of the eighteenth century. The defects of that age have been more than sufficiently noted; it is well worth while to study the books of a writer who is the incarnation of its virtues. Few better women than Miss Edgeworth have ever lived, but her goodness is of an essentially different type from the goodness which has been admired in England during the greater part of the nineteenth century. She lived during a great religious movement. She was but eight years younger than Charles Simeon, and she died four years after Newman had seceded to Rome. She witnessed the predominance of Evangelicalism and the rise of Tractarianism. She shows no sign of being consciously out of harmony with the tone of what in her day would have been called the religious world. No one more cordially admired the philanthropy of Wilberforce or the benevolence of Mrs. Fry. Yet, for all this, religion as distinguished from benevolence played no part in Miss Edgeworth's philosophy of life. On all matters theological or ecclesiastical she keeps silence. The clergy are in her novels non-existent. If you struck out of them every allusion to a clergyman, not more than two or three pages of her writings would be lost, and these pages would never be missed. Whoever wants to see the change which the world has undergone, and how different was Miss Edgeworth's sentiment from that of the generation which followed her, should compare her not with Miss Yonge, who writes in the interest of an ecclesiastical party, but with an author of such a thoroughly lay and secular type as Anthony Trollope. He had less enthusiasm about him than Maria Edgeworth, but he knew the world in which he lived, and in every page which he has written may be traced the influence, by way either of repulsion or of attraction, of the ecclesiastical movements which have moulded or distracted social life in England. Take away from his novels the Proudies, the Grantleys, the Arrobins, and the Crawleys, and you destroy the best part of his work. With him the clergy form the centre of English society; with Miss Edgeworth they are, at their worst, disreputable parsons who, in hopes of preferment, toady to insolent patrons; and, at their best, philanthropists whose clerical garb does not prevent them from preaching such maxims of toleration and general good-will as might be gathered from the maxims of Benjamin Franklin or the poems of Erasmus Darwin.

Yet let no one fancy for a moment that because Miss Edgeworth is careless or ignorant of theology and uninterested in ecclesiastical controversy, she had not a faith or a religion of her own. She is an enthusiast for fairness, for truthfulness, and for common sense; her zeal in inculcating the practice of these homely but essential virtues is excessive, and has injured her reputation in the world of letters. She is only too much of a preacher. Fortunately or unfortunately, the texts of her sermons are not the texts which have commended themselves to ecclesiastical leaders such as Newman or Manning. This, however, does not show that the lessons she inculcated were not of importance. It is not quite certain that the nineteenth century may not end more nearly than one would have expected at the point where it began. The religious zeal, fervor, or emotion which characterized the earlier stages of the evangelical or of the High-Church movement are not now the marked characteristics of English society. It may be doubted whether Miss Yonge represents the average religious sentiment of English youth any more truly than does Mrs. Sherwood or Hannah More. The age is an age rather of sentimental philanthropy than of religious zeal. The youthful world of England might do much worse than recur to the teaching of Miss Edgeworth, and imbibe something of her enthusiasm for common sense and fanaticism for common justice. The phase of feeling through which the generations which succeeded her have passed has, we have frankly admitted, made her a stranger in the modern England. But the woman who first taught Englishmen and Englishwomen the art of writing stories for children, who first perceived how literature might be enriched by pictures of national character, and who succeeded in impressing upon the world the best lessons of a great era, must of necessity occupy a high place in the English world of letters.

TWO TEXT-BOOKS.

A History of American Literature. By Fred Lewis Pattee, Professor of English and Rhetoric in the Pennsylvania State College. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. 1896.

An Introduction to the Study of American Literature. By Brander Matthews, Professor of Literature, Columbia College. American Book Company.

SCHOOL-BOOK literature is usually so arid that we hesitate to call these superior school-books by their proper name of manual. Prof. Pattee writes avowedly for schools and colleges. Prof. Matthews seems to write for schools alone. The one book is a history; the other, an introduction. The methods of treatment are dissimilar, and we should be beside the mark if we undertook to compare and contrast the volumes step by step. They are alike only in seeking to furnish independent criticism along with the indispensable biographies.

Prof. Pattee sets out to be scientific in his treatment of American literature. He covers the whole ground, from Smith's 'True Relation' to the last novel of Marion Crawford, assigning each author his place in an extensive scheme. "To follow the development of the American spirit and of American thought under the agencies of race, environment, epoch, and nationality" is to propose a severe test of one's own fitness. Prof. Pattee comes out of the ordeal well. He knows his subject, and he knows how to write a book bristling with points of attachment. The boy who cannot seize much of what he offers must be devoid of tentacles. Prof. Pattee's plan involves the grouping of authors into schools, either local or intellectual. In not more than four cases is a chapter devoted to one single figure. Franklin, Irving, Poe, and Hawthorne form exceptions to the general rule of aggregation. Out of thirty chapters the Colonial Period gets two, the Transcendentalists three, and the Cambridge poets three. Novelists, orators, historians, anti-slavery leaders, women, humorists, Southern and Western poets are all swept together into classes. This arrangement might lead to diffuseness of disquisition—it is so delightfully easy to run out into general statement, forgetting that your school-boy must be taught the facts first, and that the extreme of nebulosity is worse than the extreme of baldness. Prof. Pattee is always on his guard here. He aims at making his book more than a biographical skeleton, yet he never blurs the outlines. Each individual author in a group is articulated and criticised. His contemporaries are made to speak about him, and their words are supplemented by excerpts from the best modern critics. Positive aspects are kept prominent. The writer's strong points are emphasized and his limitations very often left to look after themselves. We should object to the generosity of Prof. Pattee's praise in certain cases were the book addressed to adults, but with school-boys considerable optimism may be allowed. We refer now to dead authors. We admit that we are not quite so well pleased with Prof. Pattee's notices of authors still living. His phrases more than once cloy with their Hybla sweetness, and when it comes to prophecy of what a man is *going* to do we draw the line, *e. g.*, "As he is yet in the prime of his powers, much work of no uncertain quality may be confidently expected from his pen."

One of the most attractive features of Prof. Pattee's writing is his readiness and aptness of illustration. He shows familiarity with the entire extent of American literature, and uses

his knowledge to the best advantage. In the collateral fields of European history and literature he is sometimes at fault, and we shall venture to point out a few slips. In his own field he is both minute and exact. His judgments have enough freshness and independence to give them literary interest, and if he inclines to praise neglected authors profusely, he can put limits to the worship of a popular favorite. (To select one notable instance, we hardly think that he gives Holmes his due.) Withal, he is not dogmatic, though clear in his views. Even the school-boy may differ from him and live. We wish that this was the rule. The ordinary school critic of literature writes with the certainty of arithmetic.

Prof. Pattee treats of so many writers—there are nearly 500 names in the index—that we feel we have a right to complain of omissions. We shall take the liberty of mentioning two. Col. Higginson and Frank Bolles are both referred to, but deserve fuller notice than they get. With regard to Col. Higginson the index is at fault, for on p. 434 he is bracketed with Trowbridge and receives a few words. Bolles is disposed of in a phrase along with four others. Slips are not numerous, in consideration of the mass of facts marshalled. One or two are a little singular and should be corrected. Prof. Pattee gives 1401 as the date of the first execution for heresy, evidently having the statute *De hæretico comburendo* in mind; but the statement is unlimited. Xylography seems to be confounded with printing from movable types in the statement, "1440, Printing from movable types made public by Guttenberg." The initial date of the Wars of the Roses is wrong, 1460 for 1455. Edmund Spenser's surname is spelt Spencer. 1646-1660 are the dates which Prof. Pattee fixes for the Commonwealth. On p. 76 we learn that, "in 1787, while in France he [Paine] published in reply to Burke's *Reflections on the French Revolution*, *The Rights of Man*, a book which so delighted the French people that he was at once granted citizenship and given a seat in the National Convention." The speech of Webster against Hayne is assigned to 1829. There are also a few general statements to which exception might fairly be taken. For example, apropos of the series of wars, 1689-1763, Prof. Pattee says, "England had gratified her vanity by waging her wars with France and Spain, but she had unconsciously taught her colonies two great secrets," etc. A larger motive than vanity lay behind these wars. And on p. 313, after insisting on Bancroft's "perfect accuracy" and "defects of style," Prof. Pattee institutes a comparison between him and Froude. "Taken for all in all, Bancroft is to be compared with no modern British historian save Froude." Froude is not often praised for accuracy nor decried for bad style.

Prof. Matthews's plan of treatment is topical. He fixes the student's eye on the best, and the best alone. Seeking to centre attention, he rigorously omits "all dates and all proper names and all titles of books not absolutely essential." Interest is thus concentrated "on the literary career of each of these great writers and on their practice of the literary art, in the hope and expectation that the student will be encouraged and stimulated to read their works for his own pleasure." Portraits, views, and facsimiles of manuscripts are used to heighten the graphic effect. Thirteen of the eighteen chapters are essays on authors whose claim to such recognition no one would deny. Another chapter goes to Halleck and Drake; the rest are on general subjects, namely, The Colonial Period, Other Writers, and The End of the Nineteenth Century. Prof. Matthews's system has the great merit of doing away with the idea that literature is written for the torment of children in the elementary schools. The classics have long been regarded in this light, much to the disadvantage of Julius Cæsar. Prof. Matthews treats *jeunes gens* rationally. He says: "Here is an entertaining essay. If you like it, remember that the masterpieces are better still. Go to them." We heartily agree with his conception of the teacher's office and commend the manner in which he has bodied it forth. He is an independent critic throughout, and his remarks are often original and suggestive. The contrast between Franklin and Emerson is quite above the average level of school criticism, and the book abounds in bright sayings. Prof. Matthews seems to be unimpeachable in his statement of facts, and gives a critic little to pounce upon in other respects. The following sentence, however, in his sketch of Thoreau is rather in the nature of a bull: "He developed consumption, and long before the end came at last, he knew that it would come soon." A strict censorship might also exclude some of the pieces mentioned in the "Brief Chronology of American Literature" which is appended.

We have taken up these treatises separately because they differ in scope and method. It may be as well in conclusion to touch upon certain features of contact. Both Prof. Pattee and Prof. Matthews seek to uphold the view that since the end of the colonial period a national American literature, independent of European tradition and treatment, has come into being. They both emphasize the national note and exalt the ideal of literary independence. No scholar will ever go away from either of them with the notion that he can become a creditable author by imitating European masterpieces. He may strike his roots through an indefinite number of strata, but he must assimilate if he wishes to live. This is their common doctrine. But Prof. Matthews seems to us to see American literature in better scale. Prof. Pattee uses the word "immortal" till it becomes almost a trick of style. When, for instance, he says that Freneau, "an unpretentious scribbler of newspaper verse, . . . has become immortal because he forgot once or twice the lifeless rules and models of his age and sang spontaneously of nature," we feel that he is abusing language by falling back on the idiom of the daily papers. Prof. Matthews, the most national of critics in sentiment, sees things more nearly as they are. While he repudiates feudalism to the length of styling Margaret Fuller's husband "an Italian named Ossoli," he does not go to the length of applying "eternal" and "immortal" to invisible poets. Both writers are lucid and entertaining. Prof. Matthews, in his attempt to be perfectly clear, sometimes becomes didactic, and speaks as though he were addressing children of five instead of fifteen years old. His tone may prove a little exasperating to forward boys with Cooper, Scott, and Dickens at their fingers' ends. Both authors have supplied full bibliographical information, and the suggested questions will be useful. Prof. Pattee requires too much collateral reading if the literature master is to keep his present place behind the classical and mathematical masters. He will be accused, in hackneyed school phrase, of "robbing Peter to pay Paul." To sum up in a word, we are glad that the teachers of the country are reinforced with two such excellent text-books.

A Survey of Greek Civilization. By Prof. J. P. Mahaffy. Meadville: Flood & Vincent. 1896.

In this his latest book, of some 350 pages, Mr. Mahaffy presents the Chautauqua Reading Circle with a general view of those conceptions of Greek civilization with which his earlier works have familiarized us. While his writings are always suggestive to the special student, his best known work has been in a somewhat popular vein, so that one naturally finds a good deal of self quotation in a volume specially designed for the unlearned reader. About a tenth of the 'Survey' is in fact composed of citations from the earlier works. Mr. Mahaffy prides himself on the cosmopolitanism of his attitude towards life and literature; and his scorn of English conservative scholarship, compared with the progressiveness of the Germans, is freely expressed. To the American ear, however, he sometimes strikes a false note; one wonders how such a phrase as the "vain notion of universal suffrage" (p. 98) will be taken by the average Chautauqua reader.

The writer's resolve not to lapse into hackneyed enthusiasms may account for some rather unusual estimates. Mr. Mahaffy has shown elsewhere his personal indifference to Pindar—whom Chautauquans will probably associate henceforth with Mr. George Meredith—but there is some inconsistency in condemning his elaboration of form, which Mr. Mahaffy considers the lesser side of literary art, in a work that puts Aristotle outside the pale of Greek culture on the score of his neglect of style. One would be fair enough in calling Pindar the "Gray of Greek poetry" if one's readers were likely to adjust the parallel for themselves by reading the "bold electric" Theban in the original.

With abstract thought Mr. Mahaffy is not greatly in sympathy; hence Plato's position as the foremost philosopher of Greece, and the debt of all later philosophers to him, are barely indicated. One can only hope that a study of Jowett, which is recommended, will remove the impression that the Attic Moses was a querulous moralist who wrote prose that Bishop Berkeley barely rivalled. The Demosthenes cult is attacked with the author's usual vigor; among the moral shortcomings of the man and the politician for which brilliant oratory cannot be allowed to atone, Mr. Mahaffy quaintly places his "ingratitude to Alexander." Thucydides is condemned for obscurity, though we are told that there are in him "occasional flashes of felicitous phrase, as there are even in Mr. Meredith's novels"—for Mr. Meredith's awful example serves more than once to point a moral. Is there any risk that Chautauqua will take Mr. Mahaffy seriously when he sorrows over the "want of moral earnestness" in the comedies of Aristophanes, and the immorality of his "gross misrepresentation of Socrates" in the "Clouds"?

The modernness of Greek civilization has always been an *idée fixe* with Mr. Mahaffy, and we were prepared for some startling analogies by the parallel, in the 'Empire of the Ptolemies,' between Ptolemy Philadelphus and Mr. Walter Pater. The collocation of Æschylus, Shakspere, Scott, and the Gospel narratives need not take one's breath, and the analogy between the aristocratic aloofness of the Platonic circle and the reluctance of the best American society to enter politics is worthy of attention. But to call Elis the Epsom of Greece, and Horace the Roman Tom Moore, is heartlessly to mislead, not to illumine, "the American public who want to appreciate such things" (p. 88) and "the Ame-

rican reader who insists that he should have some far-off inkling of their nature" (p. 89). Mr. Mahaffy has done much in his earlier works to interest the reader in the renaissance of Greek literature under the Romans; Plutarch and Dio receive a full share of attention in the present work. The interesting and vivid style of the whole makes us condone occasional lapses into inelegance, among which we may note the following (p. 111): "From the times of the Persian wars, when Herodotus describes them [the Persian nobles] with sympathy in their home life—or else jumping overboard when asked by their king to lighten his ship in a dangerous storm—we feel ourselves in the society like that of the French *noblesse*"; or (p. 227), "Style was perhaps the only corner of culture to which we may suppose Aristotle indifferent and therefore no zealous teacher thereof"; or (p. 293), "The great philosophies which were its glory are only preserved to us in fragments, and we know positively that they scorned the art of composition." A contrast of the culture of intellect without moral forces to balance it, and of the culture of intellect with the support of Christianity—which might have been looked for, considering the aim of the book and its audience—Mr. Mahaffy, perhaps wisely, declines to give.

The Writings in Prose and Verse of Eugene Field. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

Mr. Field's works have been published in a handsome edition of ten volumes, the last two of which are entirely new. Each volume has an introduction of its own, furnished by a friend and admirer. Of these Mr. Stedman's is the most critical, but all unite in dwelling on the paraphrases of Horace and the poems for children as constituting the author's special claim to fame. We may, however, point out that they rather slur over the journalistic character of Mr. Field's work, which was perhaps its distinguishing "note." A born humorist, writing verse and prose for a newspaper in a community as yet too entirely devoted to money-getting to be even provincial, Mr. Field began by writing some very amusing caricatures of Chicago life and manners. "Culture's Garland" is very broad humor, but we defy any one to read the account of the literary folding-bedstead or the poems of Sappho without laughing, and for ourselves we are inclined to think that laughter, and not solemn laudation, would be to Mr. Field's shade the most refreshing tribute. When critics enter Journalia, the true divisional line between which country and Bohemia is often difficult to trace, they should remember that it is a land, as Mr. Field would have said, "to mirth devote," and that to the author of "Casey's Tabble dote" the more tragic life was, the more of a ridiculous jumble it became. The idea of a subscription edition of one of his books amused him so much that he proposed to the friend who undertook it that each of them should keep a copy and destroy all the rest; and when Mr. Stedman came to Chicago on a literary pilgrimage, he heralded the poet's approach with "scare" head-lines.

He evidently never regarded himself altogether seriously, and it bored him to be so regarded. He wrote, day by day, whatever came into his head, and his more ambitious attempts, of which the Horatian paraphrases are by far the best, are often marred by an indifference of taste which no doubt was heightened by his occupation. The paraphrase of "Exegi monumentum" strikes us as the best, but none of them are as good as Thackeray's "Dear Lucy, I hate your made dishes." In fact, Mr. Field's Horace will never seem tolerable to those who know what others have done in the same vein. Mr. Field's talent was distinctly imitative; he is a literary mimic, as dozens of poems show, a caricaturist, as others prove (some of his caricature Chaucerian verse is often laughable), and does not object on occasion to lower flights, when, if the humor strikes him, he will cheerfully grin at his audience through a horse-collar. He was a great practical joker, as the true journalist often is. His pathos, which is as genuine as his humor, is also quite as loose. It is good, bad, and indifferent. On the other hand, one or two of the allegories are quite as good as many of Hans Andersen's. His children's poems reek of the nursery, and often drop into genuine baby talk. Many of them are just the sort of doggerel which a gifted nurse might be able to compose. Whether they can hold their place as literature may be doubted, but then we are not sure that we know exactly what literature is, or will be. To make Mr. Field a solemn classic is a pious effort on the part of his publishers, to which every one who loves a joke will wish godspeed.

A First Fleet Family. By Louis Becke and Walter Jeffery. Macmillan. 1896.

Old Melbourne Memories. By Rolf Boldrewood. Second edition. Macmillan. 1896.

In the first of these books we have, under the guise of "a hitherto unpublished narrative of certain remarkable adventures compiled from the papers of Sergeant William Dew of the Marines," a thinly veiled romance based upon the history of the first convict fleet sent out to colonise New South Wales. The story is well told and interesting, and historical accuracy is maintained. The reader who has not already perused Governor Phillip's narrative of those early days will derive a fair impression thereof. The loves of two men for one woman are woven into the relation; and although both could not gain her, two happy marriages bring the story to a close. In a certain sense this book is meant as an antidote to Marcus Clarke's 'For the Term of his Natural Life,' which the authors believe to throw an undue glamour over the characters of too many convicts. Perhaps so; but no one can have upon the spot studied the past convict history of Tasmania without coming to the conclusion that some such book as Marcus Clarke's was necessary properly to bring home to the present generation the horrors and brutalities of that system. We can be just to Governor Phillip and many other men who sought to do their best under difficult circumstances, without forgetting the inevitable excesses due to arbitrary power in the hands of men removed from the influences of a wholesome public opinion, and in times less humane than the present.

The illustrations of this volume are, upon the whole, admirable; but at page 12 we have a frigate sailing up channel, where the context describes it as sailing down, and at page 107 Governor Phillip reads his commission under a flag that was not then in existence—that of the United Kingdom.

We have also a second edition of one of Mr. Browne's stirring Australian books, of which much relates to the founding of the Victorian Western District north of Warnambool and Port Fairy, portions of which we knew well in times shortly after those about which he writes. The descriptions of scenery are good. There is perhaps a little too much *laudatio temporis acti*; and even the San Franciscan may be prepared to excuse much of the enthusiasm of the early colonist in his description of Melbourne as "the most highly civilized, the most prosperous city in the world, for the years of its existence." Real names being given, we naturally find tolerably unstinted praise all round. It is for us, however, impossible to be led to regard with affection times when "clearing off the blacks" appeared a necessary concomitant of settling the country. This book, while interesting to old colonists and to Victorians generally, is not so likely to appeal to the outer world as Rolf Boldrewood's 'Robbery under Arms' and 'A Modern Buccaneer.'

More Hawarden Horace. By Charles L. Graves. London: Smith, Elder & Co. 1896.

Mr. Graves's 'Hawarden Horace,' reviewed by us last year, was received with such hearty applause that he was amply warranted in giving us more. This second volume is preceded by a bright and scholarly essay by Mr. T. E. Page, one of the best classical students of England, vindicating the ancient estimate of Horace against some of the fantastic criticisms of the day, and likewise Mr. Graves's right to employ him as the basis for these *jeux d'esprit*. It is a good essay; but one wonders why it was called for. Perhaps some of Mr. Gladstone's Scotch friends were pained by the writings that treated him in any but a serious manner, and needed the joke explained.

It is impossible within our limits to do justice, or anything like it, to Mr. Graves's delicious fooling. The poem in imitation of "Pindarum quisquis" (Carm. iv., 2), addressed to the new laureate and warning him against rivalry with the late one, may be specially commended, as likely to meet a wide appreciation in America. Forced to select the shortest ode as a specimen, we are glad to give the version of "Persicos odi" (Carm. i., 38)—of which Thackeray's adaptation is familiar—addressed to Lord Warkworth, the youthful heir of the house of Percy:

Though the pomp and parade of the Percys I never could wholly abide,
Nor those strawberry leaves—rarely sported, alas! on the Liberal side—
Still it pains me acutely to see you, a youth of such promise and power,
Given o'er to the cult of the primrose, an utterly obsolete flower.

Now, if you're in search of an emblem sufficiently simple and neat,
With the dear little delicate shamrock there's nothing on earth to compete;
I've a clump of it growing at Hawarden, so come any day that you're free.
P. S.—If it's fine, in the garden you'll find us at five o'clock tea.

There is appended to Mr. Graves's poems a very witty adaptation of Epode ii, by Mr. E. V. Lucas.

Introduction to Elementary Practical Biology: A Laboratory Guide for High-School and College Students. By Charles Wright Dodge, M.S. Harper & Bros. 8vo, pp. xxiii, 422.

The pages of this volume bristle with interrogation-marks. Pupils are expected to find the answers to the questions in specimens of different typical forms of plants or animals. Explanations in regard to securing the object and preparing it, to reagents, implements, and methods of examination, are supplied in the text; but the student is required to find, note, and sketch from the specimen, as if conduct-

ing an original investigation. The questions lead the attention in proper directions, they prevent waste of time over less important detail in comparative studies, and they include enough to make up a comprehensive knowledge of the groups from which the types are chosen. The matter is divided into three parts: part first relates to the biology of the cell, and includes the morphology and physiology in unicellular and multicellular plants and animals; part second treats of the biology of the animal, the types chosen being the sponge, polyp, hydroid, starfish, earthworm, lobster or crayfish, locust, mussel, and the frog; and part third contains the biology of the plant, with types from greenfelts, stoneworts, rockweeds, moulds, mushrooms, liverworts, ferns, and flowering plants. The order of procedure is the following: Morphology—naked-eye characters, microscopic characters; Physiology—growth, movements of protoplasm; General questions. The terms defined are in bold-face type. Lists of reagents and of helpful books are appended. In general the subjects are well arranged, the questions are evidently chosen by experience in teaching, and the explanations are full enough for sufficient aid to instructors and students without inducing carelessness or laziness. The volume is one that must prove helpful to instructors of all grades, and it is one that can be used with great advantage in study without a teacher. A student able to answer its questions cannot fail to possess an excellent knowledge in the morphology and physiology of plants and animals.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

Allport, Dr. F. The Eye and its Care. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.
Bray, C. The King's Revenge. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Cheshire, H. F. The Hastings Chess Tournament, 1895. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Dijkstra, W., and Hettema, F. B. Friesch Woordenboek (Frisian Dictionary). Part I. Leeuwarden: Meijer & Schaafsma; Oxford: James Parker & Co.
Edgar Fairfax. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Frederic, H. March Parks. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Gordon, Rev. A. J. The Ministry of the Spirit. How Christ Came to Church. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. Each 25c.
Hans Glouck vs. William McKinley and Others. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. 25c.
Keeler, B. C. History of Demonetization. American News Co.
Lea, H. C. History of Auricular Confession and Indulgences in the Latin Church. Vol. III. Indulgences. Philadelphia: Lea Bros. $3.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. Jill, a London Flower Girl. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Needham, Geo. C. Shadow and Substance. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 75c.
Parmelee, Mary P. Evolution of an Empire: The United States. New York: William Beverly Harrison. 50c.
Robinson, Edward, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston. Catalogue of Casts. Part III. Greek and Roman Sculpture. Revised ed. 1896. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Silver; or, Gold Bug's Financial Kindergarten. New York: Kindergarten Publishing Co. 25c.
Smith, F. C. A Lover in Homespun, and Other Stories. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Smith, J. Payne. A Compendious Syriac Dictionary. Part I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
The Oxford Homer. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Transactions of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts, 1892-1894. Boston: Published by the Society.
Trevert, Edward, something about X Rays for Everybody. Lynn, Mass.: Bubier Publishing Co.
Trowbridge, Frances B. The Ashley Genealogy: A History of the Descendants of Robert Ashley of Springfield, Massachusetts. New Haven: The Author. $5.25.
Upton, J. S. Money in Politics. 2d ed. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
White, Horace. Money and Banking. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50c.
Wilcox, W. D. Camping in the Canadian Rockies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.
Wilson, Annie H. Mr. Mercer of New York. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Wilson, J. G. Love in Letters. G. W. Dillingham.
Woods, Kate T. Mopsy: Her Tangles and Triumphs. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 3, 1896.

The Week.

EX-PRESIDENT HARRISON'S speech in Carnegie Hall on Thursday evening was addressed primarily to Republicans, and its effectiveness consisted mainly but not wholly in putting Republicans on their mettle and spurring them to their utmost efforts. At the same time it was more than a merely Republican speech. It rose to a higher plane than partisan speeches usually go. It contained some ideas that have not heretofore been met with in the campaign, and it enforced at length some others that have not been sufficiently dwelt upon by other speakers. Mr. Harrison's comment on the split in the Democratic party was very happy. "A party that cannot be split," he said, "is a public menace. When the leaders of a party assembled in convention depart from its traditional principle and advocate doctrines that threaten the integrity of the Government, the social order of our community, and the security and soundness of our finance, it ought to split, and it dignifies itself when it does split." That is a maxim not bounded by time nor limited to any country. The Republican party has had experience of its truth in one Presidential election, the Democratic in more than one, and when it ceases to be a truth the republic will cease to exist. When the time comes that a party can be led with impunity hither and thither regardless of the moral character of its acts, not only is there a public menace, but a sure sign of internal rot and decay. The Democratic revolt against the Bryan ticket is the best possible evidence that American institutions are still sound.

Although Mr. Harrison's argument on the money question brought out no new points—and indeed none can be looked for after the discussion of the past fifteen years—the old ones were extremely well treated. He made a decided hit in saying that "the first dirty errand that a dirty dollar does is to cheat the workingman." How true this is, every history of depreciated currency tells. Another felicitous saying of Mr. Harrison's was that Mr. Bryan, or any other person in the Presidential chair holding his views, could put the country on the silver basis within a week's time without any new legislation by Congress. All that it would be necessary to do would be to pay silver at the Treasury to holders of the Government's obligations who demand gold. Not only is this true, but he might have added that if Mr. Bryan were elected the country would go to the silver basis, or at all events would go off the gold basis, without waiting even for his inauguration. It would go there as soon as the votes were counted. All in all, Mr. Harrison made a notable contribution to the literature of the campaign, and not the least satisfactory part of his speech was his tribute to the faithfulness of President Cleveland to the principles of sound finance, and courage in facing the defection of his own party.

Three large and enthusiastic conventions of sound-money Democrats in the great States of Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Illinois on August 25, constitutted an ominous day's work for Mr. Bryan's candidacy. He and his Populistic principles were indignantly repudiated by all three assemblages, and delegates were sent to the Indianapolis convention to aid in the nomination of a sound-money Democratic Presidential ticket. The quantity of the attendance, as well as its quality, left no doubt that in the three States the intelligence and character of the Democratic party will refuse to support Mr. Bryan. It becomes more and more plain daily that this is the case in all parts of the country. Senator Blackburn is forced to admit that in Kentucky there is a "big Democratic bolt and a dangerous one," and if the truth were to be confessed by the Bryanites about other States in the Union, similar reports would be heard. Where is Bryan going to get the recruits to make good these Democratic losses? No candidate, not even Horace Greeley, has been obliged to face such a party defection as Bryan faces to-day, the full dimensions of which the Indianapolis convention will make manifest. He is becoming more and more each day a Populist candidate pure and simple, and if the present Democratic tide away from him be not checked, the Indianapolis ticket is likely to poll a larger Democratic vote in many States than he will.

The platform adopted by the sound-money Democrats at Syracuse on Monday is perhaps the most striking deliverance of a political body that has been put forth this year. Its strongest and best plank is the one on the money question, but it is not confined to that. It embraces nearly all the subjects that are now attracting public attention, and it deals with all of them in a calm, decisive tone which must command the admiration of thoughtful men, even those who do not subscribe to all of its doctrines. Its most impressive feature is the tone in which it recites the underlying principles of the Democratic party and affirms the intention of maintaining them. The opinion has prevailed rather widely since the close of the war and reconstruction that the Democratic party has no distinctive principles; that what it calls its principles are the rags and tatters of the ante-war period, of various hues, mixed up with the cast-off garments of the Republican party. Probably the masses of the Democratic party itself could not define their beliefs to their own satisfaction except by saying that they are for the cause of the poor man, whatever that may be. This leaves considerable room for doubt as to how poor a man must be in order to have his cause supported by a political party, and also in what manner his interests can be best promoted. It is also unsatisfactory as a definition, since the Republican party claims to be the supporter of the poor man's interests also by protective tariffs. The Syracuse platform declares that "the maintenance of the Constitution in its integrity, the preservation of the national credit unimpaired and the national honor unsullied, the freedom of the individual to engage in all the pursuits of life unhampered by the interference of paternal government, and the right of every citizen to receive the reward of his labor undiminished by a debasement of the standard of value, are fundamental and essential principles of the Democratic party." Of the four parties now in the field, all except the Populists declare themselves in favor of maintaining the Constitution. Two of the remaining three declare themselves in favor of preserving the national credit unimpaired and the national honor unsullied. The Bryan party omits any declaration of this kind, for obvious reasons. The National Democrats represented at Syracuse declare that they are in favor of giving the individual citizen the widest freedom to earn his living unhampered by a paternal government. The distinctive difference between them and the Republican party is found here.

The Democratic situation in Connecticut is unique. In the other States which sent sound-money delegations to the Chicago convention the control of the party machinery has been surrendered to or seized by the silver men. But in Connecticut the gold men on the Democratic State committee, numbering twenty out of the membership of twenty-four, stand upon the gold platform of the State convention, and refuse to acknowledge the right of the Chicago convention to change their party creed. More than this, they angered the Bryan Democrats beyond measure by neglecting, at a recent meeting, to endorse the Chicago nominees, even by so much as naming them in the call for the State convention, September 16. They were careful, too, in their choice of words in that call, addressing it to the electors of the State "who favor the principles of the Democratic party."

As a result of this manœuvring, a struggle is going on all over the State between the gold and the silver factions for the control of the State convention; this issue so monopolizing attention that no mention is made of candidates for State offices, and the pet State issue of constitutional reform has sunk into temporary obscurity. With a few unimportant exceptions, the Democratic press of the State supports the gold cause, and this, with the possession of the party machinery, gives the gold Democrats hope of success. Their hardest fight is against the inertia of "party regularity," and against the spoils-loving class in the cities to whom party victory is everything and principle nothing. That the contest is an uncertain one is attested by the fact that both sides have appointed provisional State committees. If the gold men win, it is their intention to nominate electors pledged, in the improbability of election, to vote only for a gold-standard man for President.

The final failure of efforts for a fusion between the Bryan Democrats and the Populists in Kentucky seems to assure McKinley the electoral votes of that State. In 1892 the Democrats polled 175,461 votes, the Republicans 135,441, and the Populists 23,500, with 6,442 for the Prohibition ticket. The election for Governor last year called out a still larger vote, and showed a great change in the attitude of men. Hardin, the Democratic candidate, was so strongly for free coinage that he drew to his support more than a quarter of the Populists, cutting down their vote to 16 911, but he lost so many sound-money Democrats to the Republicans that he received only 163,524 votes, while Bradley secured 172,436 and a plurality of 8,912. A fusion of the Democrats and Populists last year would have defeated the Republicans by 8,000 votes, and such a fusion has appeared essential this year to the defeat of McKinley, as the revolt among the Democrats against Bryan is far more serious than the disaffection towards the Democratic candidate for Governor last year. But the Bryan managers have rejected all advances from the Populists, and the chairman of the Populist committee now declares that they "will make a bitter fight against the Democrats in this campaign, and let the State go as it will."

We are assured by persons familiar with the most intelligent sentiment of the South that there is great anxiety there about the position which Southern States are likely to be put into by the election. Southern men who have been doing the most to develop the new South and bring it more nearly abreast with the North, are greatly troubled by the disastrous possibilities of having their States put themselves on record in favor of repudiation. They think the consequences to their credit in the financial centres of the world will be very bad. They say that every Southern State which can be brought to vote against Bryan will be certain to profit greatly by thus showing that it is an exception, and many of them are working earnestly to bring voters to a realization of this fact. Undoubtedly this would be the case. If Kentucky, or Virginia, or Alabama, or Tennessee votes against Bryan, such action will be the most convincing notification which could be made to capital everywhere that, however it may be with other Southern States, one or each of these, as the case may be, offers a safe field for investment and enterprise.

Watson continues to make trouble for the managers who are trying to effect a fusion of the Bryan Democracy and the Populists upon a Presidential ticket which will carry Sewall for the second place. These managers thought they had found a way out of their embarrassment by refusing to notify either Bryan or Watson of his nomination by the Populist convention, on the ground that the precedents of the party were against such action. But Watson shows from the record that, four years ago, Weaver and Field, the Populist nominees for President and Vice-President, were both notified of their nominations and made speeches of acceptance. If nominees are not notified, and do not respond, he asks, how is the party to know whether they accept the nomination and endorse the platform? If the St. Louis convention did not mean that Bryan and Watson should be notified, why was a committee appointed to notify them? Continuing his disagreeable questioning, he asks whether Senator Allen, chairman of that committee, refuses to do his duty because he is afraid Bryan will repudiate the support of the Populists. He concludes in a way which shows that he "means business":

> "If Mr. Bryan is ashamed of the votes which are necessary to elect him, we ought to know it. He cannot carry his own State without our help, and if he is ashamed of our help he is not the man our people have taken him to be. Let's have no dodging. Let the committee do its duty and notify Mr. Bryan. It is humiliating both to the party and to its other nominee, Mr. Watson, to let the campaign go on in this unheard-of manner."

The tone of Mr. Bryan's speeches continues to fall steadily as his journeyings advance. He appeals more and more directly to the discontented, and seeks more openly to aggravate their unrest. His entire speech at Syracuse on Wednesday week, and it was a long one, was an insidious effort in this direction, the most reckless one of the kind he has yet made. It was filled with such utterances as these addressed to the farmers: "Have your taxes fallen in the last twenty years? My observation is that they are higher than they were twenty years ago. If it requires twice as much of the products of the farm to pay your taxes now as it required twenty years ago, then in effect your taxes are twice as high. If it takes twice as much of your products to pay the interest upon your mortgages, then that interest is in effect twice as high." What was the object of this kind of talk except to get the idea into the farmer's head that it would be a just and proper thing for him to repudiate half his debt by voting for a 50-cent dollar? Side by side with this insidious misrepresentation was a continuous flood of denunciation of "money-grabbers," "financiers," "syndicates," and "bankers," and an endless repetition of the regulation Bryan assurance that it is the right of every man in our 70,000,000 of people who has a ballot to say with it what kind of money we shall have. His Buffalo speech the next night was one long rant about our being great enough as a nation to select our money standard without asking the consent of Europe, interspersed at intervals with the usual stirring but now somewhat trite assertion that no party in this country has ever dared to declare in favor of the gold standard. Can this style of campaigning stand the strain of two months' more daily use?

Mr. Bryan was as fitly introduced in Buffalo as he was when he spoke in this city. Elliot Danforth of the Maynard State Canvassing Board presided at the meeting here, and another member of the same board, Charles F. Tabor, presided at the Buffalo meeting. Mr. Tabor, at the time the board canvassed the illegal return in defiance of the order of the court, was Attorney-General of the State. As the law officer of the State, his offence was far more heinous than that of his associates. He knew the laws, and he was the paid servant of the State whose sworn duty it was to see that they were obeyed. He should not only have refused as a member of the Canvassing Board to canvass the illegal return, but should have advised his associates, who had less opportunity to know the law than he had, that they were committing a grave offence in canvassing it. He did neither, and was obliged later to appear before the bar of the highest court of the State, hear himself rebuked sharply for contempt of its order, and pay a heavy fine for his conduct. The judgment carried with it conviction also of complicity in a crime against the ballot-box by which a seat in the State Senate was stolen. Since this humiliating experience Mr. Tabor has not figured at all in the public gaze. He comes forward now as an ardent Bryan advocate, willingly performing a service which "Blue-eyed Billy" Sheehan, the official leader of the Democratic organization in Buffalo, did not feel able to discharge. During the more than a fortnight that Mr. Bryan has spent in New York State the only conspicuous Democrats whom he has been able to rally to his cause are Danforth, Tabor, and Sulzer—

for Senator Hill was not able to preside for him at Albany.

Senator Hill's performances with Mr. Bryan last week were eminently characteristic. He entertained him at luncheon in his private house, which is most appropriately called a "Roost," considering the Senator's present attitude, and afterwards allowed him to go alone to a political meeting in Albany. Thus he was for Bryan socially, but not committed to him politically. All the journalistic wiseacres are speculating as to what the Senator said to the candidate at luncheon, and one newspaper publishes a life-like "cut" of the feast, which represents the whole party as sitting in the depths of gloom with faces turned away from one another. The great mystery whether or not Mr. Hill will support Bryan remains nearly as dense as ever, with wide opportunity for speculation and bogus reports. This doubtless strikes him as shrewd politics, but it only furnishes new evidence of his inability to grasp the spirit of the present campaign. The people are not looking now for dodgers and trimmers, but for men of courage and convictions, and the Democratic party is dividing very cleanly between the two classes. Boss McLaughlin and his "gang" in Brooklyn took sides last week with Sheehan and Tammany, and came out for Bryan, Populism, and repudiation, emphasizing more clearly than ever the line of division in this State. The longer Mr. Hill remains perched upon his roost, the more difficult will it be for him to descend on either side without disastrous consequences to himself.

The outcome of the Saratoga convention is a most welcome surprise. It can even be called a merciful deliverance from what seemed to be a serious peril. We were threatened first with Aldridge, then with Platt, then with Odell, then with Fish as the candidate for Governor. Instead of any one of these we have Mr. Black, who, whatever else may be said of him, possesses none of the defects which would have made the candidacy of any of the four persons named an injury to the Republican Presidential ticket and a menace to the public well-being of the State. Mr. Black, as his speeches show, is a narrowly partisan Republican, but when that is said of him, the most serious objection which independent and Democratic voters can make to him has been recorded. He is a man of undoubted personal integrity, of much force of character, and, instead of being a "dealer" and "dickerer" with political rascals in his own and other parties, has been a persistent fighter of them. So far as his record gives assurance of his future conduct, he is likely to be a partisan in office, but not a partisan who will seek to disobey or get around the laws, or to advance party interest at the expense of the public welfare. Nor did the convention limit its wise action to the head of the ticket. The nominations of Mr. Woodruff for Lieutenant-Governor and of Judge Vann for the Court of Appeals are to be commended without reservation, both gentlemen being eminently well fitted for the positions for which they are named. It matters little now what action the supporters of Bryan and Sewall may take in regard to either national or State nominations. Every voter who makes up his mind to vote for the McKinley electors can with clear conscience vote the "straight" Republican State ticket at the same time, reserving his independent action for congressional and legislative nominations.

The import of gold from Europe to this country, which began week before last and has already reached a volume of $20,000,000, is chiefly remarkable as our first gold importation, on a genuine commercial basis, since the winter of 1891. It is true that we have received since that time some large amounts of foreign gold. But the importations of last spring and of 1895 were purely a matter of barter against new Government issues sold abroad, and were made with sterling exchange either at or near our actual gold-export point. In 1893, again, the large gold imports of the autumn simply responded to the panic premium on currency, and were thoroughly abnormal. There is a perfectly apparent reason why the sterling market now, for the first time in nearly half a decade, has returned to rates which warrant these gold imports. It is well enough known that, prior to 1892, import of gold from Europe to New York was a regular incident of the autumn season. During the spring and summer, when our merchandise exports were light and our imports heavy, exchange advanced and gold went out from here to Europe. In the fall and winter season, when our produce export trade was heaviest, the gold came back again. So confidently did bankers count on this automatic ebb and flow that gold for export was invariably supplied from the New York banks, and no gold-shipper thought of resorting to the Treasury. The banks were satisfied to supply the foreign trade in March with the gold which they were well aware would return in August and September.

How completely all this proper adjustment of the international market was upset by the reckless law of July 14, 1890, every intelligent reader is aware. At the very moment when a general movement of trade reaction had set in, and when, therefore, the domestic need for circulating medium was light, the Government was driven into the money market with a compulsory annual issue of something like $50,000,000 of paper. What followed is a matter of recent history. The channels of currency were glutted within two years; the West, instead of taking currency from New York at the harvest season, sent idle legal tenders East, and, by the opening of 1892, an expulsion of gold from our markets began which has since been almost continuous. In the middle of 1892 the city banks were compelled, in self-defence, to protect their own gold holdings; as a consequence, remitters to Europe, under the continuous high rate of exchange, were forced to the redemption of legal-tender notes in gold at the sub-treasury. If we are asked what has brought about the present wholesome change, the simple answer is, contraction of the currency. Withdrawal of idle money into the Treasury as a result of the bond issues is a sufficiently clumsy recourse—it has been doubly hampered by the deficit in revenue; but it has at last proved effective in restoring the money market to natural conditions. Even a year ago last month, the total currency circulating in the United States was nearly $13,000,000 greater than in August, 1892. Last month it was nearly $100,000,000 less than in August, 1895. The autumn trade begins, demand for money grows to keenness, and at once, for the first time since 1891, foreign exchange declines to the import point and foreign gold flows freely to our markets.

Now that we are on speaking terms with the protectionists, some of whom cannot refrain from "talking tariff," it seems proper to call attention to what has taken place in New South Wales. This colony, which for many years had a "tariff for revenue only," fell recently into the hands of the protectionists, who at once applied their principles. The results not meeting popular approval, a free-trade policy was once more adopted, of course amid violent outcries against the ruin of industries, which in this case had some claim to be in their infancy. But so far ruin has been averted. A dock company which was to go out of business, is building a new and larger graving dock. The intercolonial fleet is growing "by leaps and bounds." It was predicted that if the duty on wheat was removed, land would go out of tillage; but the number of acres under wheat has increased this year by 156,000. The indications are that this year, for the first time, New South Wales will produce all the wheat it consumes. The farmers who have taken up the new lands are immigrants from the high-protection colony of Victoria. It is even true, according to the correspondent of the London *Times*, that no factory of any kind has closed its works or reduced its output. It should be added that this free-trade experiment has resulted, not in a deficiency of revenue, but in a surplus. As they have no silver legislation to contend with in New South Wales, and the cost of administering the government has been materially reduced, this does not seem to us surprising.

McKINLEY'S LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE.

MR. MCKINLEY'S letter of acceptance had been awaited with some feeling of apprehension by those of his supporters in the present campaign who are not members of the Republican party. If we may judge from communications which have reached us from Republican sources, there was fear also in that quarter lest he should say something which might turn away a part of the non-Republican support that he has thus far received. The letter is now in print. It is better than we had anticipated, and is not likely to repel any substantial support that the writer of it had already gained through the gigantic folly of the Chicago convention. On the money question the argument is very lucid and very sound. Although we "take no stock" in international bimetallism, looking upon it as a vain effort to grasp at moonbeams in a pool of water, we are aware that both parties have been committed to it and that the Republican party is still committed to it. In the very worst aspect it is harmless, and there is no reason for quarrelling with anything Mr. McKinley says on this branch of the subject.

The acknowledgment is tacitly made that the money question is the chief issue of the campaign by giving it the foremost place and the largest amount of space in the discussion. The arguments are simple and well arranged and well presented. The silver dollar under free coinage, the letter says, "seeks to introduce a new measure of value, but would add no value to the thing measured." After recounting the manufacture of the silver dollars now outstanding, and their sale by the Government at 100 cents gold for each of them, and the Government's promise to keep them at par with gold, it points out the dishonoring fraud of a measure whose effect must be to reduce the value of every one of these dollars to 53 cents gold. The Government could not take up and redeem these dollars in gold while the mint was pouring out an unlimited quantity of others, of the same kind, for private parties, which were passing at once into circulation. Of course no such redemption of the present silver currency is intended by the silverites themselves, even it were possible. What they demand is the instant repudiation of the promise made by the Government to keep the two metals at a parity. Mr. Bryan may express an opinion that a free-coinage act passed by our Congress would have the miraculous effect of doubling the value of all the silver in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. It is hardly possible that he can believe this, but let us be charitable and suppose that he really does believe it. Then suppose he is mistaken. Suppose that a free-coinage act is passed and that silver does not advance to par with gold at the ratio of 16 to 1. Then neither Mr. Bryan nor anybody else proposes to redeem these old dollars. The loss must fall on everybody who has them in his pocket, and it will be found when the time comes that they are all in the pockets of the laboring men, the farmers, the "plain people." The banks will have none of them. The rich people will have none. So it will turn out, as regards this particular part of the public obligations, that the Government has repudiated its own silver currency, and that the first ones cheated have been the poorer and more helpless classes of the community.

The tariff part of Mr. McKinley's letter is, of course, not to our taste. Nothing that he could say on that subject consistent with his own previous record or with the platform of his party would be. We differ from him on this subject in toto. Probably all the Democrats and Independents who are now supporting him differ from him. They support him not for his tariff views, but in spite of them. They believe that the election of Bryan would be an overwhelming calamity. They think that national repudiation, however brought about, whether through ignorance or through design, would leave the American republic a wreck and derelict among nations, and that, as compared with this issue, the tariff is of trivial consequence. They know that there will be time enough to fight that battle hereafter. They feel as Stephen A. Douglas did at the beginning of the civil war when he said: "Give me a country where my children can live in peace, and then we can have room to settle our political differences." They recognize the fact, too, that Bryan must be beaten for the most part by Republican votes, and that whatever is requisite to hold Republicans in line and prevent them from catching the silver craze must be said and done. But if any Democrats cannot abide what Mr. McKinley says on this subject, they have a sure refuge in a third ticket which, as we go to press, is being nominated at Indianapolis.

The clause of Mr. McKinley's letter touching the conditions of business at the close of Mr. Harrison's Administration and the beginning of Mr. Cleveland's second term is likely to cost him some votes and was quite unnecessary. He pictures a happy condition of things in December, 1892, and a gloomy condition in August, 1893. The testimony as to the latter is derived from President Cleveland's message, sent in at the extra session of Congress called to repeal the Sherman act. The quotation made by Mr. McKinley closes thus:

> "With plenteous crops, with abundant promise of remunerative production and manufacture, with unusual invitation to safe investment, and with satisfactory assurances to business enterprises, suddenly financial distrust and fear have sprung up on every side. Numerous moneyed institutions have suspended because abundant assets were not immediately available to meet the demands of frightened depositors. Surviving corporations and individuals are content to keep in hand the money they are usually anxious to loan, and those engaged in legitimate business are surprised to find that the securities they offer for loans, though heretofore satisfactory, are no longer accepted. Values supposed to be fixed are fast becoming conjectural, and loss and failure have invaded every branch of business."

Here the quotation stops. The next words used by President Cleveland are these:

> "I believe these things are principally chargeable to congressional legislation touching the purchase and coinage of silver by the general Government."

Mr. McKinley omitted this sentence because he wanted it to appear that the distress was caused by the change of administration. He might think so—everybody is privileged to have his opinion on that subject; but it would have been more consistent with fairness of discussion if he had quoted one more sentence from the document before him.

The closing passage in Mr. McKinley's letter of acceptance is a proper quietus to the apprehension that the election of the Republican candidate may mean a renewal of the attempt to enact sectional legislation. It is as complete a committal of himself against any favor to such a policy as could be asked. Mr. McKinley was leader of the House when that body passed the Force bill of 1890, but he will never advocate as President another such measure. He has learned wisdom on this subject himself. Even if he had not, irresistible forces have been at work since 1890, and are still operating, which would prevent a return to that policy. The federal election laws have been repealed, the Republican party recognizes the wisdom of such repeal, and the Republicans of the South would be the first to oppose any attempt to restore those statutes. These things will make it hard for the Bryan men in the South to use the sectional issue with effect. At the same time the Republicans will pay the penalty of having clung to the Force-bill policy too long, by failing to carry some States in the South this year which might otherwise have been debatable ground.

THE NATIONAL DEMOCRACY.

A REMARKABLE apathy characterized the more independent and intelligent members of the Democratic party during the spring and early summer. To tell the truth, they had been paralyzed by the astounding performance of President Cleveland in connection with the Venezuelan affair and had not fully recovered from the shock. They were like troops whose general goes crazy in the presence of the enemy, and who cannot improvise leaders. Add to this that they had been sickened by the proceedings of Congress in connection with the passage of the tariff act, and by its subsequent folly in making lavish appropriations that could be met only by reissuing greenbacks which, as soon as reissued, would be exchanged for gold, and it must be admitted that apathy was natural, if not excusable. This, however, gave the silver faction their opportunity. Seething with hatred of Cleve-

land, they saw with delight that his supporters were disheartened and demoralized, and that the time had come when every element hostile to the policy of the Administration could be united in a compact body and committed to free silver and Populism in general. The result was awaited by the conservative Democrats with resignation, almost with despair.

When the result of the Chicago convention was known, however, it was so much worse, both in principles and in candidate, than had been expected, that the conservative element was for a while stunned. It seemed in vain to struggle, undignified to protest. But very soon the wrath of men outraged in their party feeling, in their honor, and in their patriotism, flamed up, and ringing protests were heard on every hand. For a time it seemed that these protests might grow fainter and less numerous, but as the true extent and danger of the calamity that had befallen the country were realized, protests were succeeded by defiant action. Meetings began to be held, and then organization was proposed. It was to be an organization for moral effect alone; but organizations with a strong moral principle in their constitution often attain a sudden development that surprises those who form them. The movement to rescue the party name from anarchists and repudiators was at first "a little cloud like a man's hand"; but the political heaven has suddenly grown black with clouds and wind, and Mr. Bryan, like Ahab, may well listen to the warning—"Prepare my chariot, and get thee down, that the rain stop thee not."

The platform to be adopted by the National Democrats must consist largely of denials and protests. The abominations contained in the Chicago platform are so many and so varied as to require denunciation both complicated and voluminous. That convention must be cursed both in its downsitting and in its uprising, in its coming in and in its going out. But the country expects something more than this from the Indianapolis convention. It is time for the assertion of a definite and positive policy concerning the currency. The Republican party is now committed against free silver coinage, but that is not enough. We should not now be in trouble with the silver craze had it not been for the everlasting greenbacks and the deplorable legal-tender decisions. No one can compute the losses which the country has suffered from its persistence in the miserable fallacy that the Government's promises to pay money are really money, and that when a note has been paid it must be reissued. The losses that the people have suffered during the last three years from this cause we verily believe are greater than our whole national debt. We could maintain a currency consisting exclusively of gold, or gold certificates of deposit, at one-tenth of the charge for interest that the greenbacks cost us in our efforts to keep them afloat.

It is hardly necessary to say that nothing can be more in accordance with the original doctrines of the Democratic party than the assertion that the whole theory of the legal-tender acts is wrong, and that the legal-tender decisions were disastrous and should be corrected by constitutional amendment. The Democratic party was always known as a "hard-money" party, and it is enough to make the statesmen who gave the party its prestige rise from their graves to have a national convention of Democrats declaring in favor of paper money issued by the Federal Government as legal-tender. Both in Illinois and in New Jersey the platforms adopted by the true Democrats call emphatically for the repeal of all laws authorizing the issue or reissue of legal tender or Treasury notes by the Government, and demand that it shall retire from the banking business. Beyond question this is to be the next great national issue. We can never be secure so long as this pestilent heresy prevails that the Government's promises to pay money are money. The greenbacks are at the bottom of all our troubles, and they will rise up to plague us whenever revenue falls off or the business of the country is bad. Sooner or later they must be cancelled, and the sooner the better. And the sooner this is made a political issue the better; for the country will hardly be again so thoroughly informed concerning the elements of monetary science as it will be when the present campaign is closed.

On every account, therefore, it is to be hoped that the Indianapolis convention will make a clear and unmistakable declaration of the only sound and the only Democratic doctrine on this vital matter. But there is another subject of no less importance. From every quarter we hear talk of "insufficient revenue." Insufficient for what? Why, to equal the wicked, the shameless extravagance of Congress. The talk of insufficient revenue means the reality of increased taxes. The taxes paid by the people are sufficient for good economical government now. They have increased, they are increasing, and they ought to be diminished; and the Indianapolis convention ought to say so. In 1885 the Treasury disbursements were $260,000,000, in 1895 they were $366,000,000; and these figures do not indicate the whole burden that falls on the people.

No doubt we are a wealthy people, but our wealth is not increasing at any such rate as the extravagance of our Congressmen. An eminent Republican once laughed at the idea that a tax of three cents a day could be a burden for any one. But there are millions of men, even millions of families, in this rich land, whose income is not a dollar a day. Multiply three cents by five, as the number in a family, and who can say that the poor of this country are not robbed by their representatives? No Congressman in private conversation ever defends the river and harbor bill. He laughs and says it is a "steal," but that it can't be helped. No one defends the printing bill, or the seed-distribution bill, or a hundred other flourishing iniquities. It is high time for the hypocritical talk about "the needs of the Government economically administered" to cease, and for some party to tell the people that the appropriations of Congress have increased outrageously and shall be reduced. We do not want more revenue, but less expenditure, and it is much to be desired that the Indianapolis convention should say so.

THE FARMER'S INTEREST IN SOUND CURRENCY.

PERHAPS there is no class in the community concerning whose attitude towards the free coinage of silver so much doubt is felt as in the case of the farmers. It would be idle to deny that many of them are honest in their belief that something ought to be done to check the fall in the prices of agricultural products. So many writers of repute have argued in favor of bimetallism upon this ground that it is hard to blame intelligent farmers for following them. Many of the farmers have fixed charges to meet, and with corn and oats and horses and butter and potatoes selling at their present prices, they do not see how they can do it. Such men are really desperate; they may not clearly see how the free coinage of silver will benefit them, but they do not believe that their condition can be worse than it is now, and they are ready to try any expedient that promises to improve it. The Bryanites assure them that free coinage will do this by raising prices; Gov. Boies of Iowa, a man whom we should be sorry to believe dishonest, and whom we are sorry to class as a Bryanite, tells the farmers that "cheaper money, money which they call, if you please, 'depreciated currency,' is the best for the people, because it tends to raise the prices of products." On the other hand, the sound-money men are in the difficult position of having to admit that free coinage will raise prices, and at the same time of having to maintain that this will not help the farmers.

As we have heretofore pointed out, the most effective way of putting the matter in the true light is by showing that it is not the amount of money that is received from the sale of goods, but its purchasing power, that is important. Were the great mass of farmers brought to realize that they would have to pay twice as many dollars for everything they buy, they would not be tempted by the possibility of getting twice as many dollars for what they sell. Gov. Boies maintains that it costs 28 cents a bushel to raise corn in Iowa, while corn is selling there for 14 cents. He therefore recommends that Congress raise the selling price of corn to 28 cents, but he does not explain how this can be done without raising the

cost of production to 56 cents; and if he cannot explain this his argument fails.

But there are some other considerations in favor of a stable currency that should appeal with especial force to the farming class. These considerations are not often presented to them, as they involve some acquaintance with economic science; but they are by no means so recondite as to be beyond their comprehension.

As was long ago observed by Adam Smith, agriculture does not admit of the application of large capitals to the same extent as other branches of industry. No doubt larger capitals are now employed in farming than when Adam Smith wrote, but his proposition is on the whole quite as true now as then. We cannot here give the reasons why this is so, but we may refer to a single fact that is quite conclusive on the point. Every one knows that the great industries of transportation and mining and manufacturing are to a very large extent carried on by corporations, individual enterprises being exceptional. But how many people have ever heard of a farming corporation? Some such corporations, we believe, do exist, but they are altogether exceptional. Moreover, the individuals or firms that carry on manufacturing or mining or transportation are generally of great wealth, but there are few farmers of great wealth. The immense majority of them work with their own hands; sometimes not so hard as their hired help, but often a good deal harder.

Another consideration of importance is that the farmer has most of his capital in the shape of land, and employs a very small proportion in the purchase of materials and a comparatively small proportion in the purchase of labor. The industry of mining resembles agriculture in the former of these particulars, but it differs very much in the latter, and the difference is vital. And it is to be added that, in this country, farming is to a great extent carried on in competition with the farming of other countries. We export very large quantities of the products of our farms, less of the products of our mills, while transportation of course is not an exportable commodity. Thus the price of the great staples of agriculture is more or less regulated by the price that can be obtained for such part of these products as is exported, while the price of manufactured goods is much less affected in this way.

Bearing these conditions in mind, it is evident that farmers as a class are quite unable to adapt the supply of their commodities to the demand for them. They cannot see how large a wheat crop will be produced next year in France or Russia or even in this country. They have to go ahead and sow their wheat at a venture. Even if they were able to foretell the weather, they are quite unable as individuals to foretell one another's actions. There were great crops of corn and potatoes last year, which brought unremunerative prices. Some farmers reasoned from this that the others would not plant so much corn and potatoes this year, that the supply would therefore be short and the prices high. But the trouble was that nearly all farmers seem to have reasoned in this way, and the result is that we are likely to have more corn and potatoes than ever, and the prices will be lower than ever. Sometimes farmers talk of combining to limit the acreage planted to cotton and other crops. But the idea is chimerical. No such combination could possibly be formed, or, if formed, maintained. There is but one course for the ordinary farmer to pursue, and that is to raise the largest crops that he can, trusting that the demand will be such as to give him compensation.

While the difficulties encountered by manufacturers in combining to restrict their production are very great, they are by no means insuperable. The Arkwright Club in New England is composed of a few score, perhaps a few hundred, men, who control many millions of spindles. A meeting of this club was called last June to consider the proposition that all these spindles should stop, with the result that many millions have stopped. These gentlemen foresaw that the demand for their goods was likely to be small, and they therefore curtailed their production. They ceased to employ their circulating capital in the purchase of raw materials and in the payment of wages. They of course lose the interest on their fixed capital; but a sound concern is always prepared to face this loss for a period, whereas a farmer, as we have said, can do none of these things. He must use his land. He may try to vary his crops, but if the business of the country is demoralized that will not help him. The action of the manufacturers in curtailing production reduces the demand for agricultural products. Workmen who are getting no wages cannot buy much; people who are getting no dividends try to reduce their living expenses. The result is that the farmer has in panic times almost to give away his crops. Any price is better than no price, and the farmer has to take what he can get. We have been informed by a gentleman who was engaged in manufacturing flour in 1857 that, after that panic, the flour that he produced did not sell for enough to pay the charges on it. It is undeniable that business men in general anticipate a crash in the event of Mr. Bryan's election. Of course, Mr. Bryan will say that this would be the work of the money-lenders, but that circumstance would be no particular consolation to farmers who found the demand for their products extinguished in the destruction of the purchasing power of their customers.

We can hardly believe that the missionaries in the cause of sound money will fail in convincing farmers who are at all open to conviction that the prices (the real prices, not the nominal ones) of their products depend on a steady and natural demand. Normally there should be a steady flow of immigrants and of capital into this country, which, added to the ordinary increase of our own population and capital, would produce that sound and healthy state of business when the selling prices of all products equal the cost of production plus a reasonable profit. But, owing almost entirely to our silver legislation, the course of capital has been turned back, immigration has been arrested, and failures and cessation of production have diminished our own capital. It may be very wrong of bankers and capitalists at home and abroad to pursue the course that they have pursued, but that is not the question. It may be wicked for manufacturers and miners to cease production and discharge their workmen, but that is irrelevant. What the farmer wants is to get a fair price for his products, and this he can do only when the doubt concerning the currency is removed.

TURKEY IN EXTREMIS.

THE Cretan trouble was growing in gravity so rapidly that it alone threatened the Turkish Empire when the recent riots occurred in Constantinople. The Cretans have been in insurrection for a year, owing to the total breakdown of the Cretan constitution accorded in 1867 by the Porte, which included a "General Assembly," composed of both Christians and Mussulmans, but which has never met, or not more than once or twice, owing to the fixed belief of all parties that its resolves would have no effect. In fact, the indefinite retention of Crete by the Porte has been impossible since the Treaty of Berlin. The success of the Servians, Bulgarians, and Rumelians in securing complete or partial independence, and of the Montenegrins and Greeks in getting an extension of their territory at that time, has rendered peace impossible in European Turkey, for it has produced among all classes of the Turkish population the conviction that the end is near.

The Cretans are being powerfully assisted by their brother Greeks of the mainland, with both arms and men, and the Turkish navy is quite unable to prevent these accessions of force. It has been so evident for some time that it would be impossible to suppress the insurrection as long as this went on, that some of the Powers which are engaged in upholding Turkey, foremost among which is Germany, some weeks ago proposed to blockade the island; but Lord Salisbury, to his honor, refused to concur. It was bad enough not to interfere on behalf of the Cretans, but to interfere against them would have been worse. Accordingly there is now no danger of it. Remonstrances addressed to the Greek Government have proved equally useless. It cannot, if it would, prevent the dispatch

of aid to the Cretans. The population is thoroughly aroused, and the islands are so numerous and the coasts so extensive that effective surveillance is out of the question. Moreover, in these Turkish wars regulars are not necessary. Both sides fight through massacre and pillage and from behind walls and ditches, and the Greek volunteers, though nothing but armed peasants and fishermen, gave a good account of both the Mussulman inhabitants and soldiery. The longer the disturbances last, the more difficult their suppression becomes. The whole mainland is in a state of excitement, particularly Macedonia, and the Montenegrins are straining in the leash. They killed Turks manfully and successfully for three hundred years as a condition of their existence, but for the last twenty years their occupation has been gone. The young men find it hard to grow up under the new conditions, and long to seek out their ancient enemy.

The supporters of Turkey were, therefore, at their wits' ends about Crete alone when the troubles in Constantinople began. But they are inevitable. Contempt for the Sultan's authority has at last reached the centre, after having so long prevailed in the provinces. The Christians have been made furious by the Armenian massacres and by the hopes raised by the trouble in Crete and Macedonia, and the Mussulmans are enraged with the Sultan for not killing more Christians. This readiness of the Turkish Government to make massacre the penalty of all sorts of sedition is difficult to comprehend if one does not remember that, by the Mussulman law, Christians live by sufferance under all Mussulman rule. The Sacred Law gives them their lives and property solely on condition of their remaining quiet and not complaining. Death is to the Mussulman the natural and proper punishment for a Christian who makes a disturbance. Therefore, when there is a rising anywhere, it seems as natural to the Mussulman that all the Christian men, women, and children in the neighborhood of the trouble should be killed as it would seem to us that the ringleaders should be arrested. Never since the Turks took Constantinople has a Christian rising been suppressed except by massacre, and, as a rule, no massacre has stopped until Christian Powers intervened. The Turks, therefore, look on the slaughter of Christian families in disturbed districts much as we looked on the arrest and trial of the Chicago rioters—that is, as an act of vigor on the part of the authorities.

The riots in Constantinople are at last likely to bring matters to a head. The Powers cannot allow that city to be given over to anarchy, however unconcernedly they may look on Armenia or Crete. They must maintain order there, owing to the size and wealth of the European population and the importance of the city to the civilized world. But if they interfere to maintain order, they virtually dethrone the Sultan. The protection of a sovereign by foreign force in his own capital means that his rule is, to all intents and purposes, at an end. To this complexion it has come at last, and to this complexion it was certain to come within a year when the massacres were going on in Armenia. They were largely intended to act *in terrorem*, nearer home. For these shocking scenes of pillage and bloodshed which have disgraced our civilization during the past year, the European Powers are as much responsible as the Porte. It committed them, but they could have stopped them. For this disgrace we are largely indebted to the good understanding between Germany and Russia, and above all to Germany. Lord Salisbury probably would have interfered if he could. He probably might have interfered had he been the strong man people supposed he was, but small obstacles cowed him and drove him into subterfuge.

Nothing in modern politics is stranger than the changed attitude of Christian Europe towards the Turks. When they were really a strong power and able to set Europe an example in both civil and military virtue and administration, it was considered a pious duty in Western Europe to fight them. Now that they have lagged behind the civilized world, and descended to the lowest depths of barbarism and incompetence, it has become the fashion among a certain class of politicians to preach the possibility of their regeneration and the danger to peace and good order of interfering with any brutalities that may seem good to them.

THE KELMSCOTT CHAUCER.

LONDON, August 12, 1896.

MR. WILLIAM MORRIS has at last published his long-promised edition of Chaucer. It is, as every one knew it would be, quite the most ambitious work issued from the Kelmscott Press, and the chances are that Mr. Morris, in the future, will make no attempt to rival it. Doubtless the book is destined to remain his most important, even if not his finest, achievement as a printer; a fact which gives it a special interest. Judged by his standard, absolutely nothing has been left undone to secure perfection in every detail. It is printed on paper made of linen for the express purpose, and in type—the "Chaucer type"—designed for it. The illustrations, eighty-six in number, are after original drawings by Sir Edward Burne-Jones, and are engraved by Mr. W. H. Hooper, unquestionably the most accomplished wood-engraver in England. Mr. Morris has contributed new borders and initial letters. Almost nine months were devoted to the printing of the four hundred and twenty-five paper copies and the thirteen vellum. Nor has attention been confined solely to the get-up of the book. Care has been taken to make it an authentic Chaucer, doubtful poems, such as "The Flower and the Leaf" and "The Cuckoo and the Nightingale," having been omitted—reserved, it is announced, for a separate volume to appear later on.

Now in these days of cheap hurry a book upon which so much time and labor has been lavished commands respect, no matter what may be the actual merit of the results. On the other hand, perhaps the very fact that it has been the object of so much devotion leads one to consider it more critically, or rather from a far higher point of view than the ordinary volume produced according to the ordinary methods of the trade. The modern printer who can afford to linger over his work, lovingly and intelligently, has the opportunity to combine the advantages of the old makers of beautiful books with the innumerable improvements which, since their time, have been introduced into the arts of printing and reproduction. But in saying this we touch at once upon what we think is the chief defect of almost all Mr. Morris's publications. For it seems to us that he is not as ready to appreciate the old hindrances as the old advantages, that he is unwilling to adapt himself to the new conditions. The Kelmscott Chaucer is a curiosity, a *tour de force*. One turns over its pages as one might those of an early black-letter book. It is curious, it is well done of its kind, it is pleasant to look at; and, moreover, the modern work has the additional virtue—if it be a virtue—of the unexpected, since it is all but incredible that in our nineteenth century should have been found the leisure to produce it. We cannot imagine, however, that it ever would occur to any one to sit down to read and enjoy this Chaucer; and, after all, the chief end of a book is that it should be read, not merely put away on the bibliophile's well-ventilated, well-dusted shelf of treasures.

In the first place, the new volume has a serious drawback from which the other Kelmscott books, even the 'Troye' and the 'Golden Legend' by comparison, have escaped: it is bulky and heavy beyond endurance; by its proportions better adapted to be chained to the reading-desk, in the old fashion, than held in the hand in the new. This is the more provoking because the Constables have shown so successfully that a book may be well printed on good paper, and yet not offend by oppressive weight. In the second place, the Chaucer is printed in Gothic type, which it is a task rather than a pleasure to try to read. Mr. Morris's Roman type is not only more beautiful, but more legible, and we wish he had used it here, as he has for the Shakspere Sonnets and so many other volumes, though it might have seemed less in character.

But since we are forced to accept the fact that the Chaucer is meant only to be looked at, the great point to consider is the degree of Mr. Morris's success in making it a beautiful book. For the printing we have but praise. He has never done anything so good before, never got so clear and strong a black, never managed to obtain such richness and quality in his illustrations. In this respect his triumph is complete, and, as an example of fine printing, the Chaucer will be for ever memorable. But, for all this, he has failed to produce a very satisfactory page. Where there is no ornament, the proportions are not so well balanced as they might be, because of the margin left at the bottom for the sake of the border used on the decorated page; while the little leaf or scroll used as a period, and scattered with unavoidable irregularity through the text, breaks the harmony as sadly as if ink had been sprinkled or insects were crawling across it. Where there is ornament, the page is overloaded. Mr. Morris has been much commended because he has designed fourteen new borders. But we fancy the old

printer, working on the same generous lines, would not have limited himself to a number which necessitates constant repetition. The illustrations are printed within these borders, and each one is enclosed in a still smaller border, or frame, of its own; the page, to our eyes, suffering from such excess of decoration.

As for the illustrations themselves, they are eminently characteristic of Sir Edward Burne-Jones. The weary maiden who, in her time, has figured as the Virgin and Aurora and the Beggar Maid, the wan youth whom we have known as Perseus and King Cophetua and Pygmalion, reappear as the hero and heroine of more than one "Canterbury Tale," of the "Romaunt of the Rose," of the "House of Fame"; and we can but wonder what Chaucer would have thought of so sad a company. Sir Edward Burne-Jones in an illustration, as on his canvas, can fill space to fine decorative purpose, and arrange his mystic, morbid, and often, it must be confessed, ill drawn figures with dignity and rhythmical effect. But we think Chaucer might have found a more sympathetic illustrator. Imagine, if you can, the wife of Bath according to Burne Jones—fortunately he has made no endeavor to depict her—and you will realize how little fitted he is by temperament for the work. We saw some of his original drawings last spring in an exhibition of his studies and sketches held in a London gallery. They were mostly slight pencil sketches, suggestions to be carried out rather than designs to be actually copied, and they have gained strength and vitality in the engraving. We must confess, however, that Mr. Morris and Sir Edward Burne-Jones have had such a host of cheap imitators, cheapness culminating in the work of the Birmingham School, that the archaic style which they have deliberately adopted in illustration has lost whatever charm it may once have had for us. We are glad that Mr. Hooper has received due credit, not always accorded in previous volumes, for his engraving; indeed, we think that all who had their share in the making of the book might have been as fully acknowledged.

When all is said, it must be admitted that Mr. Morris has surpassed the old work which he has set up as his model; whether he has also surpassed the best contemporary work, however, is quite a different question. Already he is announcing 'Sigurd the Volsung,' to be illustrated and decorated elaborately. It would be an interesting experiment if, for once, he would forget the past, and, profiting by modern improvements, produce a book more in accord with present conditions. We fear, though we hope we may be mistaken, that until he does the true masterpiece will not be forthcoming from the Kelmscott Press.

THE ABBE PRÉVOST.—I.

PARIS, August 13, 1896.

WHY do we still read some of the minor poems of Ronsard, and are we unable to read his ponderous epic poem, the "Franciade"? Why are the tragedies of Racine still read and the tragedies of Voltaire, so successful at the time when they appeared, now utterly unreadable? Why can we no longer read the 'Nouvelle Héloïse' of Jean Jacques Rousseau, and can we still read the 'Manon Lescaut' of the Abbé Prévost? The editions of Rousseau's 'Nouvelle Héloïse' can be counted on your fingers; the editions of 'Manon Lescaut' are numberless. I was making these reflections n going over a book on the Abbé Prévost, recently written; with the help of new documents, by M. Henry Harrisse, a writer who has gained some notoriety by his studies on the early history of America and the first discoveries made on the American continent.

M. Harrisse is a bibliophilist, not a critic. He began to be interested in the Abbé Prévost when making a bibliographical study of his works, and trying to discover what was really the original edition of the famous 'Manon Lescaut.' To continue the series of questions I have just put, it might be asked why, of the numerous works of the Abbé Prévost, 'Manon Lescaut,' a small volume, is the only one which is now known. I have never in my lifetime met with anybody who had read the 'Mémoires et Aventures d'un Homme de Qualité qui s'est retiré du monde,' a long series, of which 'Manon Lescaut' forms only the last part and can fortunately be completely detached from the rest, having no relation to it. The works which survive their authors and are not dependent upon the fashions and passions of a particular time or state of society are those only which have their foundations in the immortal instincts of mankind. As long as civilization lasts, the first part of Goethe's 'Faust' will be read with as much emotion as it was read when it appeared. The natural man will always feel compassion for the unfortunate *Gretchen;* the natural man finds in Racine's tragedies what is not found in Voltaire's—a real, a deep emotion, a genuine passion, independent of time and space; and it is because 'Manon Lescaut' shows us the natural man and the natural woman that we cannot help being carried away by the tragedy of their mutual and unconquerable love.

'Manon Lescaut,' besides having the merit of dealing with what may be called the elementary instincts, has also the merit of a sincerity, a reality, which is derived from the fact that the story of the hero is to a certain extent the story of the author himself. This would explain the great charm of its style. "Cela coule de source" is a French saying which well describes the agility, the simplicity, the grace of a style equal to that of Voltaire in some respects and superior to it in others, as there runs under the surface a current of emotion and of ardor which is never found in Voltaire. The life of Prévost has never been very truly told. "Nobody," says M. Harrisse, "has been more calumniated than the immortal author of 'Manon Lescaut.'" M. Harrisse has taken infinite trouble in seeking all the documents which could help him make a real biography of Prévost; he tries to present him to us as he really was, and not as he has been oftentimes represented by the *nouvellistes*, the newsmongers of Holland and of France—a class very similar to our modern newspaper reporters, and not more exact or conscientious.

Prévost belonged to a family established near Hesdin, in the province of Artois; his family was not noble but bourgeois. He was born the 1st of April, 1697, lost his mother in 1711, and pursued his studies at the College of Jesuits at Hesdin. When he was sixteen years old he entered the novitiate of the Father Jesuits in Paris, and remained in it for two years; in 1715 he was sent by the Jesuits to the Collège Henri IV. at La Flèche to follow a course in philosophy which lasted three years for all the students; but he left this college after one year and abandoned the Company. He was nineteen years old. He entered the army as a private soldier, but soon became disgusted with the service and asked permission to reënter the Company of the Jesuits. He was at first refused, undertook to go to Rome to see the General of the Jesuits, and fell ill on the road. "His money being spent, he goes to the hospital and receives some help from an officer who pretends to have given it for his enlistment. Indignant at this, he deserts and flies to Holland. Peace having been made, and the King being dead, and the Duke of Orleans having become regent, he writes begging to be included in the general amnesty and be reconciled with the Jesuits. He obtains all he asks for, comes back to Paris, reënters the society, and begins his novitiate." There remains over this part of the life of Prévost a sort of cloud, but M. Harrisse judges that the account which we have just given, and which is extracted from the *Journal de la Cour et de Paris*, comes nearer the truth than some others given by various writers.

What is certain is that Prévost entered upon his novitiate with the Benedictines in 1720, and made profession November 9, 1721, in the congregation of Benedictines of Saint-Maur, at the Abbey of Saint-Pierre at Jumièges. We have the act of profession, written in Latin in his own hand. Prévost, at the end of his novitiate, was sent to Rouen, to the Abbey of Saint-Ouen, then to the Abbey of Notre Dame du Bec; he was sent as professor to the College of Saint-Germer, and ordained priest in 1726 by the Bishop of Amiens. It was there, probably, that he began to write his first novel, the 'Mémoires et Aventures.' His taste for letters was well known, and he became a collaborator of the 'Gallia Christiana,' a great publication of the Benedictines. After several other peregrinations, we find him working at it in the famous Abbey of Saint Germain-des-Prés, in Paris. He withdrew after a few months, and in his 'Mémoires et Aventures' we find satirical portraits of several Fathers whom he had known in this establishment.

It was on the 16th of April, 1728, that Delaulne, printer and publisher in Paris, obtained the privilege of printing the 'Mémoires et Aventures.' We arrive now at the most critical period in the life of Prévost. He clearly was not fit for a monastic life; he said of himself, afterwards, in a periodical called *Le Pour et le Contre:* "I recognized that this ardent heart was still burning under the embers. The loss of my liberty affected me even to tears. It was too late; for five or six years I looked for consolation in the charms of study. My books were my faithful friends, but they were dead like myself. At last I took occasion of a little misunderstanding, and I retired."

After his flight from the monastery of Saint-Germain-des-Prés, he remained in Paris. The Benedictine Fathers tried to bring him back, but, failing in their attempt, they obtained an order for his arrest. Prévost was advised of it, and fled to England, where he became the governor of a young gentleman. He afterwards went to Holland, and, in the spring of 1731, the *Literary Journal* of La Haye announced the publication of a novel of his: 'The English Gentleman, or the History of Master Cleveland, Son of Cromwell.' I pass over a translation of the 'Historia sui temporis' of De Thou, which Prévost began and never finished, for the sake of more details on the 'Mémoires et Aventures,' which have 'Manon Lescaut' at their end. M. Harrisse, by comparing dates and editions, comes to the conclusion that Prévost already had the manuscript of 'L'Histoire du Chevalier des Grieux et de Manon Lescaut' in

his valise when he left London, and that, in order to procure some means for himself, he offered it to the Dutch publishers on his arrival in Holland. They preferred not to bring it out in a separate form, but as a sequel to the 'Mémoires et Aventures,' which had already conquered the favor of the public, though 'Manon Lescaut' forms a complete whole, and has no necessary connection with the Memoirs. I will not enter here into a minute bibliographical study of this publication; the French edition which was for a long time considered the original, has now been proved to have been printed after the original Dutch edition. A more interesting question is this: Is Manon Lescaut's story a work of pure imagination, or did Prévost find its chief elements in his personal experience?

In his introduction, M. Harrisse seems to admit that Prévost, as a young man, being once in the company of a friend (the Tiberge of the novel), saw accidentally the arrival of the Arras diligence. He admits it, to be sure, only as a *probable* hypothesis. "Out of curiosity, they followed the coach to the inn where it stopped. . . . Some women came out, who went away at once; one only remained in the court, a very young one." Here we have the famous scene of the beginning, the scene in which Des Grieux feels, in the presence of Manon, what we call the *coup de foudre*, when he is struck by love as by the arrow of Cupid, and feels in a moment in love even to madness. Was Des Grieux the real Prévost? Was Manon a woman with whom his fortune was bound up at that period of his youth which still remains shady? Readers of 'Manon Lescaut' must all have been struck by the intense realism of its passion, and it may not be unreasonable to admit that there was a real Manon in the life of Prévost, and that, after having lost her, he returned to a religious life in the hope of finding consolation in it. Not long after having taken his vows, he wrote in a letter to a friend: "I know the weakness of my heart. . . . I see only too well every day what I should be capable of if I lost sight for a moment of the great rule, or even if I looked with the slightest complacency on images which recur only too often to my mind, and which would have still too much power to seduce me, though they are half effaced." This avowal of weakness, this reverberation of a smouldering passion, is very instructive. Prévost probably always kept in his mind those images of the unknown Manon who had conquered his young heart.

This Manon was certainly not the person whom he knew at The Hague in 1733, and who followed him to England. Prévost tells us, in an article written in London and published in 1734 in *Le Pour et le Contre*, that, "during my stay at The Hague, chance caused me to make the acquaintance of a damsel of merit and of quality, whose fortune had been deranged by various accidents which are not to the point. A man of honor, who lived in Amsterdam, paid her regularly a small pension, from no other motive than generosity. She lived honestly with his help, when her benefactor was constrained by the state of his own affairs to retrench something of his liberality." Prévost, hearing of this change, became a benefactor himself, and when he left for England she followed him. He left some debts unpaid at The Hague. He has been accused by some *nouvellistes* of having committed forgeries in England; M. Harrisse proves conclusively that this accusation must be reduced to the fact that he thought himself authorized to draw for a certain sum on his publisher for a novel which had not yet been finished. The bill was negotiated and protested; the accusation of forgery must certainly be dismissed. Prévost had never occasion to be subjected to the terrible rigor of the English law.

In 1733, Prévost became a contributor to *Le Pour et le Contre*, a periodical which professed to furnish "free explanations on all that can interest the curiosity of the public, in the matters of science, art, books, authors, etc., without taking any side and without offending anybody." The publisher announced that it was written by "the author of the 'Memoirs of a Man of Quality.'" The royal privilege, necessary at the time, was given to the paper, and this favor drew forth the following protest written by Marais to President Bouhier on July 11, 1733: "I wonder how a monk who has cast off his frock and eloped with women can have the credit to obtain the privilege of printing such things in Paris when this is refused to learned and useful works."

Correspondence.

CLASS AGAINST CLASS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While the question to be decided by the people of this country at the impending election is, as you repeatedly urge, a financial one, it should not be forgotten that in the minds of a deplorably large body of voters the financial question resolves itself into or stands for the class question. It is well to face this unpleasant fact squarely; for, aside from its painful significance for every thoughtful lover of our institutions, it is plainly one to be seriously reckoned with by the active supporters of sound money in the present campaign.

What is it, briefly, that invests the free-coinage proposal with its peculiarly popular and emotional character, and rallies to its support and fills with a quasi-religious or crusading enthusiasm thousands to whom the expression "16 to 1" is the merest unmeaning abracadabra, and who could no more explain or even satisfactorily state the measure they shout for, and mean to vote for, and would probably fight for, than they could calculate an eclipse? Clearly the notion, industriously spread and unscrupulously played upon by those who hope to profit by it (not excluding Mr. Bryan), that voting for free silver means voting against the rich. "Gold is the rich man's money, silver the poor man's money"; that is the case in a nutshell, as it shapes itself in the minds of probably two-thirds of those who now mean to vote for Mr. Bryan next autumn. Just why the less valuable dollar should be the more desirable dollar for the class who get fewest of them, must seem somewhat paradoxical to the most convinced "Silverite"; but the rank and file of the party are fixed in the faith that voting for the white metal means fighting the battle of labor against capital. Question the average silverman, and you will find this amazing *Credo* responsible for half his resolution and all his enthusiasm.

In the survival of this delusion lies the chance of Bryan's success; and it should be the prime concern of those who have assumed the duty of upholding the cause of honest money to dispel it, and to show that those who are spreading and exploiting it are (while posing as the special champions of 'Americanism') in reality engaged in the devil's work of exciting in this country Old World class hatreds and class cupidities. The important thing is to make clear betimes to the class heretofore swayed by the silver agitators the demonstrable fact that the blows they are cheerfully preparing to aim at the "monopolists" are certain to fall first and with a frightful 16 to-1 ratio of severity on their own backs; and that the proposal for free coinage actually emanates from the camp of the enemy, and is on the face of it the most shameless scheme yet broached for legislating money out of lean into plethoric pockets. It is the inflammatory parts of Mr. Bryan's speeches that tell; and these should be squarely met. E. G. J.

Milwaukee, Wis., August 26, 1896.

TRANSMUTATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is one phase of the discussions which are taking place at this time of the year that interests and puzzles me; and that is the survival of a half-conscious belief that Government possesses some miraculous powers which enables it to set at defiance the ordinary rules of business and commerce. Apparently, Government can take fifty-three cents and by some sleight-of-hand performance can make a hundred-cent dollar out of it. Government can take a lump of clay and, by breathing on it, make a man out of it. Government can "pass a law," and the supply of gold and silver will regulate itself in conformity to that law. Economically speaking, Government can make the sun stand still and the sea open for us to pass through. Plain Tom, Dick, or Harry, whose opinion on the value of real estate, steel rails, or elevated-railroad stock would be received with due caution by his neighbors, becomes, when elected to manage vastly larger affairs, vested with supernatural wisdom—becomes transmuted into an altogether superior being. The incarnation apparently takes place when he assumes his seat in the "halls of Congress." Yet if Tom, Dick, or Harry were elected a committee by indignant property-holders to protest against an unjust assessment before the City Council, no such halo of sanctity, infallibility, and almighty power would surround his acts.

Whence arises this belief in the miraculous powers of Government? Is it a survival of Biblical traditions of the unlimited powers of the Most High? Is it a remnant of the old doctrine of the Divine Right of kings? By what process does a man elected by his peers become, by virtue of that election, possessed of the keys of an economic heaven and an economic hell? And yet, in popular discussions of money questions, there is almost invariably a tinge of the old doctrine of the superhuman, supernatural, almighty powers of Government. In a democracy that in many respects out-Jeffersons Jefferson, you will hear a conception of sovereignty that out-Bourbons the Bourbons. The jumble strikes me as odd.

E. L. C. M.

Chicago, August 25, 1896.

CO-EDUCATION AT JOHNS HOPKINS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have given a very happy title to the letter in the *Nation* of August 27 on the exclusion of women from the other departments of the Johns Hopkins University, while they are given absolutely identical facilities with men for study in its School of Medicine,

in calling it "The Cart before the Horse." Of course the explanation for this strange freak in harnessing is that Miss Garrett has collected and given (chiefly given) five hundred thousand dollars in order to persuade the trustees of the Medical School to allow women to become trained healers of the sick, but she has not yet offered that incentive to virtue as regards the other departments of learning.

I should like to know whether there has been any discussion of this attitude of the trustees from the point of view of a high standard of morality. Trustees of a great university are a marked body of men, and they owe the community an example of conduct that shall not be open to criticism. But it seems to me that these trustees have here placed themselves in an awkward dilemma. Either there is something wrong about men and women studying together, and in this case it ought not to be permitted in the medical school in return for $500,000, or there is not, and in this case it ought to be permitted in the other departments without any inducement at all. And, as your correspondent implies, there are hundreds of people who would doubt the desirability of men and women studying medicine together, who would not doubt the desirability of their studying everything else together.

Can any one give an explanation of the state of mind of the trustees that shall make it seem less unreasonable, both to the British critic and to the American observer of social phenomena? D. N.

A NEWS CHRONICLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to echo the sentiment of your correspondent who, in the issue of the *Nation* for August 18, under the title, "Wanted—A News Chronicle," pictures a most attractive weekly journal of contemporary history, "intended to have a permanent historical and literary value," and wishes the *Nation* would undertake the enterprise.

Such a publication would be of inestimable value to teachers, who are expected to be strong in current history though their textbooks leave history at a standstill about 1886, with perhaps a statement concerning elections in this country since that date and a reference to the Columbian Exposition, and with possibly a suggestion that things are not yet finished in Europe. One must read more widely and wisely than the ordinary teacher can do, to speak clearly to classes on recent history. Such a journal as Mr. Terry calls for, helped out by the *Nation's* editorials on the important facts in daily history, would make the matter easy. Cannot such a "News Chronicle" be supplied?—Very truly,

Alice E. Hanscom.

Willoughby, Ohio, August 25, 1896.

[We have received several communications of the same tenor with the above. The enterprise, we believe, is far more costly and difficult than its advocates realize.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

An abridgment of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' in collaboration with Jesse Macy, Professor of Political Science in Iowa College, will shortly be issued by Macmillan Co., who announce also a volume of historical studies, 'The Year after the Armada,' by Martin A. S. Hume, editor of the calendar of Spanish state papers of Elizabeth in the Public Record Office; and 'The Hope of Immortality,' by the Rev. J. E. C. Welldon.

Further announcements by the Century Co. are 'American Highways,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler, and 'The Shadow Christ,' by the Rev. Gerald Stanley Lee.

Thomas Whittaker has in press 'The Historic Churches of Paris,' by Walter F. Lonergan, freely illustrated by B. S. Le Fanu; 'Tudor Queens and Princesses,' by Sarah Tytler; a popular Life of Edison; 'Popular Telescopic Astronomy,' by A. Fowler; and a 'Madonna Calendar' for 1897.

'An Essay on the Present Distribution of Wealth in the United States,' by Charles B. Spahr, will form volume xii. of Crowell's "Library of Economics and Politics."

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, will publish 'The Western Avernus; or, Toil and Travel in Further North America,' by Morley Roberts, with illustrations by A. D. McCormack; Salomon's 'Memoirs of the Internuncio during the Revolution, 1790-1801'; and an edition of Mérimée's fifty-year-old 'Carmen,' translated and illustrated by Edmund H. Garrett.

Roberts Bros. have in hand 'An Eclipse Party in Africa (1889-90),' by Eben J. Loomis, and 'Leaves from Juliana H. Ewing's "Canada Home,"' by Elizabeth S. Tucker.

'Bacon vs. Shakspere,' by Edwin Reed, a "Baconian," will bear the imprint of Joseph Knight Co., Boston.

D. C. Heath & Co. will soon bring out 'French Selections for Sight Translation,' by Mary Stone Bruce, of the Newton High School, and Mérimée's 'Colomba,' equipped with exercises in French composition by Miss A. C. Kimball of the Girls' High School, Boston.

Ginn & Co. announce 'First Principles of Natural Philosophy,' by Prof. A. E. Dolbear of Tufts College.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will publish a new novel, 'The Joy of Life,' by Miss Emma Wolf of San Francisco.

Under the auspices of the Saxon Ministry of Worship and Public Instruction, Prof. Conrad Cichorius has undertaken an exhaustive account of the bas-reliefs on Trajan's Column in Rome ('Die Reliefs der Traianssäule,' Berlin: George Reimer; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Of the seven volumes two will consist of plates, reproduced in heliogravure from the plaster casts in the Lateran; and of these one has just been published, giving the reliefs of the first Dacian War in fifty-seven plates, accompanied by a volume of letter-press commentary, containing sixty-five illustrations and a map of the seat of war by Heinrich Kiepert. Together, these volumes sell at fifty-four marks (say $14); the letter-press alone at six marks. The rest of the series will appear partly next year, and partly at a still later date. The editor has visited the scene of Trajan's military operations, and discusses the subject from a military point of view; but above all he has made valuable ethnological observations on the present inhabitants, from Rumania to Servia, of whom a great number of typical photographs will be brought to bear in the comparison with the barbarian portraiture of the Column. The specimen plate before us is a beautiful reproduction.

The recurrence of the festivals at Bayreuth always brings with it additions to the Wagner literature. Countless pamphlets on the Nibelung Trilogy were printed twenty years ago, when it was first performed. Most of them were violently hostile, and of these none have survived as living issues. Of such as grasped the significance of these dramas, the most successful has been Hans von Wolzogen's 'Thematic Guide,' of which no fewer than 150,000 copies have been printed in German, English, and French. Of the new pamphlets issued apropos of the revival of the "Nibelung's Ring" at Bayreuth this summer, the most promising seemed to be J. E. Kloss's 'Zwanzig Jahre Bayreuth' (Berlin: Schuster & Loeffler). Under that head some extremely interesting remarks might have been made regarding the difference between Wagner's régime in 1876 and 1882 and Frau Wagner's practices at all the succeeding festivals. But to Herr Kloss everything done at Bayreuth at any time is superlatively good; he is even bold enough to claim that it remained for Frau Wagner to reveal the true inwardness of "Tannhäuser," when, as a matter of fact, the Bayreuth production of that opera was a complete failure except as regards the superb scenery. Herr Kloss has nothing to say regarding the growing disposition of Frau Wagner and her son Siegfried to neglect the vocal side of the music dramas for the sake of the scenery. The list of singers engaged by them this year is scandalously bad compared with Wagner's list in 1876, which remains to this day a monument to Wagner's selective ingenuity. Yet an equally good, if not better, list might have been made up for this year had Frau Wagner so chosen. Towards the end of his brochure Herr Kloss attacks Weingartner, who, in his recent essay 'On Conducting,' told some truths about the present management of the Bayreuth festivals.

About a year ago Dr. Karl Rosner of Munich delivered an address before the Gesellschaft für Psychologische Forschung on 'Shakspere's Hamlet im Lichte der Neuropathologie' (Berlin: Kornfeld), in which diagnosis takes the place of criticism in representing *Hamlet* as the victim of nervous disease. Rosner discovers a number of "pathological moments" also in the life and conduct of Shakspere himself, and asserts that the delineation of *Hamlet* is symptomatic of the poet's own psychical condition. In Dr. Fr. Rubenstein's brochure, 'Hamlet als Neurastheniker' (Leipzig: Haacke), this theory is examined and refuted in its application both to the Prince of Denmark and to the Bard of Avon. The author shows that *Hamlet's* actions and utterances throughout the whole play prove conclusively that he is neither insane nor diseased, but only "mad in craft." If Shakspere was "neurasthenic," where shall we find mental soundness in the annals of literature?

In 'Thier- und Menschen-Seele' (Frankfort) Dr. W. Wurm records some original observations on the manifestations of mind in men and animals, and comes to the conclusion that the soul or spirit is neither an absolute principle nor a material substance, but a force emanating from the nervous system stimulated and modified by the action of the physical organism under the manifold influences of the outer world. It is doubtful whether this "neue Realdefinition," as the author calls it, will convey any very clear conception to the mind of the reader.

An important addition to the already voluminous Bismarckiana is 'Bismarck's Briefe an den General Leopold von Gerlach,' edited by Horst Kohl (Berlin: Häring). The letters begin June 22, 1851, and end May 4, 1860. Especially interesting is that of October 7, 1855,

from Frankfort, in which Bismarck complains of the cold and uncivil treatment of himself and wife by King Frederick William IV., the Queen, the Princess of Prussia, and the whole rabble of courtiers, who took their cue from the monarch. The only exception was the Prince of Prussia (afterwards William I.), who had the manliness not to join in this conspiracy of rudeness, and showed himself especially courteous and cordial.

In 1893 the railroad director, Gustav Ebermayer, the civil engineer, Georg Ehrne von Melchthal, and the mechanical engineer, Valentin Zehender, were commissioned by the Bavarian Government to visit the Columbian World's Fair at Chicago and to report the results of their observations. This report is now printed, under the title 'Bericht über eine im Auftrage der k. bay. Staatsregierung ausgeführte Reise nach Nordamerika und zur Columbischen Weltausstellung in Chicago' (Munich: Wolf & Sohn). A brief description of the journey by sea and land is followed by a condensed account of the achievements of civil and mechanical engineering in the United States, the construction, equipment, and administration of railroads, steamboats, and workshops of all kinds, with statistical tables. A "Beilage," or supplementary volume, contains 128 pages of excellent illustrations, drawings of machinery, interior views of cars, etc., serving to elucidate the text.

'La Critique Littéraire: Étude Philosophique,' by A. Ricardon (Paris: Hachette), is a very complete manual of criticism, in which the various forms of criticism are fully discussed and the reader acquires a method which he can apply for himself to any work. The book is divided into two parts, the first comprising a chapter on the utility of criticism, one on the different varieties of literary analysis, and three on historical criticism. The second part, which is by far the longer, discusses impressionism, dogmatism, impersonality, humanism, suggestion, truth and morality in criticism, while a final chapter sums up the views of the author. The book is different from any other critical work issued of recent years, including Brunetière's volume on the evolution of criticism. It is practically a definition of criticism and a guide to the proper application of it. For this reason it is a valuable work, and the clear style of the writer adds considerably to its worth. M. Brunetière has written an attractive preface to it.

Jules Martin's interesting little work 'Nos Académiciens' (Paris: F. Bellanger & Cie.) should have had much earlier notice. It contains portraits and biographical notices of the present members of the French Academy, lists of the occupants of the forty *fauteuils* since 1635, of the various prizes in the gift of the Academy, and the statutes and other historical documents connected with the creation of this famous body.

Eugène Gilbert's 'Le Roman en France pendant le 19e Siècle' (Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.) is not the work needed by students of French fiction during the present century, but it is in parts well done and on the whole will be useful in its restricted way. If the typical works and the great writers had had given them the space devoted to mere lists of names and enumerations of books, the scheme would have been much improved.

The international spirit of higher education, so frequently illustrated in the past, is just now emphasized by the appointment of an American branch of the Franco-American committee whose headquarters are in Paris, and whose aim is to bring to the notice of American students the advantages (recently extended) offered by French universities to graduates of foreign colleges. Students are to be reminded that at French universities there are practically no fees, that living expenses are small, and that the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique, between New York and Havre, offers a reduction of 30 per cent. to duly certified American students going to France for purposes of study. Dr. H. J. Furber, jr., is the representative of this Franco-American committee, and the American members are: Presidents Low of Columbia, Dwight of Yale, Eliot of Harvard, Gilman of Johns Hopkins, G. Stanley Hall of Clark University, Schurman of Cornell, and Whitman of Columbia University, Washington; Profs. Gould, Chicago, and Simon Newcomb, Washington; and Messrs. G. Brown Goode, W. T. Harris, S. P. Langley, Carroll D. Wright, and Andrew D. White. We note the absence on this committee of any of the women educators of the country.

The term for applications at the Women's Higher Courses in St. Petersburg (corresponding to Radcliffe and Barnard Colleges) closed on August 12. Five hundred applications were received for the one hundred and fifty vacancies in the entering class. The preference will be given to those graduates of the gymnasia and Government institutes who have medals. The course of instruction has been considerably enlarged for the coming year. A new chair of the Theory of the History of Pedagogy has been established. Lectures on zoölogy and pedagogy are to be given again. Zoölogy and physiology were discontinued several years ago as imbued with a tendency to create strong-mindedness of the wrong type—the revolutionary. There is also to be a new course treating of the Investigation of the Soil. It is interesting to note, in connection with these new arrangements, that several young women who left the Higher Courses and entered the University of Geneva have petitioned to be readmitted to the Courses. They state that the instruction in Geneva is less serious than in St. Petersburg, and leaves much to be desired.

Of the 26,092 recruits for the Bavarian army in 1895 only eight were unable to read and write. Three out of 4,526 recruits from the Palatinate, two out of 4,002 from Upper Bavaria, and one each out of 3,520 from Lower Bavaria, 2,728 from the Upper Palatinate, and 3,068 from Middle Franconia were found deficient in this respect. Of 3,029 recruits from Upper Franconia, 2,521 from Lower Franconia, and 2,696 from Schwaben, not a single one was unable to read and write. In France the effects of the introduction of obligatory school-attendance are perceptible, although the improvement in elementary education is rather slow. In 1890 the percentage of French recruits unable to read and write was 8.14; in 1893 it was 6.43, in 1894, 5.74, and in 1895, 5.53. In Germany the percentage is 0.40, including the Polish provinces; in Bavaria it is only 0.04.

—Mr. Andrew H. Allen has just sent out the calendar of the letters to Thomas Jefferson included in the Jefferson MSS. in the Department of State. Priding himself as much on his scientific as on his political knowledge, Jefferson conducted a correspondence with many descriptions of persons, ranging from the "crank" to the philosopher. Naturally the political letters stand first in interest for their historical value. The splendid series of letters and Cabinet memoranda from Gallatin, Madison, Smith, and Dearborn are supplemented by as valuable series of letters from Monroe, Paine, Gerry, Rush, Duane, and Callender. This publication brings into prominence the fact of many gaps in the political features of the collection, and gives color to the belief that Jefferson examined his papers and made away with many of them before his death. Much remains of a nature to have led to its destruction had such an examination been thorough; yet we should look for much more than is found from Giles, Nicholas, Pendleton, John Taylor, Randolph, and other members of the Jefferson following in Virginia, and from the Republican leaders in other States. There are few letters dating before 1780, and those few are not among the most interesting. The proof-reading of this Calendar shows intelligent care, and Mr. Allen could not have bestowed a greater boon on workers in American history. Congress should complete this notable collection by purchasing the four or five thousand letters written to Jefferson now in the hands of his descendants.

—Few men with any experience in public life have been so transparent in their records as Jefferson. Upon his accession to the Presidency, he became the target for every schemer. The politicians sought his support in their local contests, and, making himself the centre of activity in foreign policy as well as in domestic politics, he invited a correspondence as remarkable for its variety as for its size. Much of it was a mere interchange of formal sentences, but more is curious as showing the types of men who appealed to Jefferson's sympathies and appreciation. Such correspondents as Dupont de Nemours, Volney, Priestley, Ellicott, and Peale, were of high worth; but the compilers of school-books, the inventors of perpetual motion, and the discoverers of the immutable laws of morals and physics turned to Jefferson, sure of receiving at least a recognition which might have a market value. This great collection of MSS., one of the largest in the possession of the Government, is probably the most interesting, because of its many-sidedness. The political career of Jefferson in the Presidency has been so fully treated by Henry Adams as almost to defy further delineation; but the biographer of Jefferson is yet to appear.

—Though having a more restricted membership, field, and object, the four-year-old Colonial Society of Massachusetts could not escape the appearance of being a rival of the Massachusetts Historical Society, oldest of its kind in the United States and now in its second century. It was well that the newcomer quickly repaired the error of its original confusing appellation of "Massachusetts Society." Its present designation indicates its scope, for it admits to membership no one "who cannot prove, by documentary evidence satisfactory to the Council, his lineal descent from an ancestor who was a resident of the colonies of Plymouth or the Massachusetts Bay," while its charter defines its aim to be a special cult of colonial history, through collections, publications, the encouragement of research, etc. The vigor of this impulse is strikingly shown in the superb first volume of Publications, dubbed Transactions, 1892–1894 (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.); and the soil from which the new organization has sprung is equally revealed in Mr. Andrew McFarland Davis's comprehensive survey of "Historical Work in Massachusetts," begin-

ning with the parent Society of 1790–91, and enumerating a great variety of historical and sub-historical associations, including the Bunker Hill and Wadsworth and Miles Standish Monument Associations, the Shepard Historical Society (First Church) of Cambridge, the Backus (Baptist) Historical Society, the Universalist Historical Society, the Military Historical Society, the Old South Historical Society of Boston, the Bostonian Society, the Old Residents' Historical Association of Lowell, and an Oak Tree Association of Charlemont—to mention only types. It is noticeable that while the Rumford Historical Association of Woburn, incorporated in 1877, has a library and collections constantly increasing, the Webster Historical Society of Marshfield, incorporated in 1884, was sold out under the hammer a few years ago.

—Mr. Abner C. Goodell's paper on John Saffin and his slave Adam is the most curious and readable of all, for it exhibits the New England conscience successfully revolting against slavery at the close of the seventeenth century, and involves Chief Justice Sewall and his 'Selling of Joseph,' which Mr. Saffin answered in a tract here reprinted in full, with title-page facsimiles of both tracts and a portrait of Sewall. The narrative is very amusing. Mr. Goodell also incidentally, in other connections, throws much light on Anne Hutchinson and the Antinomians, with a specification of how much Massachusetts owes to the Quakers for her religious freedom; and has some candid remarks on patriot mobs and the Boston tea party which show that the Colonial Society is not given over to mere ancestor worship. Mr. Davis, again, makes a valuable examination of Colonial Corporations, and we can but mention Mr. Robert N. Toppan's "The Right to Coin under the Colonial Charters," Mr. S. L. Thorndike's "Psalmodies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay," Mr. Edward Wheelwright's unhackneyed memoir of Francis Parkman, and Mr. Lindsay Swift's enumeration and sampling of the Massachusetts Election Sermons which, begun in 1684, were discontinued only in 1885. To Mr. Swift also was intrusted the making of an index of surprising fulness. The next volume will be stamped "Collections," and will consist of a full set of copies, from the Public Record Office in London, of the commissions of the royal governors of New England and the Bay from 1686 to 1774, together with their instructions, etc. The satisfaction which every one must take in the making of the present volume is much enhanced by the numerous inserted maps and documentary facsimiles. The future development of the Society will be eagerly regarded.

—The indirect consequences of a World's Fair are well illustrated by the six volumes of 'Bibliographie Française' (Paris: H. Le Soudier; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). This work is the French equivalent of the parent American 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual' and the British 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature,' and consists, for five volumes, of the French publishers' catalogues for 1895 bound together alphabetically. M. Le Soudier, who has the honor and the distinction of having persuaded his nearly 200 fellow-publishers to agree for this purpose on a uniform catalogue size, relates that his determination to engage in so enormous a labor was fixed by his visit to this country in 1893—no doubt in connection with the Exposition at Chicago. this instance, emphatically, it is the first p that costs, and hereafter the 'Bibliographie Française' will appear yearly with as great regularity as our own 'Trade-List.' But quite another sort of pains had to be bestowed on the sixth volume, which is the key to these numerous catalogues, and here we find an author-alphabet, with the title of each work abridged and a reference to the page of the publisher's catalogue; and a classified index of subjects with some 400 headings. These two tables are to be kept standing in type, for changes and additions. During the twelvemonth, recourse must be had by inquirers after new books to M. Le Soudier's weekly *Mémorial de la Librairie Française*, which will enable the volume of tables to be issued independently, if need be, of the accompanying catalogues. It would not be easy to overpraise this publisher for his invaluable achievement; and the cheapness of the total work, substantially bound in half-leather, is surprising ($13.50). But this price is likely to go up.

—The American School of Classical Studies in Rome will have its quarters during the coming year in the Story villa, on the Via Gaeta, which has been leased for its use. The house is conveniently situated for the work of the School, and is sufficiently large to provide, in addition to the library and suitable rooms for instruction, apartments for the Director and his family, and possibly for two or three students. The Director for 1896-'97 is Prof. Minton Warren of Johns Hopkins University, with whom will be associated Prof. Allan Marquand of Princeton as Professor of Archæology. Applications for admission may be made to the Director (in care of Sebasti & Reali, 20 Piazza di Spagna, Rome), or to the acting chairman of the managing committee, Prof. C. L. Smith, Cambridge, Mass. Under the energetic direction of Profs. Hale and Frothingham the School has in its first year certainly made a creditable and encouraging showing. Amicable relations have been established with the Italian Government and the Vatican, and with the other foreign schools in Rome. The German Institute especially has been friendly and helpful. Through these relations the opportunities for study and instruction open to our students were enlarged much beyond the necessarily limited resources of the School itself; and the regular courses to which they were admitted were supplemented by visits to museums and excursions to various points of interest in Latium and Etruria, often under such competent guidance as that of Prof. Lanciani at Ostia and of Prof. Marucchi in the catacombs. The year's programme included a visit of some weeks' duration to Greece, where some of the students enjoyed the rare privilege of accompanying Dr. Dörpfeld on his famous *Inselreise;* and on their return they spent ten days at Pompeii and in the Naples Museum under the excellent guidance of Dr. August Mau.

—Meanwhile the School has attempted to do something in a modest way for the advance of knowledge and to interest its students in this kind of work. Under Prof. Frothingham's supervision a careful examination has been made of the site of Norba, an ancient town in the Volscian hills, and a topographical plan has been prepared of the ruins, which have lain undisturbed since the destruction of the town in the time of Sulla. Prof. Frothingham also discovered a network of roads connecting Norba with the neighboring towns. Under his direction, also, and with the aid of subscriptions specially raised for the purpose, a series of moulds has been made of Trajan's arch at Beneventum, one of the best preserved of the Roman arches and representing the best period of Roman sculpture; and the School is now prepared to supply casts to museums. Finally, Prof. Hale, in revising the work of his students on the Vatican manuscripts of Catullus, came upon a manuscript of the poet, hitherto overlooked because "hidden under a false number," but in his opinion of high importance. Prof. Hale has undertaken its collation, and will publish his results in the first volume of the Papers of the School. At the same time the Vatican will publish, at his request, a complete facsimile of the manuscript itself. The two volumes are promised for the coming winter.

—We have already mentioned the discovery of the Delphic pæan to Dionysus, which is edited in the current *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* by M. Henri Weil. It differs from the hymns to Apollo in that it is not accompanied by musical notes; it is, however, older than these, dating from near the close of Philip's reign or the beginning of Alexander's. Its interest is political as well as historic. The author, Philodamus of Locris, *philippizes;* he is inspired by pan-hellenic rather than Athenian sentiments; he indicates also that, at the time of writing, some restoration of the temple was going on. To this work he invites the attention of the faithful, and pronounces that generation blessed which shall behold its completion. His pious muse is rewarded by the priesthood and the Delphians with a decree of thanks and of the customary privileges. The ode, while using the ordinary poetic commonplaces, follows the best traditions in its metrical structure. Apropos of its metres, which are glyconic and are ordinarily called logaœdic, being reduced by modern scholars to trochees and dactyls, M. Weil recalls the fact that the highest ancient authorities, Aristoxenus, Aristides Quintilianus, and Hephæstion, did not so divide or understand the glyconic rhythm. They regarded it as choriambic, as consisting of iambs and trochees, in which the trochees are sung *à contretemps.* This is an offence and a surprise to the modern ear; yet it is the testimony of experts who had heard Greek music sung. Moreover, it is a view supported by the historical development of the choriambic metre, beginning with Anacreon, and by the notation of the musical inscription found at Tralles.

A HEADMASTER OF ETON.

Memoir of Edward Craven Hawtrey, D.D., Headmaster and afterwards Provost of Eton. By Francis St. John Thackeray, M.A., F.S.A., Vicar of Mapledurham. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1896. Cloth, 8vo, pp. xii, 267. Illustrated.

It would be difficult to think of two figures more contrasted, or either of them more characteristic, than that of Dr. Arnold, the Headmaster of Rugby, and that of Dr. Hawtrey, the contemporary Headmaster of Eton. Arnold's school was that, generally speaking, of the professional and higher middle classes. We see the great public-school reformer seated, with a face of earnestness almost approaching to sternness, amid a circle of boys on whom his own image was deeply impressed, and studying in the most serious spirit the philosophic work of his favorite Thucydides, or in the college chapel fervently preaching the highest Christian morality. Eton was the special school of the aristocracy and landed

gentry. We see Arnold's counterpart seated with his sixth form in a class-room which he had adorned with specimens of his classic taste, robed in a gown and cassock of the richest silk, his gold pencil case suspended by a golden chain, his neat foot complacently put forward in a patent-leather boot, his whole air that of a most elegant and highly refined gentleman, lightly dallying with an ode of Horace, and perhaps letting fall some observation which showed the connoisseur on the remarkable "body" of the ancient wines. The foot was the only part of his frame of which he could well be proud; the face was a favorite subject of caricature, in both carving and crayon, and lent itself kindly to that art, as engravings in this volume show. Hawtrey was an exquisite, almost a *petit-maître*, a scholar elegant, not deep, a composer of graceful trifles in several languages. In vacations he moved, a favorite, in high society, both in London and in Paris. He had as headmaster a very large income, which he spent with a princely liberality. His hospitality was profuse, his liberality to poor scholars unfailing. He made a fine collection of rare and valuable books superbly bound. Neither as a teacher nor as a headmaster could he be said to be strong. As a teacher he cultivated taste, as headmaster he had tact and well understood his boys. A perfect gentleman himself, he always treated them as gentlemen and scrupulously respected their sense of honor. He was inclined to make some reforms; but above him was old Provost Goodall in full canonicals, with wig, knee-breeches, and shoebuckles, who, like George III., would have no innovation in his time.

A curious institution was Eton in those days. Nothing was taught in the school but classics. Mathematics were an extra, and were in a sort of uncovenanted state. The mathematical master taught, not in school, but in his own lodgings, and did not, like the classical masters, receive from the boys the homage of "capping." Even in classics the teaching in school was almost a form. The same thirty lines of Homer, Virgil, Horace, 'Poetæ Græci,' or 'Scriptores Romani,' formed the lesson of the five upper forms and the last three years or more of the course. Exercises in Latin composition were the most serious part of the work, and, as they were done out of school, the boy might do them himself or not, as he liked. Latin verse was the accomplishment most valued, and that which brought prizes and marks of honor after your name in the school list. There was a scholarship for which the more ambitious boys annually competed, and which in their case supplemented the regular school course. There was always one whole holiday and one half-holiday in the week; when saints'-days fell there were more, and you were never in school more than three-quarters of an hour at a time. Saying Greek and Latin poetry by heart was the most serious task, and with Homer, Horace, and Virgil a boy's memory was well stored. What the masters set themselves in earnest to enforce, and not without effect, was a social code, deemed to be that of the English gentleman, including strict personal cleanliness as well as the manly virtues. There was attendance at chapel with full choral service five or six times a week, as prescribed by the mediæval statutes, but the real worship was that of Jupiter. It was said that a boy, having once been simple enough to seek spiritual advice of Dr. Keate, the Doctor, on recovering from his surprise, gave him an order on a bookseller for a Greek Testament with notes.

Many of the Eton boys of those days went into the army, especially into the Guards or light-cavalry regiments, while others went into the diplomatic service and other public services where at that time patronage prevailed and no previous training was required. Eton, however, took a fair share of honors at the University, and, as might have been expected from the social position of her alumni, a still larger share of the honors of public life. There was not a little intellectual activity in the place of a spontaneous kind. Coming from political homes, the boys took a lively interest in public questions. Gladstone, and Canning before him, were fruits of this unforced culture. Perhaps the Eton boy was partly compensated for his lack of severe training by not having his brain overwrought when he was young. This may be the cause of the vigor and power of work which many eminent Englishmen show in their old age. When the weight is not put early on the horse's back, he does not prematurely break down. The recollection of little work and much play no doubt combined with boyish friendship and the historic beauty of the place to produce the intense attachment of Etonians to their school.

The place was a museum of survivals: the mediæval "bounds" were still nominally kept up; you had to defer to the obsolete tradition when you met a master by pretending to conceal yourself. The river, on which half the boys passed the summer day, was out of bounds. When a match was rowed with Westminster on the river some distance off, it was totally ignored by the authorities and no time allowed for it, though the rate at which readers and choristers rattled through the college service that afternoon to let the boys get away in time showed plainly enough that something was at hand.

Eton, however, though still the special school of the aristocracy and gentry, has yielded to the requirements of the age. Its curriculum is now expanded and brought up to the latest improvements. Only a few old men remember the antediluvian state of things. So much time has elapsed since Hawtrey's death that his biographer has not been able to recover many facts or anecdotes. It was characteristic of him and of the place that, finding at his door two boys fighting, he said: "Well, boys will quarrel, and when they quarrel I suppose they had better fight. But you needn't fight close to my door." That little slide has passed through time's magic-lantern certainly to appear no more.

RECENT FICTION.

The Veil of Liberty: A Tale of the Girondins. By Péronne. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan.

Confession. By Elizabeth E. Evans. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.

A Colonial Wooing. By Charles Conrad Abbott, M.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Clara Hopgood. By Mark Rutherford. Dodd, Mead & Co.

A House of Cards. By Alice S. Wolf. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

The White Rocks. Translated from the French of Édouard Rod. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Pirate Gold. By F. J. Stimson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Bachelor's Christmas, and Other Stories. By Robert Grant. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Massacre of the Innocents, and Other Tales. By Belgian Writers. Translated by Edith Wingate Rinder. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

In the Village of Viger. By Duncan Campbell Scott. Boston: Copeland & Day.

A Gentleman Vagabond, and Some Others. By F. Hopkinson Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Tom Grogan. By F. Hopkinson Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Damnation of Theron Ware. By Harold Frederic. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

The Reds of the Midi. Translated from the Provençal of Félix Gras by Catharine A. Janvier. With an Introduction by Thomas A. Janvier. D. Appleton & Co.

Emanuel; or, Children of the Soil. From the Danish of Henrik Pontoppidan by Mrs. Edgar Lucas. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.

Camilla. Translated from the Swedish and Danish of Richert von Koch. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

The Cruciform Mark. By Riccardo Stephens, M.B. London: Chatto & Windus.

Of making many books of stories out of the French Revolution there is no end. Naturally they have all certain features in common which can be predicted before reading. Péronne justly indicates the especial trait of his tale in acknowledging, among other literary debts, that due to Adolf Schmidt's collection of secret police reports which "throw some light on the point which even that diligent student of the Revolution, M. d'Héricault, admits to finding obscure, namely, how plain folk contrived to live and get about during the general upheaval." "The unimpassioned and realistic narration of the police agent," then, if it has to an extent shorn the book of brilliancy as a novel, has lent it the rarer interest of a faithful chronicle whose facts are more deeply moving than any garniture could be. We recall no story of the period that reveals so intimately the life and manners, even to the costuming, of the ordinary people; homely details abound, which give peculiar reality to the tragedy and bring it close to the vision. At the same time there is more to be learned than in the average Revolution novel, of history, of minor biography, of the relations of the political parties to each other, and of the private religious constancies and apostasies which made the public martyrs. 'The Veil of Liberty' is well worth reading as a book of wide study and of deep instructiveness and interest.

Mrs. Evans is again at her task of warning against evils which one must hope are exceptional. It should be said, to her credit, that the sorry story is told as by one convicted of a mission, and with not the least gloating over evil or self pluming on knowledge. The air of complacent acquaintance with the rotten core under the fresh fair skin of innocent seeming, which defiles so many latter-day books, we find not here. The warning is solemn, and it is solemnly, if daringly, given. Yet, allowing all credit for dignity of motive and for genuine abhorrence of sin, the inquiry survives whether, on the whole, benefit accrues either to the library or to morals from such expositions. It may be that girls without a sympathetic home-training might in the rueful tale find a tonic vision of sin; we take leave to think, however, that the author, even

as preacher, has made a mistake in reckoning with the wrong end of sin—the inevitable climax rather than the avoidable beginning. If the moral falls, the book falls, it being emphatically a "problem-book"; yet it may be added that the writing is creditably done, and that there is a deal of cynical humor in the picture of a villageful of maids and matrons fervent in the business of pursuing the bachelor clergyman.

Dr. Abbott's 'Colonial Wooing' is a variation from the majority of colonial stories in having its scene laid, not in New England, but in the township of Chesterfield, among the Friends, whose nearest seaport was "the thriving village founded by Penn." A sleepy atmosphere of river-ferry and blacksmith's forge under spreading oak, the songs of many birds, plainly personal friends of the writer, well create an illusion of the Pennsylvania and West Jersey borders. The story, even though it concerns a midnight rescue, the mention of firearms, and a pretty Quakeress so undisciplined that the elders, looking upon her, remembered that there was witchcraft in New England, and were troubled, yet remains (appropriately enough) a rather gray and drab little story, beautifully printed.

"Precious and rare," says Mark Rutherford, "are those divine souls to whom that which is aerial is substantial, the only true substance; those for whom a pale vision possesses an authority they are forced unconditionally to obey." More precious and more rare, we venture to think, are the souls who put the pale visions behind them and cultivate and obey the promptings of common sense. What but yielding to pale visions brought Clara and Madge Hopgood to grief? Madge could not agree with her lover upon what poems of Wordsworth's were the best. She therefore, and not because she was betrayed by him, discarded him, with the approval of all the women in the book, although he begged to marry her and care for her and their child. Ultimately she married a Jew who was a bibliophile. Clara also loved the Jew, and he her, but she gave him over to her sister and became one of Mazzini's martyr agents in Italy. And thus the woman with a past advances from grace to glory. To marry the man who should have been her husband becomes a crime if they cannot agree upon matters of literary taste. That there was any duty to the child seems never to have occurred to Madge, her mother, or sister, and only temporarily to the motherly women who befriended her—they, too, rejoicing that she would not accept the reparation urged on her by the man who would probably make her life dull. It is all very sickish and sickly, but it claims notice because the writer shows rare ability, scholarliness, and power of narration; because, too, there are glints of insight and nuggets of wisdom which one would like to sift out and preserve.

She persists—this type of woman—but plays only a secondary and remote part in 'A House of Cards,' so that we may gratefully ignore her, as a humble but sincere contribution to her suppression. The scene of this novel is laid in California, and it is not a dialect story, but one of society. The characters continually give and are given in picnics, theatre-parties, dinner-parties, and drives. When they are assembled, they fall a-chattering, and contrive to say a few bright things, or to make a few clever quotations, upon which the party breaks up, like a gun discharged and stood in a corner. The numerous persons are not well differentiated, and some are singularly spasmodic, coming in without cause or effect, after the manner of the Piccininies and Joblillies. A trace of Occidentalism lurks in such expressions as "I am equally as determined not to," and (at a dinner) "Yorke was careful at the beginning of each course to give Mrs. Yerrington her queue," wherein the ethnologist will readily see the resultant graft on Caucasian stock of Chinese cheap labor. The ground plan of the novel, turning on certain phases of heredity, is by no means wanting in strength or originality, and the defects mentioned have not hindered it from being interesting reading.

In Édouard Rod's touching story of 'The White Rocks' is to be found a more than usually artistic piece of workmanship. Searching as a study in human nature and the temptations flesh is heir to, it is also at once a poem, in its delicate grace and the speaking picture of a Vaudois community. The very air of Switzerland breathes in it: the sombre religion of Calvin, the snow-crisped sunshine, the sparkle of lake waters. While reading it one is a dweller in Bielle, walks in and out among the vineyards, sits with the townsfolk, expectant, to hear the first sermon of the new pastor, and shares the town gossip. The pastor, his peasant mother, the great lady, her husband and child, the light-weight American father (whose surprising name is Leen), and all the manifestations of Mrs. Grundy to be met in a narrow town, are admirably delineated. It is only a skilled craftsman who can combine sadness and humor in such wise that, as in life, they blend; the one, indeed, often the cause of the other. The translation trips here and there, but on the whole goes with spirit.

Mr. Stimson's story of 'Pirate Gold' has a salt and breezy flavor of early, tar-scented, India-trading, Abolitionist Boston—of the day when merchants stepped out of their counting-rooms upon the wharves and watched their ships come in; ships which might bring in, besides their expected cargoes, pirate prisoners; and when, as the same merchants walked home, they might meet a runaway slave getting sent back to the South, with the slave-catchers, under Federal escort. The story, laid against such pictorial background with excellent effect, deals with the gold doubloons and the golden-haired little girl left by a pirate with the mercantile house of Bowdoin in 1829. Out of the fortunes of the gold and the little girl, and taking as his heroes the old head of the firm and his bookkeeper, Mr. Stimson has made a fresh and interesting book. As to probabilities, nothing need be said, since the story runs plausibly; and as to the taste of some of Mr. Bowdoin's pleasantries with his humorless wife, unto the Commonwealth Mr. Stimson may render his account. The peppery old gentleman cannot fail to win love for himself and pleasure in his portrait; while cautious, devoted, old Scotch Jamie is so real that one does not ask if he be probable.

Mr. Grant's half-dozen stories afford an hour's sufficient entertainment. Beyond that hour they are not likely to live in the memory, if we except the amusing account of the fagged architect who goes to an abandoned farm to spend the Fourth of July in stillness and speechlessness, even bribing his children to accept rabbits in place of firecrackers, and who then is whisked by adversity through a series of adventures which contribute to the gayety of readers.

A dozen short stories by nine Belgian writers are translated for English readers by Edith Rinder as a bait to the further study of "what is best in the poetic and prose literature of the Belgian Renascence." The names of Maeterlinck and Eekhoud, the latter "the Zola of Flanders, as he is sometimes called, though somewhat inaptly," need not affright the timid, nor yet, we make bold to say, need the lovers of stories be powerfully attracted by the work of Demolder, "the direct literary descendant of the old Dutch painters of Scriptural subjects," nor by the "psychic episode" as explored by Messrs. Jenart and Richelle, nor by the two contributions of Lemonnier, "commonly accepted as one of the ablest of the French realists." Delattre's Walloon sketch and the three by Eekhoud, with Krains's "Mountebanks" (a masterpiece of dreariness), are the best of the book. The allegoric writing is overstrained and phantasmal, the realistic largely real and nothing else—real costumes, real properties, real landscape, real kitchen utensils, real blood, real barley-sugar, real horseplay, but not real interest. There is, however, interest in making excursions into territory so little explored, and the best of the stories are justification for the existence of the collection in its pretty and well-translated form.

The glimpses of the French settlement of Viger given by Duncan Campbell Scott are miniatures of village oddities with French characteristics. They show a lively sense of situation and incident together with an affectionate appreciation of nature. But some of them have been done with an impressionist brush, which has on miniatures a smearing effect.

Mr. Hopkinson Smith's brush touches lightly, freely, and firmly, in his new volume of sketches, on many of the subjects he has already taught us to associate with him. The immortal and "just grand" Southern Major; sundry laboring men with picturesque clothes, homely language, and valiant hearts; the memorable Bronx River, and some gentlemanly dogs, are among his heroes. Excellent company they are, and thoroughly master is Mr. Hopkinson Smith of the art of putting his figures, human or otherwise, into the precise surrounding that best suits and balances them, so that they neither awaken unfulfilled expectations of importance nor yet hang in mid-air with no excuse for being. In sketching places and odd characters he is happiest. As he approaches incident or plot he is less successful, to our thinking, both in these short tales and also in the longer flight essayed in 'Tom Grogan,' a romance of Staten Island. While his eccentric and lovable heroine is a new figure in story—the woman who hauls and whose home life is beautiful—and while the glimpses of Labor Unions, Village Boards, and political pulls are cleverly worked in as background matter, and while neither the sagacious hoodlum nor yet the goat of the suburbs is wanting, yet does the whole go to prove the author *par excellence* the artist of episode.

The Rev. Theron Ware was so weak and damnable a being that his damnation was but a trifle to accomplish, and by itself might not have been worth writing a book about. The force and interest of Mr. Frederic's book (and though painful it has both) lie in the presentation of the seamy side of creed and dogma. We have not only the Methodist preacher who comes to grief, but the Methodist debt-raisers—a man and woman whose past has been full of alarming variety, and who are delighted to settle down into the "chance and change" of being "good frauds." There is

the Catholic priest who talks about the "Christ-myth," yet remains an active and devoted priest, and whose hope for the American church is that the Irish shall take to lager beer and become in time a new type of American. There is the Catholic girl who is avowedly "Greek." There is also the man of science who declares all art to be decay, pointing to the perishing of nations in "artistic riot," and proclaiming the end of the Jews because they begin to produce painters and sculptors. The trenchant talk of all these persons is brilliantly set down, and there are curious pictures of the mechanism of Methodist worship and organization which we should think might stir up ire in high places. The story, however, leads nowhither, and the reader is advised to make the most of the panorama as it passes.

It is occasionally the reviewer's happy lot to come upon a little book with neither *if*, *but*, nor *perhaps* lying in ambush in its pages. Such treasure-trove is 'The Reds of the Midi,' translated from the Provençal of Félix Gras. In old Pascal's shoemaking shop of an evening, when the neighbors are met, and a little boy who should be at home in bed is sitting in the corner on a bench with the cat, Lou Materoun queries: "I've always wanted to ask you, Pascal, how it was that you, a peasant from Malemort, happened to be in the Battalion from Marseilles that went up to Paris the year of the Revolution." Old Pascal's answer is the story, retold by the little boy on the bench, whose autobiographic reflections are Félix Gras's own, as we learn, and who makes as charming a vignette of himself as ever hung pendant to an historical picture. The story of the rousing of the peasants of the South against "the tyrant King," their private grievances, their march to Paris singing the "Marseillaise," is lifted by the peasant recital into wonderful reality. It is history made alive, not merely telling the tale of deeds, but plucking out the very heart of the time. Yet in the subject lies only half the charm. It is the touch of the poet, the unerring instinct of the artist, the great heart of the Provençal, that indescribably attract and make the book a thing of gladness. The quality of Mrs. Janvier's translation is admirable, and the very sympathetic and delightful introduction by Mr. Janvier affords a glimpse of the author and his works which adds the final grace to a volume teeming in graces.

Henrik Pontoppidan's story treats of an interesting period in Danish history about twenty years ago, when, to the freeing of the peasants from serfdom nearly a century before, succeeded the movement to free their minds from ignorance as well as their bodies from slavery. The establishment of "people's high schools" for the encouragement of an enthusiastic patriotism was the great work of Bishop Grundtvig in the beginning of the century, and the influence of this institution, as well as of a popular religious movement, is seen reflected in the twin villages of Pontoppidan's story. To our thinking, the facts of the case, as stated in the preface, are more interesting than the novel, which, however patriotic, moves but listlessly for the general reader. The aristocratic priest, his democratic curate, the heresies of a preaching weaver, the manners and customs of a not too interesting peasantry, lists of their clothes, food, and amusements, with the final triumph of the plebeian over the patrician idea, are the leading features of a book more significant to students of Danish progress than to seekers after an entertaining novel.

Danish progress is further set forth in the story of 'Camilla,' an eccentric young Dane who visits Stockholm and sets society by the ears with her heresies. "Her heterodoxies, if expressed in Swedish, would have been quite too shocking," therefore the author lets her speak Danish, in which tongue, we are told, "they sound most piquant and original." Her lack of orthodoxy is mainly in the theological line, so that no well-disciplined novel-reader is surprised to have this shocking young seeker after Ibsen's "higher view of things" an angel of ministration to the sick, visiting cholera patients, healing diphtheria by Swedish massage (full directions given in the text), and alternating these offices with abuse of the orthodox Christian's Deity and liberal flirtations with Stockholm's nobility. There are side views of Swedish family life, a Salvation Army meeting, and plentiful talk of the bringing up of sons and daughters, by a perplexed baron (who finds it "much harder to be a father nowadays than it used to be") and his wise wife (the best character in the story). When Camilla, in a delirium of fever, converses by telephone with the heavenly Powers, her theology is found to be lenient if not strictly orthodox; and of course in loving and marrying a strict Lutheran, she rouses hopes of her rehabilitation. If this is the highest point contemporaneous Swedish fiction has reached, it must be said to be still in the raw.

A very medical and medicinal book indeed is 'The Cruciform Mark,' by a bachelor of medicine. He knows his Edinburgh well and describes it agreeably. He knows the University well, and takes the reader into the medical student's life there, with a knowledge born of evident intimacy. So, too, the Highlands, to which we go a-shooting, and the Tweed, in which we go a-fishing. Then there is Edinburgh society, teas, dances, dinners, Royal Society lectures, functions innumerable, private and public; there is dissection, astrology, snake-venom, second sight, hypnotism, and suggestion. We will not solve the mysteries of the book here by saying which of these agencies is the cause of the many tragedies. The reader curious in the abnormal relations of mind and matter will find here a strange and clever story, brimming with terrors, yet related in a temper both sane and sweet. There is too much in the book of everything, whether relevant or irrelevant. In his overflowing enthusiasm for his many subjects, from the black arts to trout fishing, the writer has allowed himself to put the material for three books into one, which, though nowhere dull, except in astrological moments, becomes oppressive from the too long imposed strain of mystery and suspense, as well as from an excess of the matter introduced to lighten the horrors. We shall be surprised, however, if the book does not attract attention and discussion, and if Riccardo Stephens is not heard of again.

Elements of the Theory of Functions of a Complex Variable, with especial reference to the Methods of Riemann. By Dr. H. Durège. Authorized translation from the fourth German edition by George Egbert Fisher and Isaac J. Schwatt. Philadelphia: Published by the Translators. 1896.

THREE years ago we had not a treatise in our language upon that subject to which the attention of most of the strongest mathematicians has been chiefly and increasingly devoted for now near a generation. Two admirable and extended manuals (neither of them, however, exhaustive) have since appeared; and in this publication the strictest essentials of the theory are presented in an easily comprehensible form, free from unnecessary details and subtleties. The translators may be sure that their work will find welcome from teachers. Two classes of students are likely to use the book. Even to a man who does not intend to pursue mathematics, and to whom any training in working algebraical operations or those of the calculus would be time thrown away, the theory of functions may prove interesting. It will give him a tourist's glimpse, at least, of a new world of thought. It will show him that, scattered about in the community, are men of our race, in ordinary costume, some of them transacting affairs in down-town offices, just as any man might do, who are yet filled with ideas far more foreign to the rest of us than are those of the Chinese in Mott Street. Surely, it were consonant with a generous education to gain some glimpses of the mathematician's world, even if there were no lessons to be learned from it but that of a phenomenon in anthropology. But when we consider that the very finest and most prolific deductive logic can scarcely be learned in any other quarter, and that the life-thought of these who wield that logic cannot fail to afford some useful hint towards a solution of the problem of what sentiments we ought rationally to entertain towards matters and things in general, it becomes all the more plainly worth the while, even of the ἀγεωμέτρητος, to look into the easy and pretty elements of the theory of functions. The first class of students, then, who are likely to want this book consists of those who do not mean to go deeply into mathematics.

The other class consists of those who purpose subsequently to attack the large treatises, perhaps even the memoirs, but who desire a preliminary introduction to the subject. For these last, supposing they already have some ordinary acquaintance with the calculus, it is hard to see how a book could be better suited than the treatise of Durège. It presents the leading ideas so that the student can see how they are applied; and when he has read its pages, he will feel quite confident that he understands at least the general theory of functions, if he be not even ready to handle it himself. At the same time, students who have learned their calculus out of a modern treatise have no need of a separate preliminary work upon the theory of functions. They are already in possession of its governing ideas, and might as well pass at once to more elaborate treatises. For students of all kinds the best way to teach the calculus is to make it a part of the doctrine of functions.

Decidedly, for mere tourists into the world of mathematics, a minuter guide-book than the present work would be preferable, were there one that was not too difficult. One of the chief uses of the study for such a student lies in the accurate yet productive logic it inculcates. Of late years a great deal of research has been devoted to the exact analysis of the conceptions of the theory of functions, such as infinity, continuity, differentiability, etc. The science of logic has been advanced, in no small measure, by those studies. They ought not to be neglected by any close thinker, nor does their exposition necessarily involve difficult technicalities; but of all these recent investigations Durège might, for all his book shows, have heard nothing. His aim, not to say his boast, seems to be that he shall present the theory just as it appeared to the thought of Riemann, sixty years ago. He

discourses at great length of the topological characters of Riemann's surfaces; but he never points out, perhaps is scarcely aware, that the connectivity of space, as it is imagined to be in the theory of functions (and as Listing also conceives it), is essentially different from that which is attributed to it in modern geometry. For example, according to the theory of functions, upon a plane surface four colors suffice to paint a map, while, according to projective geometry, six colors are requisite. For the student of ideas, the development side by side in mathematics of two disparate notions of space, and that, too, without giving rise to any dispute, is surely of sufficient interest to be noticed. Again, the logic of the interchange of roots in making a circuit round a branch-point is passed over with all the naïveté of Cauchy, who first remarked the phenomenon. Cauchy was a miraculous algebrist and a great logician, but it is notorious that the feet of his agile logic are rather apt to trip. In this matter he skips over a cañon so easily and so lightly that one can hardly make out how he does it, even if one remarks that any cañon is skipped.

The publication will be well received, as it deserves to be. Yet the translation appears to be of the most rudimentary literalness. We say "appears," because we have not made comparison with the original, and also because in sundry places we have been puzzled to guess what the German words could be. Thus, on p. 46, in an italicised sentence, "either" is used where "second" or "additional" would be much clearer; one cannot think the original reads "anders." "This" is frequently used where the English idiom calls for "that." In perusing the pages we are continually coming across such sentences as the following: "By this also the name *modulus of periodicity* is justified, since we can say, analogously to the language of the theory of numbers, that z acquires equal values for such values of w as are congruent to one another to a modulus of periodicity." Such language is not English. In many passages it is not even good German, unless logically confused expression can be said to be supported by such a weight of usage in Germany as to make good sense kick the beam.

Life and Speeches of Thomas Corwin, Orator, Lawyer, and Statesman. Edited by Josiah Morrow. Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson & Co. 1896.

The career described in Mr Morrow's pages belongs to a period not very distant from us in time, but in fact completely bygone. Corwin was born in 1794 and the stage on which he played a conspicuous part was that on which the curtain rang down with the outbreak of the war: the part could no more be repeated now than that of Webster or Calhoun. In the United States of to-day the chief interest of life centres in cities, in which the ends of the earth are daily brought together by steam and electricity. In Corwin's prime, life in this country had a local, bucolic, and primitive flavor, which, in politics was grotesquely exaggerated. Clay is commended to the people by the fact that he is the "mill-boy of the slashes"; in the campaign of 1840 the Whigs show their love of the people and their sympathy with simplicity of life in public men, by putting up log cabins and serving out hard cider from them. Corwin, having had to find employment in early life by driving a wagon-load of provisions for the army in the war of 1812, is later on, favorably known in politics as "the Wagon-boy," and his friends and supporters, while singing "Van, Van's a used-up man," and "Tippecanoe and Tyler too," do not forget to unite with these inspiring strains the manly stave:

> "Then let us cheer that wagon-boy
> Who drove that noble team, wo-hoy!"

This was the tribute which politics paid to a genuine simplicity of social condition, reflected in all walks and professions.

The Ohio community of Corwin's boyhood was a community of pioneers—their dwellings were actually of logs; so, for that matter, were their first schoolhouse and their first church. They prided themselves on their simplicity, which was considered to recall and improve upon that of the best and purest days of Rome, when matrons still counted their children for their jewels, and Cincinnatus preferred the plough to public office. The presiding justice first selected for the southwestern circuit of Ohio was not a lawyer, but qualified himself for admission to the bar by practice in his judicial capacity. The salary attached to the office was $750; at the bar the highest professional income was $1,000. The common dress was of homespun or buckskin; a professional man wore black and shaved himself. Corwin was throughout his life "Tom" Corwin. In 1838 one James Shields, a Jacksonian, was nominated for Congress against Corwin. In order to damage him irretrievably, a certificate was published to the effect that prominent men of his own party had declared, among other things, that it was his habit, on going to bed, to exchange his cambric shirt for a nightshirt, and Corwin afterwards confessed that it was this charge that gave him his first hope of an election, as he felt confident that Jacksonian Democrats would never unite in support of a man who was too good to sleep in the same shirt he wore during the day.

Such were the times and the community which produced Corwin, and early recognized in him a spokesman. To those among whom he grew up, he was, and to them he remained throughout life, a great advocate, orator, and statesman. More than this, he was, what few statesmen are, a born humorist. When we read of audiences first moved to tears and then convulsed with laughter we feel that it is not a figure of speech. His hearers hung upon his words; his jokes and stories became by words, until he himself began to feel that he did not produce a sufficiently serious impression, and confided to some young man who asked what course he ought to pursue to achieve success in public life, "Be as solemn as an ass." On this profound truth he did not act.

Corwin's political career was not as remarkable as might have been expected from his powers, partly because his energies tended to speech rather than to definite action. He did not lack boldness, as his speech in favor of refusing further supplies for the prosecution of the Mexican war shows, but even this speech does not seem to have been anything more than the expression of strong feeling. As a prophecy of the "irrepressible conflict" between North and South, and an analysis of the causes which were tending to produce it, this oration was remarkable, and is said to have made a profound impression, but it led to nothing, and, down to the very outbreak of the war, he thought that a compromise of some sort could be devised by means of which the South might be reconciled to the Union, and the further extension of slavery be at the same time restricted. Like so many lawyers, he could be contentious enough if he had a definitely marked-out cause to win or defend; but when it came to striking out an initiative in public affairs and making himself the leader of a campaign of any sort, that was not in his line. As Minister to Mexico he displayed the same trait, evidently not caring to make an avenue to fame out of the unusual diplomatic difficulties with which he was confronted. His name is connected with no positive measure of legislation, and his oratory was great on the stump rather than in the Senate.

He was always careless about money matters, and generally involved in pecuniary difficulties; but there was nothing against his honor, though in the case of a Government claim in which he had been interested an investigation was necessary to show that there was no ground for accusing him of wrongdoing. He is reported to have said that he wondered whether any other man ever hid from the constable to read letters proposing him for the Presidency.

The reputation of a great stump speaker must be evanescent. Corwin's declaration in the Senate that were he a Mexican he would offer his own countrymen a welcome with bloody hands to hospitable graves, has become an oratorical commonplace. His translation of the impression produced by the nomination of Polk for the Presidency, "After that—who is safe?" is one of those jokes which are sure of a long life. But his set speeches are not likely to be studied, for either their statesmanship or their oratory. His life was centred in the expression of the thought or sentiment or humor of the hour, and one cannot but feel gratified to remember that his consciousness did not survive the shock which deprived him of the power of speech, and that his last conversation was addressed, as everything said by him had always been, to an audience of friends, crowding about him, and eager for more.

Ulster as It Is; or, Twenty-eight Years' Experience as an Irish Editor. By Thomas MacKnight. 2 vols. Macmillan. 1896.

The editor of a daily paper is not always the best historian of his own times. His vision is likely to be limited, and his training too often has been to bring into prominence small daily points as against his opponents. We can recommend these volumes as an antidote to the exaggerations of the *Irish World* or *United Ireland*. They will prove of little assistance to those anxious for enlightenment as to the causes of states of feeling and popular outbursts. In the main, Protestant Ulster did her fighting and "outraging" a century ago. She then gained certain rights and privileges regarding the occupation of land which have since staved off the worst results of landlord exaction and agricultural depression. The people of the rest of Ireland, of a more complaisant type, bent until they could bend no longer. Protestant education was at the time most encouraged. Catholic education was hampered. At the period in the last century when, as has since been proved, it was all-important regarding the future of manufactures whatever the discovery of steam, steam-fed steam establishments the industry of the north of Ireland, for which the soil was suited, was in every way encouraged the industries of three parts of Ireland were all but extinguished.

It is therefore misleading to expatiate upon the peacefulness, the education, the industry

of "Ulster," as proof of the natural superiority of its inhabitants. And "Ulster" itself is a most misleading expression. What Mr. MacKnight and other writers of his class mean is the geographical limits (four out of the thirty-two counties of Ireland, or nine of Ulster) within which Protestant and Unionist feeling largely predominates. Taking him at his word, Ulster is in truth more illiterate than either Leinster or Munster. The Protestants, from their past history, are better educated than the Catholics. Yet neither Protestants nor Catholics in Ulster are as well educated as their co-religionists in the rest of Ireland. Moreover, in the deplorable Irish illiteracy brought into view at late elections, Ulster takes the lead, and Belfast, Londonderry, and Newry show double the proportion of illiterates to Dublin, Waterford, and Limerick. If Belfast has increased in population, the rest of Ulster, and even the contiguous counties, have declined. It is not fair to compare "Belfast," which includes, with "Dublin," which does not include, its suburbs. Taking the average personal valuation for taxation of the provinces all round, we think we are correct in saying that Ulster is behind Leinster and Munster; and, running our eyes down the list of Irish counties in order of average wealth, we pass twelve before we reach one situated in Ulster.

Bearing such considerations in mind, and what we may entitle the bumptiousness of "Ulster" as against Ireland, while Ireland generally takes "Ulster" little (perhaps too little) into her consideration, we may find these volumes useful antidotes to extreme nationalist propaganda. They bring out clearly the strength and steadiness of Irish Protestant opposition to home rule. They show strikingly the individual go there is in Protestantism as compared to Catholicism. The Protestants of all denominations in Ireland form but twenty-five per cent. of the population. They still practically sway the destinies of the country. In a concluding chapter Mr. MacKnight declares: "There is no community of feeling, and therefore can be no common citizenship, between the two sections of the Irish people." We cannot reconcile ourselves to such a dreary outlook. If antagonism such as this exists in Ireland alone of all English-speaking countries, it may be that the political environment is also different.

The Makers of Modern Rome. By Mrs. Oliphant. Macmillan.

THIS is a very characteristic specimen of the vicious tendency of the age towards hasty bookmaking, in its text as in its illustrations. Mrs. Oliphant is a gifted and prolific writer of fiction, biography, and history; she produces several works yearly, and treats her various subjects with the same facile pen; but her method applied to the great moments of the world's history is wholly inadequate. It has the same relation to history that a series of tableaux-vivants has to a tragedy of Shakspere. She seizes the dramatic moment, saturating it with all the local color that anecdote, detail, and fancy, and an immense facility in stringing adjectives together can give. In her preface to this work Mrs. Oliphant disarms serious criticism by her conviction that "nobody will expect in this book or from me the results of original research or the settlement—if any is ever possible—of vexed questions." And further on: "The work has been much interrupted by sorrow and suffering, on which account, for any slips of hers, the writer asks the indulgence of her unknown friends." But to undertake a work extending over six hundred pages, under similar conditions, is a mistake, all the greater that Mrs. Oliphant, in her first chapter, gives as her reason for treating of this particular moment of history its having been as yet neglected by English authors, though as a time of transition it is as interesting as important.

The opening chapter begins with a description of life in Rome during the middle of the fourth century: the debasement which had taken possession of all classes after the seat of empire had been transferred to Constantinople, the extreme luxury of the patrician class, and the love of amusement, amounting to degradation of the populace; the struggle between Christianity, already strong as a system, and Paganism, which Julian had in vain attempted to revive. The Christian Church itself in Rome had, during the four centuries of its existence, wandered wildly astray from the teachings of the Master. Jerome himself tells of one of the highest Roman officials who proposed to Bishop Damasus to become a Christian if in return he would make him Bishop of Rome, indicating that appointment as more valuable than any in the Government. Mrs. Oliphant quotes Jerome himself railing at the demeanor and dress of the popular young priests of the time, whom he likens unto bridegrooms rather than teachers of religion. In the midst of these excesses of luxury and idleness, a revulsion of feeling among the more refined was brought about, taking its first impulse after the arrival in Rome of Athanasius, driven from his see in Alexandria by persecution in the year 341. Athanasius came with two of his monks, and seems to have been welcomed chiefly in the house of a noble widow, Albina. He brought with him the life of St. Anthony, which he left on his departure to the daughter of Albina, Marcella. This work had a marvellous influence on the devotees of the Christian faith, impelling them to seek to lead a more spiritual life, often ending in asceticism. Marcella, whose history is told by St. Jerome himself, founded a home in her palace on the Aventine for the noble women who had aspirations for this higher life.

"Honourable women not a few" Mrs. Oliphant calls this first division of her book, and with irritating persistence she insists continually on comparing this company of earnest Christian devotees with the Hôtel Rambouillet or with the most modern æsthetic sect of souls. It is this desire to popularize her subject, however remote, which imparts a tone of gossip and vulgarity to her treatment of the history of St. Jerome, Milania, Paula, Blaesilla, and other noble ladies who were his disciples for long years in Rome, some of whom followed him to the East, when, after the death of Damasus, the breath of scandal embittered his life and made his position in Rome intolerable. It is strange that, while continually quoting from St. Jerome's own earnest and vigorous prose, Mrs. Oliphant cannot refrain from using the most bombastic language, thus spoiling a story so interesting in its incidents. After a string of high-flown questions on the expediency of Paula's deserting her children and going to the East, which our authoress leaves unanswered, she returns to the modern parallel:

"But is there not a Murray, a Baedeker of the fourth century still existent, the 'Itinéraire de Bordeaux à Jerusalem,' unquestioned and authentic, containing the most careful account of inns and places of refuge and modes of travel for the pilgrims? It is possible that the Lady Paula may have had that ancient roll in her satchel, or slung about the shoulders of her attendant for constant reference."

The second part treats of the Popes who made the Papacy—Gregory the Great, the monk Hildebrand, Pope Gregory VII., and Innocent III. As one might expect, the narrative of their lives is too fragmentary to give any comprehensive idea of their importance to any one who is not already acquainted with their history. It is in the third book, treating of Cola di Rienzi, that Mrs. Oliphant finds a truly sympathetic theme for her pen in the meteor-like apparition of this fantastic personality. She has taken the old chronicle for her subject-matter, and she could not have done better in this choice, for no romance could be as interesting as the 'Vita di Cola di Rienzo' by the unknown chronicler whose patriotism was as great as his admiration for the Tribune. Then we have minute descriptions of the pictures on the wall by which Rienzi secured the attention of the people, his sermon in St. John Lateran, the extraordinary *mise-en-scène* which seemed indispensable to all his acts, his strange costumes, the feuds of the Orsinis and Colonnas, Rienzi's wonderful assumption of power, and, last of all, his miserable fall and sudden loss of initiative. Mrs. Oliphant gives us the whole story at length, with extracts from the narrative and translations of Petrarch's letters, yet Rienzi can hardly be called a maker of Rome; "lo buono Stato," which he so liberally promised, was of too short duration.

Our author has but little sense of proportion: the concluding section, "The Popes who made the City," brings us down to Leo X., passing over the pontificates of Innocent VIII. and Alexander VI. The text is throughout profusely illustrated with pen-drawings after photographs, by Mr. Joseph Pennell, who is capable of better work.

An Introductory Course in Japanese. By Clay MacCauley. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh. 1896.

As with the language of other peoples, that of the Japanese is a sensitive mirror of changes in the national life. The mutations of history, political, social, and industrial, are distinctively recorded in the growth of speech. In the literary development of Dai Nippon we have first the unwritten songs and poems, then the documents and annals, in which Chinese logograms are used, chiefly for their phonetic value. After three centuries or so of use of the cumbrous ideographs, we find that the imported speech has tinged the vernacular with plentiful synonyms and occasional idiom; while, for practical writing, there has grown up a body of nearly fifty phonetic and syllabic characters, abbreviated from as many Chinese ideographs. One might now suppose that, with a syllabary fairly adequate to express native thought, the wise men as well as mediocrity would fully employ it. In all the old world of Chinese influence, however, a reputation for learning was closely associated with things formal, mechanical, and visible. Originality or naturalness was not at a premium. The "face" of things was more important than reality; the raiment of thought was more than its body. Hence the learned Japanese clung to the Chinese writing and vocabulary, using what to common folk was as Latin or Greek among us. This for a thousand years has been the general attitude of most Japanese authors.

Fortunately, however, the women at court,

especially in the tenth and eleventh centuries, made use of both the *kana* or abbreviated script and of the pure vernacular. It is their works which have always been recognized as the standard of pure Japanese. Several mediæval stylists of the masculine gender actually saved their prose writings from oblivion by employing this "woman's way" of writing. After the political revolution of the twelfth century, when, through long degeneracy, monarchy gave way to duarchy and feudalism, the chasm between the written and spoken language widened. As soldiers and peasants constituted the vast majority in the war-scourged empire, the language of scholars became unintelligible, and the degradation of the colloquial went on. Under the Tokugawa regency, 1604–1868, literature (that is, the study of Chinese history and philosophy) revived. Out of the mental activity thus engendered grew up the Mito school of historians, the Genroku (1688–1703) novelists, and the Shintō investigators of the almost forgotten native classics. These writers produced the "Sinico-Japanese," that is, a written language which shows "a wholly successful incorporation of Chinese words into the Japanese sentence." In this modern standard written language Japanese structure and idiom control the Chinese words, which furnish vocabulary and meaning but take the native inflections, just, as in English, terms of classical or Oriental origin do with us. Even the enormous additions made to the language during the present Méiji era have been in word only, the Chinese being appropriated in its Chinese form and the European into writing as far as the sounds can be represented by means of the *kana* syllables. The most striking phenomenon in recent printed and written Japanese has been the increased use of the *kana* for the purpose of giving the uneducated the pronunciation and the meaning, or both, of the borrowed Chinese.

The change of greatest moment, however, is in speech, for in New Japan life is now worth living for every one. Everything is for the whole people—law, science, education, and literature. What was once the exclusive property of the nobles and gentry is now free to all. Hence, the colloquial speech is rising in dignity. The stately icebergs of the written forms bid fair to melt into the ocean of common speech, and the spoken and written language to become one. As in Tudor England the dialects of Kent and Surrey became dominant, and Latin fell out of use except to enrich the colloquial, so, in Dai Nippon, Chinese has fallen and the maturing Tokyo colloquial seems destined to be Japan's standard language of pen and tongue; and this, early in the twentieth century. The more active life with its pressing needs will compel the abolition of the complex ideographs, and *kana* will become the basis of the future medium of literary expression.

At such a time, our countryman, the Rev. Clay MacCauley, President of the Seushin Gakuin (School for Advanced Learning) in Tokyo, sends forth his book. Showing his faith by his works, he uses the *kana* script all the way through. After a general introduction, which presents briefly and brilliantly a history of the life of the Japanese language, he devotes nearly a hundred pages to the progressive mastery of writing and pronunciation. The *kata kana* or square character is easy enough for the beginner, for there is no variation of forms. The *hira-kana*, however, have many variances that bewilder and annoy. Instead of the hundreds of forms which it is possible to find in native books, Mr. MacCauley selects a standard half-hundred of unvarying forms. Nearly two hundred pages are devoted to the grammar, the author striking a golden mean between the elaborateness of Hoffman and the bald severity of Hepburn. Practice in the colloquial is furnished most admirably by selecting forty-eight out of hundreds of Japanese proverbs, and making the conversation turn on these verbal coinages—each "the wisdom of many and the wit of one." The stilted, unnatural, and useless verbiage found in ordinary phrase-books is thus avoided, and the student learns the mastery of real speech. The texts in *hira-kana* and Roman are printed on opposite pages, and a sufficiency of notes elucidate the syntax. There is a good index.

The author dedicates his work to his former preceptor, Prof. Charles Carroll Everett of Harvard Divinity School. He has evidently profited by the study of Whitney, for he brings to his work clearness of vision, penetration, and remarkable powers of simplification. Being somewhat familiar with the other aids to the acquisition of Japanese, we hazard little in pronouncing this the best manual for the beginner. It is natural, progressive, and simple. Its wonderful clearness comes from the author's thorough familiarity with the subject, and his happy knack of applying the latest achievements of science to his task. Both printing and proof-reading are excellent.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Boname, Louise C. Study and Practice of French in School. Parts 1., II. Philadelphia, 258 S. 16th St.: The Author.
Doudney, Sarah. A Vanished Hand. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.
Fredericq, Prof P. Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Hæreticæ Pravitatis Neerlandicæ. Part 2. Ghent: J. Vuylsteke.
Geary, Sir W. N. M. A Lawyer's Wife. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1 25.
Hardware Directory of South and Central America, the West Indies, and Canada. New York: Hardware Dealers' *Magazine*. $1.
Julleville, Prof. L. P. de. Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française des Origines à 1900. Tome I., Moyen Age. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Kenney, Herbert A. Fifty Luncheons. Edward Arnold.
Labiche and Martin. Moi: Comédie en Trois Actes. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
Millington, Rev. T. S. Ship Daphne: A Story of the City and the Sea. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Post, M. D. The Strange Schemes of Randolph Mason. Putnams. $1
Robert Whitaker McAll, Founder of the McAll Mission, Paris. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Shelburn, R. Our Humor. New York: Columbia Book Co. $1 50.
Southworth, Mrs E. D. E. N. The Mystery of Dark Hollow. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Werner, E. She Fell in Love with her Husband. Rand, McNally & Co.
Westall, W. Sons of Belial. Cassell. 50c.
White, E. E. A School Algebra. American Book Co. $1.

SEPTEMBER

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—Horace Mann, by William T. Harris; Democracy and Education, by Nicholas Murray Butler; The Educational Value of Examinations, by James Seth; The Study of English in American Colleges, by T. W. Hunt; Unity in College-Entrance History, by Lucy M. Salmon; History in the Common Schools, by Emily J. Rice.
DISCUSSIONS—The Separate School Question in Canadian Politics, S. R. Tarr; Growth of the Human Body, G. M. West; Entrance Requirements at the University of Michigan, F. N. Scott; The Notebook as Evidence of Preparation for College, E. A. Strong.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 10, 1896.

The Week.

THE honest people of Vermont have earned the hearty gratitude of the country, and the returns indicate that the credit is due in equal shares to Republicans and Democrats. There is not the slightest evidence that a single Republican voter deserted his party on the free-silver issue, and thousands of Republicans who would ordinarily not have voted must have determined that the present crisis demanded an unusual exertion. It is idle for the Bryan party to assert that no effort was made to influence the vote of Vermont for free silver. The Populist candidate for Governor, a man of considerable wealth, has for a number of months been actively engaged in distributing free-silver documents throughout the State. He owns a newspaper in which he has published the speeches of Teller and Tillman and Bryan and their like, and has proclaimed that this silver literature should be placed in the hands of every voter in Vermont. Speakers were engaged in behalf of the silver cause who went nearly everywhere in the State, and it was openly boasted that the farmers were thoroughly posted on the matter and would show it at the election; a boast which seems to have been quite justified by the event. It must not be forgotten that the Vermont farmers have suffered of recent years probably quite as much as those of the West. They have had almost to give away their sheep, their horses have been unsalable, their butter has never brought so little, their potatoes could not be sold last year for enough to pay their freight, and in Vermont if anywhere the promise of higher prices might have been expected to draw farmers to the silver cause. But when it came to getting higher prices by national dishonor, the Vermont farmers arose with righteous indignation and smote the enemy hip and thigh.

It is especially gratifying to see that fully 25 per cent. of the Democrats not only refused to support the candidate of their own party, but followed the advice of Mr. Phelps and voted the Republican ticket. It is of course impossible to prove this assertion positively, but it is quite incredible that there were 15,000 Republicans not usually voting who were drawn out on this occasion, and it is altogether reasonable to believe that at least 5,000 Democrats voted for maintaining the honor of the country. Considering the tenacity to party which has always characterized the Vermont Democrats, it seems probable that the Chicago platform and candidates will in some States not obtain half the regular Democratic vote.

The law which governs State elections in Arkansas is theoretically a good one. The Governor, Secretary of State, and Attorney-General, as a State election board, appoint three commissioners for each county, whose duty is to appoint three judges and two clerks for each voting precinct. The law provides that the county boards shall not be all of the same political party, and that the judges of election shall not be all of the same political party "when competent and discreet persons" can be found of the opposite party. But as a majority controls the action of the county board, the two Democratic Commissioners always appointed can use the provision regarding "competent and discreet persons" to rule out all but members of their own party, or to name as representatives of the Opposition ignorant or mercenary men. This is what has been done this year. The fact seems to be established that in a dozen counties where the Republican strength is greatest, the Democratic majority of the county election boards ignored the nomination of the Republican member of the board, and refused to appoint the man suggested by him in each precinct, and, instead, either appointed all the election officers from the Democratic party, or selected men claiming to be Republicans, but not regarded as such, or as being trustworthy, by the Republicans of the county. Of course there could be but one motive for such action. The Democratic managers proposed to make the count in these counties what they chose, without reference to the way the ballots were actually cast. Charges of gross fraud are already made, and there is no reason to doubt that such charges are well founded. Under these circumstances the size of the majority for the Democratic ticket (some 60,000) possesses absolutely no significance.

The quality and temper of the Indianapolis convention were alike remarkable. It is not too much to say that the delegates represented the intelligence and character of the Democratic party more fully than any regular convention of recent years has done. They were chosen because of their character, rather than selected because the machine decided to have them go. There were few of the regular Boys among them, and the usual Tammany contingent, which lowers the average of any body it sits in tremendously, was not present. The convention was made up entirely of men who were in it because their convictions took them there. They believed in definite principles so profoundly that they were willing to defy "party regularity" in order to maintain them. The vigor and force of their convictions were shown by the frankness with which they expressed their honest opinions of Mr. Bryan and the platform upon which he stands. The ticket presents a very striking contrast to that nominated at Chicago. Messrs. Palmer and Buckner come before the people weighted with years and honors. Both have shown in military and civil life qualities which have commanded the respect and admiration of their fellow-men. They have been tried and found worthy in various fields of public service. Senator Palmer was a brave and distinguished Union soldier in the civil war; was afterwards Republican Governor of Illinois, and in more recent years has been a Democratic Senator from the same State. He was a Democrat before the war, and, after a few years of association with the Republicans during and after the war, returned to his former political affiliations because he could not approve Republican tendency toward federal centralization. In all positions he has shown the same qualities of unswerving devotion to principle, of clear and strong intelligence, and of genuine patriotism. Gen. Buckner's career has shown like qualities. He was a brave Confederate soldier, and has served in recent years as Governor of Kentucky. He was in retirement when his party in Kentucky became infatuated with the silver craze, and immediately took the field in opposition to it. No man has ever questioned his courage or his honesty, and, like Senator Palmer, he has shown, in every position which he has held, those abilities and attributes which command the respect and confidence of men.

How can any Democrat of intelligence and character hesitate for a moment between these two representatives of all that is best and worthy in their party and Bryan and Watson or Bryan and Sewall? Bryan is a harum-scarum young man of thirty-six who has been in several professions, making no mark in any, and leaving behind him in all no impression of either strong ability or steadfast character. He is something of a lawyer, a little of a journalist, and more of a politician than either. His speeches leave no doubt in any trained mind that he is only a half-educated man. He is worse than untried, for he has been tried and found wanting. He is going about the country pouring forth at every railway station silly and ignorant talk about finance, currency, government, syndicates, railways, bankers, and property-owners. All that is stable in the country, all that has tended to its development as a civilized state, he denounces and promises as President to overturn and destroy. His associate on the ticket who will be most generally supported with him is Tom Watson, a roaring, ignorant demagogue who is totally unfit for any public office, and whose

nomination would have been possible in no national convention except one which represented the discontent and ignorance of the land. That any self-respecting Democrat should under any conditions persuade himself that he could vote for such a party ticket as this, when a really admirable one is in the field for his support, passes comprehension.

The importance of putting a check to the extravagance of Congress, as recommended by the Indianapolis platform, is very well shown by a recent publication of the Treasury Bureau of Statistics. In this publication, the receipts, expenditures, and debt of the United States, from 1789 to 1896, are exhibited, together with the annual appropriations from 1873 to the present time. One of the diagrams shows that the net expenditures of the Government declined pretty steadily from 1868 to 1878, and rose gradually again until they were in 1888 about what they were in 1867. By 1893 they had increased nearly 75 per cent., and have since declined very little. The pensions are responsible for a large part of this, but the new navy and "miscellaneous" appropriations have had much to do with it. Another diagram shows in a startling way the increase of appropriations per capita. In 1885 they amounted to about $2.50 per head, while in 1892 the average had risen to $5.20. By examining the diagram showing the receipts of the Government, we see that the increase of these receipts has had the effect of stimulating the appropriations of Congress after a short time; the enlarged appropriations generally beginning at about the time when the revenue began to fall off. During the earlier years of the century the total gross expenditures varied to a surprising extent. From 1840 to 1846 they hardly rose above $30,000,000, but in 1847 and 1848 (during the Mexican war) they were $60,000,000, falling below $50,000,000 in 1850-'52. In 1854 they were $75,000,000, and but $77,000,000 in 1860. In 1865 they reached the enormous figure of $1,906,000,000, and since 1868 they have averaged roughly about ten times what they were before the war. These gross expenditures are swollen, of course, by payments of the interest and principal of the public debt, but the net expenditures are approximately double what they were twenty years ago. Considering what we have suffered in the way of pernicious legislation, our Congress is a pretty expensive body to maintain.

The *Tribune* announces that "a heavy deficit in August confronts the party which has reduced the tariff," and asserts "that it is absolutely necessary to raise more revenue," and that the only way it can be raised is either a "heavier tax on beer or different duties on imports." The answer is that it is unlikely that any change in the tariff can be made for at least a year, and that it is unlikely that any change can be made even in a year, so long as the Senate is composed as at present. To get a new or changed tariff now through the Senate, both the Republican party and Mr. McKinley would have to violate their vows not "to do something for silver." That is, they would have "to do something for silver," and that something would have to be something that would hinder or prevent the maintenance of the gold standard. The Senate would not be content with anything less. Consequently all discussion of the tariff in the present canvass is not simply confusing to the public, but futile. The one topic is now and has been from the beginning the currency. Supposing, however, the question of revenue to be an important one, no discussion of revenue in the case of a nation any more than of an individual, is proper without discussion also of expenditure. No honest man ever thinks of asking, "How much money do I need?" without also asking, "How much money must I spend?" The same thing is true of a nation. Every country possessed of respectable and orderly finance always links income and expenditure. It bases expenditure, as every prudent man does, on income. Our last two Congresses have started on a course unknown since the establishment of constitutional government. They have voted expenditures without any reference to income. The last river and harbor appropriation was even voted out of an empty treasury. In other words, they have wilfully made deficits, just like any careless young spendthrift. So that to expect us to cast about for increased sources of income without ever asking whether an expenditure is not too great —that is, whether we cannot make ends meet by reducing our expenses—is a little too much. All, or nearly all, our difficulties are due to reckless outlay, indulged in during the past few years for the sole purpose of making a high tariff seem necessary. This is not the time to go again over this sorrowful tale.

The "yardstick argument" used by Mr. Bryan in one of his speeches in Ohio discloses in a way that is almost startling the confusion that prevails in his mind concerning the most elementary principles of monetary science. He said, in reply to the argument that it was impossible to have two yardsticks of different lengths or two dollars of different values, that there was no analogy between the cases. To make the comparison perfect, he said, it would be necessary to have a yardstick made out of some material that would grow longer or shorter under varying conditions. But that, Mr. Bryan very correctly observed, would be a very bad kind of a yardstick. It would lead to incessant quarrelling over the standard of measure. The man who was buying would insist on using the long yardstick, and the man who was selling would want the short yardstick, and instead of trading they would come to blows. The most obvious inference from these premises is certainly that a varying dollar would be worse than a varying yardstick. Whenever there has been any doubt as to the value of money, the very evils described by Mr Bryan have always taken place. The financial history of every people is largely made up of the record of the disputes and mischiefs that have arisen from the use of money that had been tampered with, in one way and another, by the Government. But the inference that Mr. Bryan drew was that the amount of money should be fixed by legislation. According to his theory, "the toiling masses who produce the wealth of the nation" would adopt legislation in favor of "a dollar that will keep pace with property." The experiment has been often tried, generally with the claim that the toiling masses wanted it, but the dollar never seems to keep pace well when legislators take it in hand. They can produce a varying "legal-tender," but they cannot make gold change its place in the estimation of men.

One cannot read Mr. Schurz's masterly speech at Chicago on Saturday evening without recalling the old simile of "using dynamite to split a pumpkin," for surely never before was such power and lucidity of statement, such weight of argument, such patient marshalling of facts brought to bear upon so weak a subject as Mr. Bryan. All his ignorant and silly assertions are exposed and refuted with such care and thoroughness that one marvels at the orator's patience in continuing his task to the end. In fact, the most extraordinary feature of the present campaign is the amount of time and energy that all the forces of intelligence and civilization are called upon to devote to the elucidation of rudimentary truths and principles which ought to be taught in every schoolroom. Mr. Bryan and his disciples have turned the whole country into a primary school, and made it necessary for all of us to go into the business of teaching the multiplication table and other elementary courses of instruction to 70,000,000 of people. Mr. Schurz puts the case well in the following passage:

"However, the ultimate result is not at all uncertain. After a period of infinite confusion, disaster, humiliation, suffering, and misery the American people will at last regain sanity of mind and arrive again at some very simple conclusions: That, if you call a peck a bushel, you will have more bushels, but not more grain; if you call a foot a yard, you will have more yards, but not more cloth; if you call a square rod an acre, you will have more acres, but not more land; and if you call 50 cents, or 1 cent, or a bit of paper a dollar, you will have more dollars, but not more wealth—indeed, a great deal less chance of wealth, for you will have far less credit, because far less honesty. We shall then have learned again that the wit of man cannot—although insanity tries very hard—invent an economic system under which everything you have to sell will be dear and everything you have to buy will be cheap. And having got

hold of these very simple truths, the American people will then in sackcloth and ashes repent of this insane free-coinage debauch."

Mr. David A. Wells contributes to the literature of the campaign, through the *Tribune* of Monday, a remarkably forcible demonstration of the real causes of the fall in prices which the silver advocates attribute to the demonetization of silver in 1873, and to the consequent "appreciation in the value of gold." In the matter of this appreciation we venture to hope that Mr. Wells has made so thorough work now that further refutation will be unnecessary. His demonstration shows that, so far as actual proof is concerned, there has been a depreciation rather than an appreciation during the past twenty years. Mr. Wells makes equally clean work of the other branches of the subject, such as the real causes of the fall in prices, and Senator Jones's real reasons for being a silver advocate; and he disposes of the voluble President of Brown University in this neat manner:

"The fact of it is that the world is confronted with the most remarkable phenomenen that has ever characterized its civilization, and has not yet fully recognized its importance (the least so, apparently, in the United States)—a phenomenon sequential and in harmony with the assertion recently made by the eminent French chemist and economist, M. Berthelot, in an address before an association of European scientiste, that practically more has been done for the development of man during the last three quarters of a century than during the preceding 6,000 years. President Andrews of Brown University, who regards free coinage in the light of a panacea for all evils, has caught glimpses of the situation when he expresses the opinion that 'the money question at the present time is the greatest question of civilization.' But he had not sense enough to distinguish an effect from a cause, and so takes rank with an untutored Indian who connects the death of his chief with an eclipse of the moon."

Some of the results of upsetting the standard of value are indicated by the position taken by the leading shipbuilders of the country concerning their bids for constructing new vessels for the navy. It is reported that they have asked the department to postpone the bidding until after the November election, which request has been refused on the ground that the advertisements for proposals had already appeared. Disappointed in this, the shipbuilders now talk of stipulating for gold payments in their contracts; but they can hardly believe that Mr. Bryan's Secretary of the Navy will carry out any contracts of that description, even if their legality were certain. The shipbuilders have contracts already on hand the completion of which will require years, and they are naturally nervous at the possibility of inflated prices for materials. Of course there is but one thing to do if they are going to bid at all on these contracts, and that is to put their prices high enough to secure a profit if we come down to a silver basis. Then if we do they cannot lose; while if we maintain the gold standard, they will gain enormously. This is but a repetition of what took place when the Government began to issue fiat money during the war. It raised prices against itself prodigiously, and ran into debt a thousand millions more than it needed because it had hurt its own credit. All these bills, of course, are eventually paid by the poor and ignorant people whom Mr. Bryan is trying to persuade to look for prosperity in the ruin of their employers.

The parliamentary committee of the Trades Union Congress, which began its sessions in Edinburgh on Monday, "blames" the Tories for not having passed a single measure "in the interest of labor," and for even preventing private members of Parliament from promoting such measures. This seems to be a shaft aimed at Mr. Chamberlain's bosom, as he was the man most lavish in promises of what he and Salisbury were going to do for the workingmen. But the latter should consider how many things Mr. Chamberlain has had to occupy him in the process of developing England's "colonial estate." The first thing he did was to stir up an exceedingly bad neighbor in the person of old Krüger, who looked angrily over the hedge and said that this developing of estates was all mighty fine, but that developing of other people's estates was one of the things he proposed to draw the line at. Then the worried Colonial Secretary had to devote himself to his grand scheme for an imperial zollverein, in order to see it condemned by the best financial authorities at home, and coolly received or openly flouted by the colonies themselves. How could a man with these great problems on his hands be expected to remember all he had said about old-age pensions and workingmen's insurance? Both he and Mr. Balfour now say they are going to do better after the grouse-shooting is over. But the trades-unionists are evidently sceptical about this. On the other hand, they doubt if it is "prudent" for them to have anything more to do with international socialist congresses, after the lamentable exhibition given by the last one in London. Cut off thus from both parliamentary action and radical agitation, the gloomy prospect is before the trades-unions of being compelled to discuss prosaic matters such as work and wages and coöperation and fraternal societies and the improvement of the morale and discipline of workingmen. The other is much more ideal and enlivening, but this is, after all, the way to fill the pocket and the stomach.

The Royal Commission of thirteen, which has been sitting for three years on the subject of Irish taxation, has made its report. The Commission is composed mainly of Englishmen, and contains such men as Lord Farrer. It has reported, by ten out of the thirteen, that England has regularly been taking from Ireland each year for fifty years about $13,750,000 more than her due proportion through a government carried on for most of the time by Englishmen, hostile to or ignorant of the country. The question what is now to be done is the hardest Irish nut Parliament has to crack, far harder than any produced by O'Connell or Parnell. It shows that England owes Ireland £100,000,000 sterling. What is to be done? Pay the debt or ignore it?

The returns of the census recently taken in France show that the hope that was aroused a few years ago that the decline of the birth-rate had been arrested is not likely to be realized. It was reasoned that the destruction of men in the prime of life at the time of the war with Prussia was still showing its effects, and that in a few years the operation of this cause would cease. But there is no indication of anything more than an insignificant growth in population, and, what is especially grievous, the increase due to immigration forms a large part of this. The French newspapers are now embarrassed with the problem of providing colonists for their colonies. They have plenty of colonies, which cost a great deal of money and the lives of many soldiers, but if Frenchmen will not multiply sufficiently to keep up the population at home, it is certainly a doubtful policy to encourage them to go abroad. If they emigrated from France, their places would undoubtedly be filled by Italians and Germans and Belgians, so that the condition of the population would be more unsatisfactory than ever. As a correspondent points out, the usual speculations as to the cause of the growing sterility of the French race are indulged in by the European journals, but they seem to attach insufficient importance to the frightful burden of governmental expenditure. The debt of France has grown by leaps and bounds, and, in spite of some feeble efforts to check extravagance, every year shows a large deficit in the budget. New taxes are continually devised, inheritance taxes, income taxes, and Government monopolies, the effect of which can only be to increase the revenue of the Government by diminishing that of its subjects. But it is notorious that no people in the world is so anxious to provide well for its children as the French, and if the share of the tax-gatherer in all earnings is continually increased, the share of posterity must be diminished. We venture to say that, if the truth could be got at, the French parent reasons that if he cannot leave property enough to provide comfortably for three children, he will not leave three children to be provided for. There have been many instances in history where population has declined under the pressure of taxation, and there is no reason why France should be an exception.

THE PLATFORM OF THE GOLD DEMOCRATS.

Not since the two Republican platforms of 1856 and 1860 has there been any party deliverance so businesslike and so free from claptrap as that adopted by the gold Democrats on Thursday in Indianapolis. We do not recall any platform which contains in so succinct a form a description of the American government and a statement of the principles of sound currency. In both these particulars it is superior to that of the Republicans; but we must remember how times have changed since the Republican platform was drawn. Politicians, although they loudly demand trust in the people, rarely do trust them. It now appears pretty plain that the Republicans so late as June had but small knowledge, if any, of what was passing in the mind of the public. The candidate was thinking of nothing but protection, and was afraid not only to declare openly for a gold standard, but to use the word "gold." The result was that the platform fell a good deal behind popular sentiment in clearness and directness and emphasis.

This cannot be said of the Indianapolis platform. The gold Democrats have found within a few weeks that they cannot call too loudly for the gold standard as the standard of the civilized world, in order to satisfy the public. There is no compromise or placating in their attitude. They do not bargain; they proclaim. Their utterances, too, on the tariff, on the condition of our shipping, on the extravagant expenditures of Congress, on civil-service reform and currency reform, on international arbitration, and on the Supreme Court, are fully up to the latest modern thought on these subjects. Possibly, it may be said, we should not have obtained from them so clear and excellent a statement of their views if they had expected to win; but we must nevertheless thank them for the credit and honor they have done to American politics, by laying before the world the best thought of rational Americans on the great questions of national polity. At this crisis, when so much nonsense is talked and written by people who pretend to represent us in the eyes of foreigners, it is a great thing to have the common sense of America produced in plain prose.

The platform denounces

> "the further maintenance of the present costly patchwork system of national paper currency as a constant source of injury and peril, and asserts the necessity of such intelligent currency reform as will confine the Government to its legitimate functions completely separated from the banking business, and afford to all sections of our country a uniform, safe, and elastic banking currency under Government supervision, measured in volume by the needs of business."

This year is the first time any political party has been called on for a plan of positive financial reform, and the great defect of the Republican platform is that it failed to meet this demand—a fact which was pointed out by the London *Economist* at the time of its promulgation. The United States is to-day in the position of a rich man whose affairs have fallen into disorder, partly through his extravagance and partly through bad management, but whose resources are still large, and who has called a meeting of his creditors. Now, if he were to tell them simply that he was determined to keep his credit as untarnished as his honor, that he came of honorable ancestors, and was an honorable man himself, and that if his word was not as good as his bond, he was going to find out the reason why, and said not one word about the ways and means by which he expected to pay his debts, about the amount of his assets, or the way in which he meant to turn them to account, would they not conclude that he was either crazy or meant to fool them? They certainly would. We are making to-day tremendous exertions to assure the world, through every organ we have, that our credit is good and our financial integrity undiminished, but neither the Republican party nor the Bryan party has submitted any plan of reform.

The Republicans have said they are going to keep our honor untarnished by an increased duty on foreign imports, but the last time they tried this they were overwhelmingly defeated at the polls. The Bryanites say they are going to do it by adulterating the coinage and scaling public and private debts. We all say we are going to maintain our existing currency at par in gold, cost what it may. But what the world wants to know is exactly, not in terms of politics, but in terms of business, how we are going to do it. Is it by quarterly loans, or by withdrawing the silver and greenbacks? In short, what the world is waiting for from us, is what is called a "business statement" of our affairs and expectations.

We must be thankful to the Democrats, therefore, for having called for the withdrawal of the greenbacks and the establishment of an elastic banking system, as party doctrine, something for people to vote on and support. This is what the situation demands. It is with this the next Congress should occupy itself first of all. Its chief business should be to place our financial system on a basis of facts and not on a basis of windy rhetoric. The difficulties of this we do not underrate. In every other civilized country, when the Government gets into financial difficulties, it calls into council the leading bankers, exchange brokers, and other men of the country whose business it is to deal with money and maintain credit. They are the experts of the money market. The Minister of Finance asks their advice whether he had better borrow, or tax, or establish institutions of credit, and he takes it just as a man in financial trouble takes the advice of his lawyers or brokers. We, on the contrary, take the opinion of the long-haired men, the shady politicians, the blathering orators, and of nearly every one we can hear of who knows nothing about money or its functions, and who has himself failed in life, and we load the bankers and exchange brokers with abuse. We use the suggestions of the bankers as lists of things which we must on no account do or even talk about. The long-haired men, in fact, recently frightened us so much that we were afraid to say "gold," like naughty children who had been caught cursing.

If we are to get back to civilized finance, this must cease. Money and exchange, and banking and credit, though not mysteries, are among the numerous complications of the wonderful modern world, and those whose business it is to deal with them daily are experts like any others, whose knowledge and experience are of supreme value. The way we have been in the habit of treating them of late years is a characteristic of barbarous communities like Paraguay or Somaliland. Civilized finance cannot be carried on and the credit of a civilized commercial nation be maintained by the first comer. There is little use in supposing that we can get out of our financial slough by consulting Populist farmers, or broken-down politicians, or "boy orators."

DENIS KEARNEY AND W. J. BRYAN.

THE people of the East have been listening of late to a voluble young demagogue from the West, who came to preach a war of classes, and to tell the masses that they are threatened with ruin by good money, since "money," according to this new financial authority, "may be too good" for the poor man. It has been a somewhat surprising experience for the people dwelling east of the Alleghanies, numbering as they do nearly one-third of all the people in the republic, to learn that they live in what a candidate for the Presidency considers "the enemy's country," and to be told that they are engaged in a conspiracy to defraud the other two-thirds.

But we are not this year for the first time hearing a Western demagogue denounce Eastern people who have accumulated any money as public enemies, and prophesy the ruin of the masses if the policy of the Government shall keep all of its currency always as good as gold. Nearly twenty years ago, before specie payments had been resumed, and while the success of that experiment remained to be proved, there came across the continent another demagogue with a mission to those oppressed by the despotism of gold. In the summer of 1878 the ears of Eastern people were assailed with the loud cries of an orator from the Golden Gate, and Denis Kearney appeared in our cities as the rescuer of the down-trodden masses.

A fellow-feeling had irresistibly attracted this demagogue of the San Francisco Sand Lots to the champion dema-

gogue on the Atlantic Coast, and Kearney made his way straight to Gen. Benjamin F. Butler, with whom he held sweet converse in the interest of suffering humanity. The memory of that trip has grown somewhat dim in the minds of men who lived through the period of a depreciated currency, and hundreds of thousands will vote for President next November who were hardly more than babies then. It is well, therefore, to recall some of Kearney's speeches in 1878, and to show how perfect a prototype he then was of the William J. Bryan of 1896.

Kearney reached Boston on the 28th of July, and began speaking as soon as he had left the train. He informed his "fellow-workingmen of Boston" that he brought "glad tidings," having "left the plains of California strewn with the festering carcasses of public plunderers." He declared that his "simple mission was to address the horny-handed sons of toil," and that he had "proclaimed from the inception of this movement death to the machine politicians, death to the thieving capitalists, and death upon death to the murdering, plundering land-pirates." Of course Kearney was bitter against the press. He took occasion to "thank God that I am not a man who was made by the newspapers," and announced that he "despised the corrupt, monopoly-fostering press of the United States." He denounced the "murdering monopolists, who are day by day grinding the workingmen in the East," but comforted the miserable victims by the assurance that "we propose to ameliorate the condition of the laboring men."

On the 5th of August Kearney spoke in Faneuil Hall, and there was "one of the largest gatherings ever held within and around its walls." The Sand Lots orator had met Butler in the presence of a reporter, who furnished the press a verbatim report of the conference between these two unselfish men upon the best means of righting the wrongs of the masses, and Kearney opened his address in the old cradle of liberty by "bringing a message of greeting and love to the man who is lesser than *Macbeth*, yet greater—to that fiery and incomparable Rupert of debate, to that chivalrous and white-plumed Navarre of the rostrum—gallant, gifted, glorious Butler," who, he hoped, would "receive the reward from the workingmen of Massachusetts he so justly merits for his bold and outspoken action in behalf of downtrodden humanity." At this point, the report reads, Kearney "took off his coat and loosened his cravat." Being thus ready for business, he proceeded in this strain:

"What means this outpouring of people? What means this grand tidal wave? What is the matter with the country, that the workingmen are arising from North to South, from West to East? To do what? To take charge of their own affairs. This vast uprising of the people—what does it mean? Does it not mean death to the railroad robber and the lecherous, thieving bondholder? And does it not mean political oblivion to the rancorous, villanous political bummer?"

Kearney "paid his respects to the press" at length in his usual strain, and concluded as follows:

"I hope you will profit by my advice, which is to pool all your issues—put all your issues into one pot—and next November you will be able to announce victory for the honest workingmen of Massachusetts. Drop all other issues, and get together for bread and butter. All in favor of pooling issues hold up their hands. [All hands were raised.] All opposed. [No sign.] Now I hope no one will state to-morrow that this was not a unanimous meeting—unanimous to fight for a common cause."

On the 12th of August Kearney visited Lynn, Mass., and spoke on the Common to a crowd of about 12,000 persons. "If you take care of your issues," he said to the workingmen, "Massachusetts will be all afire inside of a month. Of course, I don't mean practically, but afire with the love and welfare of the workingman. Workingmen are going to put their soldiers on duty, and simply elect the men they want to live under in Massachusetts. Make all the necessary preparations for entering the White House in 1880."

Of course Kearney was "down" on gold, and in love with the depreciated greenback currency then in use. Equally of course, he was bitterly opposed to the idea of resuming specie payments in 1879, as then proposed by existing law, and perfectly sure that the carrying out of the policy would mean ruin to the masses. He discussed this subject in his New York speech on the 6th of September, delivered in Union Square. He began by declaring that "this is a movement of the American people—a second uprising of the people who have recorded an oath in heaven that they will be free," and that "the question is now in the coming fight between honest men and thieves." He proceeded to commend the Greenback party, and then drew this contrast between gold and greenbacks:

"In our recent trouble, when the American Republic was in danger, what became of gold? What became of the gold of the country in the times of war? Oh, it lowered its cowardly head. Greenbacks were called into requisition, and now why discard greenbacks in times of peace? If they were brave enough to protect you in times of war, why discard them, I ask, in times of peace? Be honest, American workmen! Let me give you a fair estimate of what Shylock wants. The thieving bloodsuckers of labor, who ride in tally-ho coaches, who spend their time in foreign countries, who spend their time and money outside of America, living off the sweat of American labor—when you issue greenbacks you cut off that great army of bloodsuckers at one fell swoop.

"One hundred and thirty-six million dollars is all the money we have got to redeem the greenbacks with. We are supposed to redeem $346,000,000 of greenbacks by $136,000,000 in gold. Then when these Shylocks call upon the Government—and let me tell you that they will use the law and strain the law to get what they want every time—then of course up goes the gold; the gold rushes up to double its present value, and Shylock will declare the American Republic bankrupt if he wants to. This is a business proposition, and I don't propose to discuss that question any further, as every schoolboy knows just as well as I do that resumption means bankruptcy."

The Western demagogue of 1878 was more violent and vulgar in his language than the Western demagogue of 1896, though Bryan is steadily sinking in this respect when he gets to talking about the Creator's not using better mud to make the financier than the laboring man. But in the attempt to array one class against another, in the denunciation of those who have property, in the condemnation of the gold standard, in the praise of cheap money, Denis Kearney was the forerunner of William J. Bryan.

EX-POST-FACTO JUSTICE.

Not many ages ago it was common to inflict torture and confiscation of goods in the cause of religion, and the Reign of Terror in France showed the world what could be perpetrated in the name of liberty. Religion no longer arouses the passions that it once excited, and the abolition of class privileges has lessened the force of appeals to liberty; but the spirit that caused these former cruelties is not extinct, and as it requires some sacred name with which to attract supporters, it has of late taken to invoking justice. Every revolutionary proposal, every attack on property, is supported by the claim that the present social order is unjust, and we are now face to face with a scheme of general confiscation under the guise of a measure of justice to the poor in general and to the oppressed debtor in particular.

The peculiarity of the present outcry is that it is directed against creatures of the imagination. A hideous conspiracy is declared to be in existence, and to have been for a whole generation in existence, but no one ever thinks of naming the conspirators, or of offering anything in the nature of evidence as to who they are or were. Mr. Bryan takes the safe course of declaring that the gold standard is a conspiracy in and of itself—a proposition that is outside the field of logic, either to prove or disprove. Senator Stewart of Nevada drivels about "the crime of 1873," meaning an act of Congress for which he and nearly every one else voted, and which merely recognized the fact that silver dollars had formed no part of our currency for many years. But neither Senator Stewart nor any of that ilk names the criminals engaged in this act, or proposes to punish them for their misdeeds. What he and they all agree upon is that the crime itself must be punished in the name of justice, and they propose to inflict punishment upon millions of their fellow-citizens who can by no possible perversion of facts be shown to have participated in any conspiracy of crime whatever. Their zeal is only surpassed by that of Philip II. of Spain, whose enthusiasm for religion was so consuming that in an access of fervor he sentenced the entire population of the Low Countries to death on account of the existence of heresy among them.

This extraordinary theory of justice has been explicitly maintained by Mr. Bryan. In his celebrated speech at the Chicago convention he declared that "we, the people," could change the monetary system without protecting those who had loaned money before the change was made. Creditors were entitled to no protection now, because the act of 1873 did not protect debtors. It is not important for our present contention to remark that this proposition is false. Mr. Bryan knows as well as any one that when the law of 1873 was passed, the gold dollar was cheaper than the silver dollar, and that the act was in so far a "protection" of debtors and not of creditors. He knows perfectly well that the internal business of the country was then done on a paper-money basis, and that the laws making irredeemable paper legal tender for debts were laws for the "protection" of debtors to an enormous extent. He knows that not one contract in ten million in 1873 was payable in silver, and that every contract payable in dollars was payable in depreciated paper money. He knows that it was five years after 1873 before contracts to pay dollars came to mean payment in gold or its equivalent, and that not one contract in a thousand of those in existence in 1879 had been in existence in 1873. He knows that the debts of 1873 have long since been extinguished, that the debtors and creditors of that day are for the most part dead, or have closed their business lives. He knows that the debts that are now existing have been contracted with full knowledge that the money borrowed was as good as gold, and was to be repaid in money as good as was borrowed. He knows that creditors have accepted lower and lower rates of interest, and that debtors with a reputation for honesty could borrow on terms so favorable as to more than counterbalance any real or fancied appreciation of gold. He has sat in Congress and has heard all these truths fully and clearly presented, and he now goes about the country proclaiming what he knows to be false.

All this, however, is beside the point that we set ourselves to discuss. That point is the conception of justice as requiring the infliction of suffering on the innocent because, some time in the past, a measure of legislation did not "protect" debtors. We may grant that the act of 1873 was a blunder or a crime; that it was passed by a conspiracy of bankers; that it was fraudulent in its conception and corrupt in its consummation; but how does that affect the question of the justice of free coinage now and to-day? If any perpetrators of the crime were known, they might have been punished. But none were known. If any sufferers from the crime had claims to present, they could have been indemnified. No claims were presented. Debtors and creditors affected by the act, if any were affected, have long since squared their accounts. If silver were now coined freely, no one that profited by its former demonetization would be injured, none that was injured would be profited. Those whose mortgages were foreclosed would not get their lands back again; those who foreclosed the mortgages would keep their gains. It is the men and women who are now active and who are to be active in the coming years that would be affected; and yet their rights are to be sacrificed for the sake of taking vengeance on an abstraction—of executing justice, not on criminals, for they are not to be found, but upon the "plain people" who are so unfortunate as to live under a government which enacted an obnoxious law in the time of their fathers. Whether we may reverently conceive the Almighty as visiting the sins of the fathers upon their children we need not here ask; but we have no disposition to allow the members of the Chicago convention and its nominee to exact this form of vicarious sacrifice. Mr. Bryan is fond of referring to that great and stirring epoch when our forefathers asserted their independence. Do the American people need to be reminded that independence was demanded because of ex-post-facto laws, and that the theory of ex-post-facto justice was denounced and repudiated by the great statesmen of the Revolution in the Constitution which they framed for the protection of coming generations against the wicked schemes of future demagogues?

A STRIKING ILLUSTRATION.

WHAT might happen here during a "craze," supposing we had no constitution and were completely at the mercy of a Croker or Platt or Bryan legislature, has, happily for the whole world, been abundantly made manifest in Australia during the last seven years, where unchecked Bryanism has been rampant. The "workingman's party" has there been in complete possession of the Government, without other restraint than the Queen's veto, which is rarely used about internal affairs. It is not possible to go over the whole ground at once, but we may recur to the subject. M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu has made a study of the matter during a residence in Australasia, and has published the result in an interesting article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Confining ourselves to what he says about New Zealand, we find his account of the land tenure most instructive. The Government of New Zealand has taken possession of the land on the Henry George plan, and for the most part let it out on various terms and conditions to the occupants, though it sells to some extent. This right to sell in fee simple is seriously modified by an act, passed in 1894, which gives the State a right to buy anybody out who has more than 200 acres of arable land, 400 acres of half arable, half pasture land, or 1,000 acres of pasture, for a price to be fixed by a special commission, if the owner does not accept what the State offers him. The object of this is, of course, to increase the number of small holdings.

To do this more effectively the plan of "Village Settlements" was devised in 1893. Each "Settlement" or association has to contain at least twenty persons, to which the Government allots about 130 acres, and advances $250 for each member, to be repaid in instalments, with interest at 5 per cent., within ten years. The Settlement is governed by a Board of Trustees, and each individual is to have as much and what land is assigned to him by this board, and can acquire none other. Any one, male or female, except an Asiatic, can become a member, but as a rule women have not been admitted. The Board is supreme in the matter of admission and expulsion, and may expel for "insubordination," "disobedience to the rules," or "absence without leave." An expelled person can appeal to the "General Assembly," which decides by simple majority. In case of expulsion, resignation, or death, the owner's property reverts to the association, so that he cannot make a will, but the trustees may, in their discretion, provide for his widow or family.

The powers of these trustees are settled in twenty articles. They conduct the relations of the Settlement with the Government; they direct the cultivation of the land and the erection of buildings. They decide what industries shall be established, and pass on all purchases and distributions made for the community, and decide what is necessary for the maintenance of the members. They direct and superintend the labor of the members and fix the length of the day's work. They distribute coupons in exchange for produce brought to the magazines. They watch over the public health and the maintenance of good order and discipline. They can fine to the amount of $50, and can increase a member's hours of labor, or cut down his allowance at the store, as punishment for breach of the rules. They appoint and dismiss all officers and fix their salaries. The Settler is bound to be obedient and respectful to the trustees, and to reside on the land allotted to him except when away on leave of absence; but he is entitled to a fortnight of vacation each year. He must undertake no labor outside, and neither buy nor sell without the permission of the trustees. He owns his furniture, clothes, and cooking utensils, but all tools or instruments of production belong to the association. The Villages were, it will be seen, a sort of slavery, of the semi-military kind, which all socialistic organisations must be.

Well, how did the plan succeed? A parliamentary inquiry instituted in 1895 told the whole story. Of thirteen Settlements that were started, all but one had in eighteen months exhausted their allow-

ance from the state and were clamoring for more. They were also heavily in debt; the most heavily indebted owed $650 per head. All except three said they could not go on without more advances from the state. In some, land had remained uncultivated, because the members could not agree as to the crop to be planted. A great variety of unsuccessful experiments had been made to "placate" cliques or individuals. The standard of living fixed by the Board was very low. The day's work—seven hours and a half—was too short for farming. The women were not admitted to deliberations. One village had four presidents in fifteen months. A trustee rarely served out his term, owing to little risings against him on account of unpopularity. Fights and riots were frequent and unpunished. A trustee who was "pounded" while at work in the field said he could not get redress, because it was a trustee who had done it and all the other trustees were on his side, and he believed they might commit murder with impunity. He also testified that a Settler having been assaulted, and one of his limbs broken, the trustees decreed his expulsion, but the General Assembly, on being appealed to, refused to sanction it. In another village, thefts were numerous, and thieves were arrested but not punished. One witness declared that when he joined he was a great supporter of "land for the people"; but, after what he had seen, he was in favor of "land for himself." The government was, in fact, very much what the government of Tammany would be if it had unchecked sway anywhere. They are still trying these experiments in Australia, and the way they propose to remedy the decided failures is, as might be expected, to increase the advances from the state. In fact, if one wants to see Populism, Bryanism, Tillmanism, Crokerism, and Plattism in full sway, one ought to go to Australia.

The cause of this wretched blundering is plain enough. All successful governments, if they are not to depend on pure force—that is, to be simple slavery—must be founded on principles of human nature and on human experience. That is, in establishing them we have to consider what man as we know him, men like ourselves, are likely to do under such and such conditions, and to read what man has done under such and such other conditions. We have, in short, to examine our own hearts and read history. But Popocrats and Bryanites refuse to do anything of the kind. What they insist on is, that when a few long-haired men tell us they "know," or "contend," or "feel," or "believe," or "predict" something, we are to take their word for Gospel, and upset everything which the race in ten thousand years has hit upon and practised as most conducive to its happiness.

ENGLAND: THE GOVERNMENT AND THE SESSION.

LONDON, August 24, 1896.

THE history of the session which has just closed has been surprising and instructive, and may have some interest for American readers even in the midst of their far more exciting struggles. At its beginning everything augured well for the Government. They were supported by a majority in the House of Commons far larger than any since 1833, a majority of 152. They had a cabinet no doubt inconveniently large, but one which contained such able and experienced administrators as Lord Salisbury, the Duke of Devonshire, Mr. Goschen, and Sir M. Hicks-Beach, and two effective debaters in Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Arthur Balfour. They had not only a small British Opposition to confront them, but an Irish Opposition divided into three mutually hostile factions—an advantage of immense value. The country was not anxious for much legislation, having been rather alarmed by the number and gravity of the measures which the preceding ministry had put forward, and would have been well content had the new Government given it a prudent and business-like administration of foreign and domestic affairs. The session, however, has proved a disappointing one to the dominant party; and the Government emerge from it seriously discredited, if not substantially weakened. They have been forced to drop their principal measure, the Education bill. They have carried only two measures of magnitude, the Agricultural Rating bill, which has disgusted many of their supporters in the boroughs, who look on it as a plundering of the urban taxpayer for the benefit of the rural ratepayers (*rate* is the term used in England for a local tax), and the Irish Land bill, which has offended many among the landlord party, without satisfying the Tory tenant farmers in the north of Ireland. Many of the other promises made in the Queen's speech and still more of the promises made at the last general election remain unfulfilled. Some of those promises need not have ever been made, but, having been made, the failure to deal with them gives rise to much hostile comment. Thus this strong Government, with its large majority, has accomplished comparatively little, and has not only exposed itself to the taunts of its adversaries, but incurred the scarcely concealed distrust of its friends.

What have the causes of this failure been? Three may be selected as the most important. For one of these, the largeness of their majority, they are in no way to blame. But a majority of 152, though it was received with exultation, is anything but a blessing. It makes the leaders over-confident and even reckless. They think they can carry anything, and become less cautious in their strategy. It also impairs party discipline. Although the Tory party is naturally very obedient and cohesive, some of its members are much more apt to show independence and attack the measures of their chiefs when they feel they can do so without the danger of turning the chiefs out of office. The Government have never been in any risk of losing a division, and have usually obtained nearly their full numbers, but there has been a good deal of criticism of them in debate from their own side, and a good deal of discontent which might have failed to find expression had the majority, because smaller, been more in awe of the Opposition.

The second cause was their carelessness in the conduct of business in the House of Commons. To arrange that business, and keep pushing it steadily through, selecting the most important bills and pressing each in its proper order, while keeping the House as a whole in good humor by not requiring too many late sittings, is a task of some difficulty. It does not require brilliant talents. The late Mr. W. H. Smith, who was so far from being a brilliant man that he could not even make a passably well turned speech, discharged it successfully, for he brought to it plenty of tact, strong common sense, and unsparing diligence. The Ministry, however, showed no diligence at all, and often seemed to let the business of the House drift. Mr. Arthur Balfour, who was leader, was frequently absent during debates, and seemed to take his duties as leader much too easily. Mr. Chamberlain, who is nothing if not a practical parliamentarian, absented himself so frequently that people began to suppose some motive for his absence. This want of assiduity on the part of the leaders was not redeemed by their lieutenants. Thus the business of the House got into confusion, much valuable time was lost, and bills that might have been carried had to be abandoned. Mr. Balfour is very popular with his own side, and is well liked personally by the Opposition. His methods of leading have, however, been the object of many strictures from friends as well as opponents. Even the *Times*, usually the Government's warmest advocate, attacked him. Were it not for his personal popularity and the distrust felt in some sections of the Tory party for Mr. Chamberlain, his position as leader might have been threatened. That it is really threatened few competent observers believe, though all agree that more care must be shown next session.

The third chief cause of the discredit the Ministry have incurred is the want of judgment they showed in framing the Education bill, which was the principal measure of the session, and the one which roused by far the keenest feelings. People had expected it to be a comparatively small affair, mainly designed to provide additional grants for those denominational schools, nearly all of them belonging to the Church of England or the Roman Catholics, which are called voluntary schools because they are supported, not by the local taxes, but by the subscriptions of the denomination, which, however, now represent a smaller sum than the grant which they receive from the central public treasury. But it proved to be a large measure, which raised three sets of questions, each of which in England, as in most countries, excites warm interest—questions of finance, questions of local government, questions of religious teaching. A bill handling any one of these, and still more a bill handling all three at once, was sure to raise opposition and be subjected to the closest scrutiny. The financial provisions provoked a controversy between two sets of supporters of the bill—those who wished the denominational schools to be subsidized (as now, but more largely) from the central treasury, and those who wished them to receive a share of local taxation. The provisions regarding local government menaced the authority, or even the existence, of the School Boards in many parts of the country, and the friends of the School Boards were up in arms. The proposals which affected religious teaching raised a still more serious storm. The Protestant Nonconformists, or at least all their most active and influential leaders, looked on these proposals as an attack

on religious freedom and a breach of the compromise arrived at in 1870; and though most of the Nonconformists, being Liberals, would in any case have been unlikely to favor the bill, that section of Nonconformists which had left the Liberal party on the home-rule question, and had supported the Tories at the last election, were also alarmed, and began to threaten a revolt if this part of the bill were persevered with.

Nor, indeed, was the religious disquiet entirely confined to the dissenting bodies. Within the Church of England itself the section which holds doctrines approaching or sometimes scarcely differing from those held by the Roman Catholic Church, has of late years made great progress. Its leaders, both ecclesiastical and lay, are energetic and untiring. They attach, like the Church of Rome, immense importance to the control of elementary education and to the power of teaching dogma in their own way and by teachers whom they have selected. They are therefore, as a rule, warmly opposed to the schools under the control of the School Boards, and eager to promote denominational schools in which strictly denominational instruction may be given. Their zeal in this cause has excited some suspicion and even alarm among the general mass of the Church of England laity, who are still very far from being Anglo-Catholics; and this suspicion extended itself to the Education bill, leading not a few old-fashioned Conservatives to regard it with a distrust none the less real for being sparingly and obscurely expressed. Thus the bill had enemies among the friends as well as the opponents of the Government. Its troubled life and its early death were due far more to the many currents of hostility which thus converged upon it than to the lateness of the period at which its consideration in committee began. That so experienced a cabinet could have erred so gravely excites no great surprise. Lord Salisbury knows but little of public opinion and the temper of the House of Commons; constructive legislation has never been Mr. Balfour's strong point; and Mr. Chamberlain's judgment is not thought to be a sound one. It was supposed that the Duke of Devonshire, who has plenty of shrewdness and knows the House of Commons, would have warned his colleagues; but he is apt to take things easily, and may have acquiesced against his own forecasts.

Although the collapse of their principal measure has tarnished the reputation of the Government, or, as the man in the street says, "has rubbed the gilt off the gingerbread," it must not be supposed that their political position is seriously shaken, and that either they or the present Parliament are likely to come to a speedy end. Even more serious blunders in parliamentary management and schemes of legislation may be committed by a party which has only just come into power, and whose majority in the House of Commons desires nothing so little as a dissolution. If the country at large were very keenly interested in politics, a reaction might no doubt set in which would shake the fidelity of a considerable part of that majority. But the country is apathetic. Not for many years past have political questions moved so small a part of the electors, and moved them so languidly. The newspapers report debates in Parliament far more briefly than they did formerly; and if one were to judge by the sale of the newspapers, especially the evening papers, all kinds of amusement, especially athletics and the other forms of sport, fill the mind of the average man much more than political questions do. There is small likelihood that any one of the domestic questions now pending will dispel this singular apathy, which is evidently due quite as much to causes outside the sphere of politics as to the present position of English parties. A crisis in foreign affairs, however, might change everything in a moment; and no one can say that a crisis in foreign affairs is impossible, for the state of the East is disquieting, and other matters pending between the Great Powers contain elements of trouble. But this is a subject too large to be dealt with now. Lord Salisbury's foreign policy, and the causes that have so greatly lowered the prestige which for a time he enjoyed as a foreign minister, deserve a letter to themselves. C. E.

THE THIRD INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF PSYCHOLOGY.

GENEVA, August 20, 1896.

THE third Congress was held at Munich, August 4 to 9, under the presidency of Prof. Stumpf of Berlin. It was the largest and in many respects the most successful of the three. Of course the German attendance was fuller than at the last one, held in London in 1892, and German delegates are always most welcome. When we take into account the fact that Germany is to-day the country where psychology is most vigorously and successfully pursued, it follows that this Congress is, up to date, the greatest gathering of eminent psychologists ever seen. As to France, the attendance was disappointing in numbers, although the delegation was very representative; and the same is true of the British contingent. The other countries, except America, were adequately represented; the small attendance from our side of the water being a matter of the more surprise in view of the tendency of our professors to take their vacation abroad—indeed, the attendance at the last Congress in London was considerably larger.

In its general character the Congress tends to recall the remarks which I made in this journal four years ago on the London meeting. The tendency to allow the popular attendance upon the meetings to swamp the scientific proceedings was more marked in Munich, and it is not too much to say that this constituted a very great defect in the arrangements. The membership was over four hundred. There was a constant flow from hall to hall, and the corridors were filled with bewildered persons. Some limit must be put on the popular membership at the next congress, or the scientific people will yield the field to the sightseers and amateurs. The other possible improvement which I suggested in the earlier letter also comes to the front again apropos of this meeting in Munich—the crowded condition of the programme. Besides the general meetings, which came in the forenoon sessions, the committee arranged for five sections all running simultaneously, and all subject to constant give and take, as respects their audiences, from one to another. Besides the constant interruptions and great confusion which this produced, it practically prevented a person from hearing any readers whom he especially desired to hear. Since the time limits were not enforced upon the papers or discussions, one could never tell how far on this section or that had progressed, and so could not time his presence for any particular reader. Moreover, the papers were as usual so generally accepted by the committee—any one who wanted to present something had only to send his name and topic beforehand—that many were read which were of little or no scientific value; and the titles of papers were entered on the programme in advance, so that there was no way to learn infallibly whether a particular reader had arrived and would present his dissertation or not. The gaps left by the absentees were consequently quite an unknown quantity. Every such meeting should have a committee to read and select from available papers, arrange them strictly according to unchangeable time-divisions, and require each reader to report finally a day or two before the meeting as to his actual attendance, the final programme being only then printed. This would have the further advantage of ruling out titles and names which are from the first doubtful; for it is astonishing to what an extent men fail to carry out what should be their serious intention when they give their names to be printed on these Congress programmes.

So much for the general character of the Congress. Of course, this is not the place for an account, in any detail, of its scientific features. The division into sections will show something of the remarkable range that modern psychology finds itself obliged to take: "Normal," "Sleep and Hypnotism," "Mental Pathology," "Neurology," "The Senses and Psychophysics"—the titles being somewhat abbreviated in this list. In each of the sections there were some great papers and one or more lively discussions. The most interesting thing in the way of neurological work—it was presented, however, in one of the general meetings—was the paper by the veteran Flechsig on "Association Centres." It will be remembered that Prof. Flechsig has been engaged for some time on comparative studies of the brains of human infants at different ages, attempting so to arrive at a view of the order of development of the elementary mental functions, with the corresponding progress in brain anatomy and physiology. He has published very rich results from time to time, and among them is his determination of certain so-called "association centres." He thinks that the much discussed frontal region of the brain is the location of associations of a higher and more abstract kind; and that in the region back of the well-known "motor region," extending to the visual centre in the occipital region, is a great centre for the associations which bind the sense functions together. This in brief, and without the discriminations which an accurate account of his views should make. The reason which he gives for these determinations is that only after some growth, and after the senses are well developed, do we find the great masses of connecting fibres which traverse these regions forming in the child's brain. Apart from the question of fact, as to which Prof. Flechsig's researches may be considered as being of the greatest importance (especially when we consider his method), it is difficult to see how these regions can be, in any true sense, "association centres"; for, admitting that the connections between the sense centres run through these regions, the main thing about the associations must be the things associated, not the mere fact of connections between them. One would hardly call the bunch of telegraph wires on the house-top a "communication centre"; the loci of communication are still at the telegraph offices. Without them, the wires would be possibly even more helpless than the

offices without the wires. Prof. Flechsig's paper was a model for imitation in the manner of its presentation, and its interest was enhanced by slides showing the infant's brain, in sections illustrating the periods of its growth.

Another contribution to the understanding of the relation of Psychology and Brain Physiology was that of the well known neurologist, Prof. Edinger of Frankfort, on the question, "Can Psychology make use of the results so far attained in Brain Anatomy?" He did not confine himself to anatomy, but presented a series of interesting notices on the development of the nervous system in the scale of life, and made a strong plea for a corresponding genetic study of comparative psychology. Genetic psychology, he says, is so far behind analytic psychology because psychologists have confined their attention, on the anatomical side, to the cerebral hemispheres, while what they should do is to study the evolution of the nervous system all the way up, and see the progress of consciousness with it. "Gerade auf diesem Gebiete müssen anatomisch-physiologische und psychologische Studien durchaus Hand in Hand gehen." All this is true and remarkably opportune, I think, despite the fact that in his main illustration Prof. Edinger falls into one of the glaring fallacies into which this sort of analogy between body and mind may lead. He says there are certain creatures (fishes) which have no hemispheres, and it follows that, on the psychological side, we must deny to these creatures "all that the hemispheres are necessary for in the higher creatures." This overlooks the great principle that, in the lower forms, less differentiated structures may do what more differentiated ones do in the higher forms. To press this point consistently, he would seem to have to deny consciousness altogether to these fishes. The lesson of this paper, however, is a most timely one; psychologists, especially in Germany, are not half awake to the genetic problem, and when they do awake, no doubt it is true that the richest lessons that the physiology of the nervous system will have to teach them, will be derived from such comparative study as Prof. Edinger advises.

Several papers of general interest were read in the open meetings. The President's address was rather more severe and *wissenschaftlich* than the earlier addresses of the presiding officers have been, but it was an exceedingly interesting and discriminating review of theories on the connection of mind and body. The arraignment of Parallelism was very effective—possibly more so than the positive doctrine of the paper. Prof. Ebbinghaus of Breslau gave a new way of testing the mental condition of school-children at different periods and in different conditions of fatigue, etc. It differs from the methods already in vogue in that it endeavors to test the child's correlating or apperceptive faculty rather than his sense-perceptions or his memory. The method, which teachers will find extremely interesting, consists in taking a passage from some interesting narrative-text, and, after striking out various words and phrases and printing the passage with blank spaces where these erasures have been made, telling the child to fill in the spaces as he thinks the sense requires. This requirement certainly calls upon the child for more than memory, and the results of its application, as reported by Prof. Ebbinghaus, seem to show its superiority; but it would appear to be applicable to children of a more advanced age, after the memory tests are outgrown. This general judgment, however, I must make with reservation, since the synopsis of the paper did not reach my hands. This may suffice to indicate the scope of the method, and to call the attention of our educational authorities to it. They will also be interested in Prof. Ebbinghaus's severe criticism of what he called the "American method" of testing the mental condition of school-children by the memory tests.

The fact that the papers on "Hypnotism" were less than in earlier congresses, in proportion to the entire number, and that there were a bare half-dozen on thought-transference and telepathy, shows the general tendency of psychology. The hypnotic period is past, even in France. Not that the gain from the study of hypnotism has not been permanent and great; on the contrary, its results are only now getting so absorbed into the body of psychological truth that it no longer makes sensational appeals for a hearing. As to telepathy, I think there is a real decay of interest in the subject, much as this is to be deplored. The most interesting paper in the hypnotic field was a general one by Prof. Pierre Janet.

The section on the Senses and Psychophysics did much exact work. Dr. Stratton of the University of California communicated some valuable experiments of his on the artificial reinverting of the retinal image and its effects on the sense of bodily position in space, which will be of especial interest to those who think the normal inversion of the image requires a theory.

Two other general questions of great interest were discussed, with as much ability as vehemence, by the Vice-President of the Congress, Prof. Lipps of Munich. One of his papers was a very important contribution in the sadly neglected field of the æsthetics of visual form. I can do no more than recommend his paper in the Congress "Proceedings" (to appear very soon) to those who are concerned with elementary æsthetic principles. The other topic was the much-discussed one on the "Unconscious" in psychology. The question, Can mental states be unconscious? has a peculiar fascination, because of the great number of verbal distinctions of which it admits. It must be confessed that Prof. Lipps's paper did not make the number of these verbal distinctions less. He reaches a sort of return to the soul-substance theory—a hidden thing in which mental states, and especially tendencies of an active kind, may be preserved when we are not conscious of them. This has long ago been refuted as a general conception, I think; but the main point of interest, and that for which I bring the matter up, is, that the results of pathology, dual consciousness, "multiple personality," etc., which are considered by many as giving the strongest evidence for the "unconscious," require quite a different theory. The "unconscious" of the pathologists is a body of conscious data gathered into a new and secondary consciousness of its own. While these states of mind are not conscious to the major person—and so, by a certain license, are called "unconscious"—still it is just the evidence that they are conscious in their own way and in their own seat in the nervous system that enables us to say that they are mental. So all this evidence goes, after all, to show a correspondence between the mental and the conscious. This Prof. Lipps does not seem to see, and his treatment of the question, from a purely verbal and analytic point of view, was consequently very inadequate.

In the higher fields of Ethics and Anthropology there were interesting papers, of which my space allows the mention of only one, on "Ethical Values," by Prof. Ehrenfels (just called from Vienna to Prague), and one on the "Category of Individuality in Savage Thought," by Mr. Stout, the editor of *Mind*. Mr. Stout, I may add, has just been called to a lectureship in Comparative Psychology in the University of Aberdeen—a novelty for the British Isles, but appropriate in the institution which Prof. Bain has made famous in connection with psychological study. The next Congress is to meet in Paris in 1900 in connection with the Universal Exposition. Prof. Ribot will be President, M. Ch. Richet Vice-President, and M. Pierre Janet Secretary. The International Committee for the Paris meeting has the following American representation: Profs. James (Harvard), Titchener (Cornell), Hall (Clark), and Baldwin (Princeton). I cannot close this letter without referring — with profound regret, which many other American students of philosophy must also feel—to the death of Prof. Avenarius of Zurich on August 18. Where I now write, the feeling that one of the greatest philosophical thinkers of Europe no longer adorns a Swiss University is very acute; and those who know the work of Prof. Avenarius must feel it also, regardless of the place of their habitation.

J. M. B.

THE ABBÉ PRÉVOST.—II.

PARIS, August 28, 1896.

IT would be a curious study to analyze the first essays of journalism in France. We have found in *Le Pour et le Contre* of the Abbé Prévost one of the first embryos of that dangerous instrument which has become the fourth power in the State. These early irregular, transient mediums of publicity were not yet political instruments. Such papers as *Le Pour et le Contre* were obliged to content themselves with literary and social matters. Still, they already had their importance; we see Voltaire writing to his friend Thiériot on July 24, 1733: "Please thank for me the author of *Le Pour et le Contre* for his eulogy. I am very pleased to have my vanity flattered by one who has so often touched my sensibility by his works. Such a man was well made for experiencing every emotion." The eulogy of which Voltaire here speaks was written on the occasion of the 'Lettres sur les Anglais.' In another letter, to the same correspondent, Voltaire sends a message to the "tender and passionate author of 'Manon Lescaut.'"

At the end of 1733, when 'Cleveland' and 'Manon Lescaut' had been universally read by the reading public of the time, Prévost addressed a letter to the Pope, asking for his pardon; the year after, Clement XII. granted him the remission of his error and gave him an induct of transference to the ancient *observance de Saint-Benoît ad benevolum receptorem*. The Council of Trent forbade all regular monks to change their congregation so as to enter a less severe order. The Benedictines of Saint-Maur, to whom Prévost belonged, did not appeal against the Pope's indulgence. Prévost had to make a second, short novitiate, after which he was matriculed at the Abbey of Le Grénatière, in Vendée. There is no trace of his having lived there. We find Prévost back in Paris, continuing *Le Pour et le Contre*, living in the society of Mme. de Tencin, of the Duke of Kingston, of Piron; he is still obliged, however, to spend some time in an abbey of his order. He writes in English from this abbey to his friend

Thiériot (November, 1735): "Cleveland and that dear Fanny are not out of my mind, but a great many friends of mine, on whose counsels and wisdom I rely, have advised me to publish no love-works till my retreat is over. . . . I am condemned to live here till the 10th of December, for no solicitation could prevail with the Pope to lessen my spiritual punishment." We need not be surprised if he wrote in English to his friend Thiériot, though Thiériot was a Frenchman, as we find in the same letter phrases like this: "No compliments for your Psyché, since you think it so dangerous for my repose. I won't see her more neither, till I have got a hundred thousand a year. Then I can love, and tell it and hope to be well received." Prévost clearly had no vocation for a conventual life. The salon of Mme. de Tencin was more congenial to him than a monastery.

We do not know by what influence he became, after his new novitiate, an almoner in the household of the Prince de Conti; he was thus regularly dispensed from the obligation to live in a convent. Louis François de Bourbon was a profligate prince. "With a revenue which was augmented by five hundred livres annually," says D'Argenson, "his domestics were not paid, people died of hunger in his house and had no fire in winter." Prévost received no salary, and his functions were purely honorary. La Harpe writes in his literary correspondence: "The late Prince de Conti was not fastidious on the subject of the mass. He wished to have for his almoner the Abbé Prévost, the novel-writer. 'Monseigneur,' said the Abbé to him, 'I have never said mass.' 'Never mind,' says the Prince, 'I never hear it.'" Prévost, meanwhile, continued to write in *Le Pour et le Contre*, wrote the 'Dean of Killerine,' and translated the "Conscious Lovers," a comedy of Steele's (this translation appeared in *Le Pour et le Contre*). We find in that journal a curious critical theory of Prévost's. He maintained that "a language which needs as puerile a help as rhyme in order to be suitable to poetry betrays accordingly its imperfection and its weakness." He proposed to abolish rhyme and thus "to render a great service to the French Parnassus." These articles were written on occasion of some English epigrams.

In 1739, the Abbé Prévost left *Le Pour et le Contre*. His father had died, leaving some little fortune; but, having taken the vow of poverty, he could not inherit. His affairs were so deranged that he thought for a moment of returning to London. He offered to Voltaire to write a 'Defence of M. de Voltaire and of his Works,' an offer which Voltaire politely refused. "You wish, sir, to make my apologia. . . . The only reason which hinders me from accepting is the same reason which prevented the great Condé from writing his memoirs. (You see that I do not choose mediocre examples.) He said that he could not justify himself without attacking too many people." Voltaire offered his services to Prévost with Frederick the Great, a famous patron of literature. Prévost answered him that before leaving for Prussia, he had first to pay his debts, something like four or five thousand francs. He left France, however, in 1741, for a little time; his exile was caused by some sort of collaboration with an abbé who published a paper, a *gazette* (it was the word of the period, which is still retained by the old *Gazette de France*), containing the petty daily news of the capital. He spent the term of this exile in Brussels, in Frankfort; he was allowed to come back to Paris in 1742, and began a translation of Richardson's 'Pamela' (the first edition of 'Pamela' in English was published in London in 1741-42). I will say at once that he translated 'Clarissa Harlowe' in 1751 under the title of 'Lettres Anglaises, ou Histoire de Miss Clarisse Harlowe.' It is curious to have Voltaire's opinion of Richardson: "It is cruel for a man as lively as I am to read nine volumes without finding anything in it. . . . 'Clarissa' and 'Pamela' have succeeded because they excite the curiosity of the reader by a chaos of inutilities." The Abbé Raynal writes: "The Abbé Prévost has just translated in France a manuscript entitled 'Lettres Anglaises.' This long work makes more noise in Paris than it has had success. . . . I have experienced in reading this book something extraordinary, the liveliest pleasure and the most crushing tedium." Faithful to Richardson, the Abbé Prévost published in 1754 a translation of 'Sir Charles Grandison.' He probably maintained personal relations with Richardson, as he announced his translation in 1753, and the original English edition appeared only in 1754; it is true that another translation appeared in Göttingen before Prévost's, which appeared in Amsterdam. Prévost worked at the same time at translating Middleton's Life of Cicero, and Cicero's Familiar Letters, and (in his 'Histoire Générale des Voyages') John Green's 'New General Collection of Voyages and Travels,' published in London in numbers from 1745 to 1747.

Prévost spent a part of a year at Chantilly—it would be more exact to say at Saint-Firmin, a small village near Chantilly (where the Duke de Chartres often lives now, in a house situated on the Grand Canal in the park which surrounds the château). In a small pamphlet, written in 1762, 'The Triumph of Chantilly, or Letter of M. Quin to M . . . on the fêtes given there three months ago,' we read that

"M. l'Abbé Prévost, who spends a part of the year in this Canton, attached to it by the beauty and retirement of the place, by the plan of his studies (he is at present engaged upon the History of the House of Condé and of Conti), and probably even more by the marked proofs of kindness with which he is honored by his Serene Highness, is asked to compliment the Prince on his arrival; he accepts with alacrity this honorable invitation. . . . We awaited the orator. He was not visible. In a few moments he appears, out of breath. His residence being at some distance from the château, he had been deceived by the rapidity of the Prince."

The Prince de Condé asked him to leave him in writing his compliments, which he was not able to sing. Prévost evidently himself wrote this part of the relation: "Here the old orator, who once on a time liked to sing, would have gayly sung two or three couplets of his invention—that is to say, very bad, as nature had not made him a poet." It is not necessary to cite these verses, which Prévost himself judged very mediocre. We have also a letter written from Saint-Firmin on the 18th of December, to one of his relations. As for the history of the House of Condé, it is possible that Prévost may have collected some documents on the subject, but there is no trace of them in the archives of the House of Condé. Prévost had so many irons in the fire, he was so occupied with his novels, his translations from English authors were so incessant, that he must have had very little time left for the work he had undertaken, at the request of Quin, superintendent of the Gardens of Chantilly. In 1760 he published a translation of Hume's History; he translated, at the same period, the 'Memoirs of Miss Sidney Biddulph,' written in three volumes by Frances Sheridan, mother of the celebrated Richard Brinsley Sheridan. M. Harrisse gives us an account of all the literary work of Prévost, showing a total of 112 volumes, 65 of which were original writings, and 47 translations. His last work has for its title 'Letters to a Young Lord, translated from the English by the Abbé Prévost,' and, curiously enough, the work is not a translation, it is original; but English books were the fashion, and Prévost had more than anybody contributed to it. Grimm was taken in, and writes in his correspondence about "the original of this book, which had much success in England, while in France nobody looked at the translation."

During the latter part of his life, the Abbé Prévost resided constantly at Saint-Firmin, in a house which belonged to the widow of a lawyer. We read in the *Nouvelles à la main* that "on the 1st of December, 1763, the Abbé Prévost, very well known in the republic of letters by the works which he has issued, was found dead in the park of Chantilly from the effects of an attack of apoplexy which overtook him while out walking." M. Harrisse has taken the pains to examine and to compare the various accounts given at the time of the death of Prévost, and he comes to the conclusion that Prévost did not die of apoplexy, but from the rupture of an aneurism, not on the 1st of December, but on the 25th of November. He proves, also, that Prévost, at the time of his death, was not, as has been sometimes said, in a state bordering on poverty; he was in possession of a priory, which yielded him more than 2,000 livres annually, he had been able to procure a nice country-house, he was surrounded with friends. Nor did he die out of the pale of the church; the Benedictines claimed him as still belonging to their order, and buried him under the pavement of one of their churches. In the priory of Saint-Nicolas d'Acy there could be read before the Revolution this epitaph:

Hic jacet D. Antonius Prévost
Sacerdos majoris ordin. S. Benedicti
Monachus professus quum plurimis
Voluminibus in lucem editis insignitus
Obiit 25. Novembris 1763.

Correspondence.

EDUCATE THE YOUTH BETIMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Whatever may be the outcome in November of the present political contest, it is plain to one who for twenty-seven years as a merchant has had ample opportunities of observation in four States adjacent to Ohio, that the present controversy has aroused in the minds (or rather in the hearts) of a large portion of our people sentiments on various topics that will not be laid to rest with the termination of this struggle. Never before in any question of great public moment has the phantom of the French Revolution stalked abroad in the land as to-day. Not alone in the great cities is this spirit manifest, but it has permeated all strata of our people. The towns and the villages teem with evidence of the malignant envy and hatred felt by the man who has nothing for him who has something. Our system of general if not universal education, which has been held as the sufficient safeguard in a free country against the possibility of such conditions, seems not to have justified the hopes of its advocates.

Our schools have taught their pupils to be "smart," but the average voter, especially of the younger generation, has no understanding of obedience to authority or veneration for law or established rights and conditions. With "book learning" enough to be "sharp," respect for or submission to anything not to his whim is an unknown tenet in his limited category of virtues.

The present discussion of the money question, and the tendencies developed by it, reveal to the most casual onlooker a density of ignorance among our people as distressing and appalling as it is dangerous. The people of the Eastern States have scant appreciation of the volcanic situation on their western borders. The demagogue and political charlatan never found fairer field for his efforts on the stump than among the discontented masses who form his applauding audiences. If the country is to be conserved in its integrity to future generations, it must devolve upon those who have the brains and the means to guide its destinies, to stop long enough in the mad pursuit of wealth to build on surer foundations, or their castles of gold will be found to rest but on shifting sands.

The present free-silver movement is no more than a grand rally of all the malcontents of the land. One has but to look at the banners of the Bryan cohorts to see whence his retainers are recruited. And if dispersed in November, they will gather again, in the near future, to war for destruction and spoliation. It is not possible to educate the people of a country like ours on any economic question in the brief period of a ninety-day campaign. "In time of peace prepare for war," and the work can begin none too soon.

The past ten years of utter disregard for every sound principle in the management of national, State, and municipal finances, and the flagrant and criminally reckless methods of corporate and individual business, are not understood or seen or realized even by those who have been the heaviest direct sufferers. Not the lack of money, but the unwise readiness to extend credit and incur indebtedness, has brought us to the present conditions of financial unrest, where repudiation of honest obligations is made the battle-cry of a revolutionary wing of one of the great national parties. To combat all this in the future should be the ambition of every lover of his country. The schoolboy of to-day is taught nothing of the certain difficulty and probable danger of incurring debt, nothing of the sacredness of a money obligation. It is not surprising that he should grow to business manhood with perverted financial instincts. The ability to borrow is to him the acme of business shrewdness, the astuteness to defeat his creditors and evade legal punishment is too often the sum of his financial morality. The example of success in others, attained by devious methods, stimulates his perverse ambition, while it engenders in all classes a contempt and disregard for all property rights, be they founded in justice or in iniquity, and the whole social structure is shaken. The present anarchistic silverite campaign is sowing deep in fertile soil the seeds of future trouble. Surely, unless those to whom much has been given and of whom much will be required, awake to the higher duties of citizenship, the outbreak will come to us as it came to France in the "days of terror." JOSEPH DEBAR.

CINCINNATI, Ohio, September 1, 1896.

WHO HITCHED THE CART?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The correspondent who, under the caption "The Cart before the Horse," in your issue of August 27, raises the question of the admission of women to the Johns Hopkins University, recalls a former editorial in the *Nation*, reprinted on page 164 of the collected essays ('Comments and Reflections, 1865-1895'), of Mr. E. L. Godkin. The first point emphasized by Mr. Godkin is "the unprecedented advantage of the Hopkins Trustees . . . of being left in possession of a very large bequest with complete liberty, within wide limits, as to the disposition of it, . . . and ready or willing to look at the subject [University education] from every side. . . . In other words, they are to found a University; . . . but as to the kind of University, they may exercise their discretion."

No contemporary who has watched the brilliant and public-spirited career of Johns Hopkins's president will be likely to attribute to him the University's reactionary policy towards the higher education of women. Is it, then, the Faculty or the Trustees—credited in this essay of Mr. Godkin as being "without bias or bond"—or is it the baneful influence of a conservative locality, to which the puzzling exclusion of graduate women from Johns Hopkins's graduate department is due?

Yours truly, FAIR PLAY.

NORTH-EAST HARBOR, MAINE, September 6, 1896.

Notes.

THOMAS Y. CROWELL & Co. have in preparation as gift-books Browning's 'Saul,' illustrated by Frank O. Small; 'Shakspere's Heroes on the Stage,' by Charles E. L. Wingate; 'Famous Actors of To-Day,' by the same author in collaboration with F. E. McKay and the aid of numerous portraits; and André Theuriet's 'Rustic Life in France,' translated by Helen B. Dole, with Lhermitte's illustrations.

Prof. George W. Field of Brown University has translated the first or general part of Dr. Richard Hertwig's 'Lehrbuch der Zoologie,' and it will soon be published by Henry Holt & Co.

A monograph by Judge Tourgée, 'The Battle of the Standards; or, Coin *and* Credit the Antidote for Coin *without* Credit,' is to be issued at once by G. P. Putnam's Sons, together with a new edition of Shaw's 'History of Currency.'

'A Century Book of Famous Americans,' 'Quotations for Occasions' (from Shakspere and other writers, for dinner menus and the like), and 'A Christmas Guest and Other Tales,' by Mrs. Ruth McEnery Stuart, will be published next month by the Century Company.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have nearly ready 'A Daily Thought for a Daily Endeavor,' by Eleanor A. and Eliza P. Sutphen; 'The Colonial Parson of New England,' by Frank S. Child; and 'The Regicides: A Tale of Early Colonial Times,' by Frederick Hull Cogswell.

The Macmillan Co.'s list for the coming season embraces 'Guesses at the Riddle of Existence,' with other kindred essays, by Goldwin Smith, and, by the same author, 'A Political History of England'; 'A Text-Book on the English Constitution,' by Prof. Jesse Macy of Iowa College; 'The Castles of England: Their Story and Structure,' in two volumes, fully illustrated, by Sir James D. Mackenzie, Bart.; 'European Architecture: An Historical Study,' by Russell Sturgis; 'The Bible in Old English Writers,' by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale; 'Old English Ballads,' edited by Hamilton W. Mabie, with designs by George Wharton Edwards; 'Selections from Chaucer for High-School Use,' by Prof. Hiram Corson of Cornell; a translation of Georg Brandes's 'William Shakspere: A Critical Study'; 'Victorian Influences,' essays by Frederick Harrison; a translation of Ratzel's 'History of Mankind,' in three volumes, with many colored plates, maps, and cuts; 'Principles of Mental Development: Social Interpretations,' by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton; translations from Leibnitz, by Alfred Gideon Langley, under the title 'New Essays concerning the Human Understanding'; 'A History of Elementary Mathematics,' by Prof. F. Cajori of Colorado College; 'An Introduction to Public Finances,' by Prof. Carl C. Plehn of the University of California; 'The History of Modern Painting,' by Richard Muther, in three volumes, imperial octavo, with more than 1,300 illustrations (a subscription work); 'Stained Glass,' by Henry Holiday, with colored and other illustrations; 'Rocks, Rock-Weathering, and Soils,' by Prof. George P. Merrill of Columbian University; 'The Norfolk Broads,' by Mrs. Anna Bowman Dodd, illustrated by Joseph Pennell, who also embellishes a new edition of Irving's 'Alhambra' for the Cranford Series; 'African Travels,' by Miss Kingsley; 'Sir George Tressady,' by Mrs. Humphry Ward; 'The Other House,' by Henry James; 'The Choir Invisible,' by James Lane Allen; 'Soldiers' Stories,' a book for boys, by Rudyard Kipling; 'Gutter Children,' described with pen and pencil by Phil May; 'On Blue Waters: The Life and Experience of a Yankee Sailor,' by Fred. B. Williams; 'Elements of Grammar,' by Prof. George R. Carpenter of Columbia; and 'The Foundation of the German Empire, 1815-'17,' by J. W. Headlam. We must pass over numerous new editions, but will make exception in the case of Miss Fay's useful 'Music Study in Germany,' and of Mr. John Bartlett's 'Concordance to Shakspere' at a price within the reach of every one who can afford books of reference at all.

Copeland & Day, Boston, have nearly ready 'The Listener in the Town,' 'The Listener in the Country,' by Joseph Edgar Chamberlin, "Listener" for the Boston *Transcript;* and Dr. Richard Garnett's 'CXXIV Sonnets from Dante, Petrarch and Camoens,' in translation.

'Science Sketches,' by Dr. David Starr Jordan, of Leland Stanford University, and 'The Method of Darwin,' by Frank Cramer, are announced by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Pending the decision of the question whether support can be found for a complete edition of the works of Théophile Gautier, including both his dramatic and artistic *feuilletons* in their entirety, his admirer, M. de Spoelberch de Lovenjoul, offers to make a free gift to the publisher, on the realization of the enterprise, of the inedited correspondence of Gautier, collected by him from his youth upwards.

A reprint of John Morley's Life of Richard Cobden in two volumes (Macmillan) must be thought timely in the midst of our economic awakening, even if the tariff discussion be for the nonce in abeyance. The logical relation between protection and free silver can never be severed by the protectionist party getting on to a gold platform. The price of this work

has undergone the usual reduction. From the same firm we have received a fourth edition of Charles Cowden Clarke's winnowed 'Riches of Chaucer,' with its memoir to which much must be added from later researches; and two further volumes in each of the charming Dent series of translations—from Daudet, 'Thirty Years of Paris and My Literary Life,' and 'Recollections of an Artist'; from Balzac, 'César Birotteau' and 'Modeste Mignon.'

In William T. Hornaday's 'The Man who became a Savage' (Buffalo: The Peter Paul Book Co.) a man of means, in a New York city, thoroughly disgusted with a place "where the air is blue with aggravations and annoyances," unwilling "to wear his life out fighting mean men, mean corporations, mean courts, and mean politics," learns of some "honest, moral savages" among the head-hunting Dyaks, and at once starts for Borneo. On the way "the absconder is held up" by typhoid fever in Montana, and is nursed to health by a much-abused woman, whose relish for society equals his own. They fall in love, they marry, they go to Dohong, where they are well received, and, after helping to drive out liquor-traders and gold-hunters, are adopted by the grateful natives. This sort of love story is interspersed with many thrilling adventures, and some accounts of Dyak battles, of their head-houses and customs in general, tells of the capture of the orang-utan, and makes a roundabout appeal for women's rights, a novel temperance lecture, a depressing exhibit of lawless white men, and an altogether favorable picture of savages not yet spoiled by civilization. The author's field, in his first venture into fiction, is somewhat out of the travelled routes. His purpose was not so much to do fine writing as to produce an interesting story; in this he has succeeded.

Dr. George Albert Boulenger's 'Catalogue of the Snakes in the British Museum (Natural History),' completed by the third volume, is a most important contribution to ophiology. In most respects the work is very well done indeed. Besides the great additions to knowledge by the author, his book furnishes a new point of departure in the study of the order, and prepares the way for advances by others that could not be made with a literature scattered over the pages of all sorts of publications. The catalogue is descriptive; it recognizes 1,639 species of snakes. The arrangement is much improved, though a general criticism to be urged applies to the amount of bunching together. The sea snakes and the cobras are put in the family of the most common harmless species, and the rattlesnakes are made to belong to the same family as the vipers. Similar bunching is apparent in genera, species, and varieties. Mainly the synonymy is drawn from descriptive publications. Those relating to anatomy, habits, etc., are ignored, as also all those in which the names are not accompanied by definitions, even though they refer to species previously described by competent and cited authorities; the amount which they in the synonymy might add to knowledge of genetic affinities or of distribution being thus entirely disregarded. In consequence, there is confusion in regard to authorities, credit being given to later authors for what really was pointed out by the earlier, and a considerable number of the genera will be renamed in attempts to restore prior designations. The omission of many synonyms that had been defined is probably due to inadvertence. Such a work is necessarily an approximation; the present ranks among the best.

An exceedingly valuable contribution to the painful history of witchcraft persecutions is Dr. Sigmund Riezler's 'Geschichte der Hexenprozesse in Bayern' (Stuttgart: Cotta). Hitherto no adequate account of the origin and spread of this delusion and the prosecutions to which it gave rise in Bavaria has ever been written, so that Dr. Riezler may be justly regarded as a pioneer in this special province of research. He calls attention to the inveteracy of these phenomena, and states that the authentic history of the Bavarian stock, comprising fourteen centuries, is, during nearly thirteen centuries of this period, pervaded and more or less conditioned by a belief in witchcraft, which had its source in old German paganism and was therefore treated at first by the Christian Church as mere superstition. During the thirteenth century, however, witchcraft began to be regarded as a terrible reality, in which the Church detected the direct agency of the devil, and thus laid the foundation for the fearful persecutions of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (1589–1631), so vividly described in the third chapter of the present work. The first effective reaction against prosecutions for witchcraft in Bavaria emanated from the jurists of Ingolstadt; also the 'Theologia Scholastica' of the Jesuit Tanner (published in the same city in 1626–27) contains as bold a protest against judicial torture and other perversions of justice in such trials as the prudent father perhaps dared to make. In the concluding chapter we have an account of the gradual disappearance of the delusion, leading to the abolition of judicial torture on July 7, 1806, and the publication of a new criminal code on October 1, 1813, in which heresy, witchcraft, and magic are not mentioned. In the appendix we have a full analysis of Hartlieb's 'Buch der Zauberei,' written in 1456 and preserved in a Heidelberg codex, and the text of an "Interrogatoria" dated 1622 and printed from a manuscript in the Munich archives.

In a pamphlet of fifteen pages entitled 'Vater, Sohn und Fürsprecher in der Babylonischen Gottesvorstellung,' and just published by Hinrich in Leipzig, Dr. Heinrich Zimmern, Professor of Assyriology in the university of that city, makes a short, but exceedingly suggestive, contribution to the science of comparative religion. The Babylonian Trinity consisted of Ea the Father, Marduk the Son, and a fire-god bearing different names, Gibil, Girru, and Nusku, and performing the office of a paraclete. In the passages cited, Marduk serves as mediator between Ea and the human race, and is sent to heal men of their infirmities and in one case to cast out seven devils. In the ceremonial of the Babylonian court, the function of intercessor between the sovereign and his subjects was assigned to his oldest son, who graciously heard the requests of suppliants and laid them before the monarch. The same ceremonial was naturally assumed to be observed in the court of heaven, where God the Father could be approached by the children of men and made to listen to their petitions only through the mediation of his Son.

Kiepert and Huelsen's 'Formæ Urbis Romæ Antiquæ' (Berlin: Reimer) contains three maps. The first is of the republican period, the second of the imperial, and each is on the scale of 1:10,000, half the scale employed by Canina. The third, on a much larger scale (1:2,500), covers the Palatine, the forums and their neighborhood in the imperial age. All three are entirely new maps, based upon the latest surveys and discoveries. Ancient remains are entered in black, modern streets and important buildings in red. The maps, a little over two feet square, are folded loosely in the cover of an accompanying volume, which contains, besides the preface and a bibliography, a most welcome *Nomenclator Topographicus*, compiled by Huelsen in 100 pages. This does for Rome what Milchhoefer's *Schriftquellen* has done for Athens. It is a list of all the ancient buildings and the most important other monuments, together with references to the ancient authorities and to significant mediæval and modern books in which they find mention. The names of the editors are a sufficient guarantee of the excellence of this work, which from its convenient size and moderate price will take a place that Lanciani's great map can never obtain.

The important work which is being done by Mme. Th. Bentzon in making American life and American literature known to the French is continued in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in the form of a study of the work of Mary E. Wilkins. The best method is chosen for giving the readers of the *Revue* some comprehension of Miss Wilkins's artistic quality. One story is in the first instance translated entire, choice being happily made of 'A New England Nun,' and there follow sketches of other situations, and a fuller rendering of the outline of 'Pembroke,' together with much keen and sympathetic criticism. Madame Blanc (to give her her rightful name) is fully alive to the difficulty of the task of making the New England temperament, and especially the New England abhorrence of a life of self-indulgence, intelligible to the French consciousness, but she is successful, here and elsewhere, so far as the difficulties of the task are not insuperable. The critic is herself not only a skilful novelist, but also an energetic worker in the movement for the reformation of French manners, of which Melchior de Vogüé, Paul Desjardins, and M. René Doumic are the chief leaders.

A frank, though anonymous, writer in *La Réforme Sociale* gives a very gloomy view of the present condition and future prospects of the French Congo, a territory three times as large as France. Since 1884, the second year of the colony, the number of mercantile houses has increased from nine to fifteen, of whom seven only are French. There are four planters, one being a Frenchman with capital; but the officials have multiplied sixfold, from 32 to 187. The receipts from customs have risen from $40,000 to $170,000, an increase due chiefly to the fact that the duties are three times as great as they were twelve years ago, though a rebate of 60 per cent. is allowed on importations from France. Since 1890 the commercial development has been stationary, and is now apparently beginning to decline, a Dutch company being the only one conducting its business with a profit. The only persons benefited by the colony are the officials, the missionaries and the blacks dependent upon them. The writer closes with the remark that it seems as if the European nations had been blinded by Providence in their mad rush to acquire in equatorial Africa territory which had no present or prospective value.

—The September number of *Harper's Magazine* meets a need of the moment by calling attention, through Prof. Woodrow Wilson's article "First in Peace," to the qualities of character which, in the opinion of our forefathers, constituted a leader of the people. It clearly appears from this chapter of Washington's history that dignity and reserve of

manner were no obstacles to popular confidence and affection, "a grave sincerity" having characterized his bearing at all times. Fulsome congratulation of his fellow-countrymen upon their greatness, real or imaginary, formed no part of his public utterances, which were marked rather by a determination to impress upon them a sense of their peculiar dangers and mistakes. Wealth, with sound judgment and economy in the care of it, did not make him less a hero in the eyes of the plain people, his pleasure in the profitable and thrifty management of his estate having been patent to all observers, and forming now a point on which Prof. Wilson dwells with picturesque and vivid detail. No time could be better than this for clearing up false conceptions of our national ideals, and for bringing out in their true proportion the full personality of the leaders with whose names our politicians still conjure. Mr. Theodore S. Woolsey has contrived, while dealing with so apparently remote a subject as old silver, to keep his patriotism in view by suggesting that the productions of silversmiths who emigrated to this country and "did as good work here as at home" should be at least as valuable and interesting to ourselves as any other. To give to old American-made plate, he goes on to suggest, an historical and commercial value, collections similar to those shown within the past fifteen years in Amsterdam, Carlsruhe, Budapest, and many European capitals must be exposed to examination in this country. From a third article, "A Summer among Cliff Dwellings," may be drawn flattering proof that our western desert is not outdone by the so-called Old World in its capacity to fire imagination by the antiquity of its relics.

—In the current *Atlantic* Prof. McMaster emphasizes his own dissent from the belief of the fathers that the people were not fit to be intrusted with the high duty of electing the President. His article, however, which begins at the point of time when the reader has been loath to break off in Prof. Wilson's, leaves room for an opinion that the changes between the first elections and that of 1840, memorable for the introduction of "all the paraphernalia still resorted to as a means of arousing the ignorant, the prejudiced, and the emotional voter," have been of the nature of a revolution as much as of an evolution. A further transfer of political power which has taken place since the time when the Constitution was still practically unamended by the action of successive political parties, is dealt with by Prof. Frederick J. Turner in an article on "The Problem of the West." The unprejudiced temper in which this Western scholar treats of the questions of the now ruling section of the country gives another cause for regret that "the influence of the scholarly, thinking, philosophical class is not felt in American progress nearly as much as it ought to be." For the faith of those who believe in the inherent capacity of democracies to work out their own salvation in the long run, there is ample encouragement to be found in Booker T. Washington's "Awakening of the Negro." The school directors of most Northern towns might profit greatly by a careful consideration of the results of industrial training (joined with academic) in promoting "thrift, economy, and push" in certain portions of the "Black Belt of the South." Fiction in this number, which includes part of a serial by Henry James, is represented by Miss Jewett, Kate Douglas Wiggin, Kate Chopin, and Mary Hartwell Catherwood—a fair indication of the proportion of creditable work in this line now done by women, inasmuch as the *Atlantic* eschews the story, short or long, which is lacking in literary merit.

—The loss which all lovers of good quality in current fiction have lately suffered is brought home to readers of *Scribner's* by Prof. Brander Matthews's sketch of the life and work of his friend and former collaborator H. C. Bunner. Mr. Bunner's versatility, as editor of *Puck* and as a maker of bound volumes, broadened the circle of those to whom he gave pleasure, while the sentiment with which, as Prof. Matthews points out, he clothed his native city of New York, constantly gave to his prose and his verse an American color and tone of a sort that can ill be spared. The new National Portrait Gallery on the "finest site in Europe" finds an efficient introducer to the public of the magazines in Cosmo Monkhouse, who does, with the aid of illustrations, as much, perhaps, as can be done by the unsatisfactory medium of words to show what has been added to the overflowing wealth of the sights of London by the better housing of scattered and hitherto partly inaccessible paintings. "Song, Youth, and Sorrow," by William Cranston Lawton, is a creditable experiment in metre, full of agreeable suggestions of poetic studies. Frederic Irland and Frank French supply two articles of the type, now almost indispensable to a magazine, which deals with open-air themes, and leans heavily on illustrations for support; one describing "Sport in an Untouched American Wilderness," the other making "Country Roads" its subject. August F. Jaccaci continues the account of his rambles in the country of Cervantes, while Vierge keeps up the vivacity and finish of his spirited illustrations.

—Rival handiwork to that of this clever French draughtsman is to be found in the *Century* in the pictures by Joseph Pennell, who has chosen the south of Spain as the scene of a summer's work. The element of human interest, so conspicuous in Vierge's work, dwindles before the beauty of the architecture or the "almost exaggerated picturesqueness" of the landscape as seen and portrayed by Mr. Pennell. Mrs. Pennell, as usual, plays cicerone to her husband's pencil, and keeps her accustomed balance between enthusiasm and common sense. The results of thirty years of almost continuous palæontological exploration are put before the reader in condensed form in Prof. Henry Fairfield Osborn's "Prehistoric Quadrupeds of the Rockies." The elaborate illustrations to this article are by Charles Knight, who, by aid of skull and skeleton, has attempted to reproduce for the American Museum of Natural History a pictorial idea of the living forms of ancient beasts over whose graves about three miles of rock has been lying vertically for more than a million of years. In another paper an Arizona miner briefly rehearses his adventures in the goldfields of Guiana, and casts his vote in favor of the stringent enforcement of the British colonial laws, as preferable to the rule of chance. But the more noticeable portion of the number consists of serials, upon one of which at least, "Sir George Tressady," all eyes are expectantly turned.

—Mr. Oscar Browning, the editor of Lord Gower's dispatches from Paris during the early years of the Revolution, has given, in the August *Cosmopolis*, an analysis of certain documents which will, if authentic, "make it necessary to rewrite the tragedy of the Reign of Terror." They are one part of the Dropmore papers, and belong to the fourteenth Report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission. They consist of twenty-eight bulletins, and purport to be an account of the proceedings of the Committee of Public Safety written day by day by one of its secretaries, an ardent royalist, and transmitted to the British Government through Francis Drake, the English Resident at Genoa. Mr. Browning evidently does not regard the papers as above suspicion, but to any one familiar with the history of the Great Committee it seems surprising that he should have deemed an extended account of them necessary until their character had been carefully determined. On their face they contradict much that has already been established on the best historical evidence; and, among other things, represent the committee as more reckless and ferocious than the *Septembriseurs*. They reveal Sieyès, who was "content during the Terror with the simple glory of living," in the rôle of one of the most energetic and bloodthirsty of all. Fortunately, through the editorial skill of the French historian F. A. Aulard, the acts of the Committee are now in course of publication, the ninth volume, which recently appeared, carrying the records well into the winter of 1793–1794. These records show, to take one example, not only that the Committee did not plan the famous scene of the 7th of November, as Mr. Browning's documents assert, but that the members took the lead in repressing the anti-Christian crusade. Truly, if Pitt expended much English gold upon documents of this sort, he was not a thrifty statesman.

—Prof. E. B. Tylor has in the *Nineteenth Century* for July an article on the Matriarchal Family System, which, like everything he writes, is valuable. He thinks that Westermarck's inquiry (in his 'History of Human Marriage') tends to prove that the groundwork of the human family is, in accordance with the older view, patriarchal. If it is true, as naturalists and hunters tell us, that a sort of family life, lasting, for the sake of the young, beyond a single pairing season, exists among the higher manlike apes, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the family is an instinctive and not an artificial institution. If the male gorilla keeps watch and ward over his progeny, it is difficult to avoid seeing in him the antetype of the "house-father" and patriarch. What, then, are we to say of the rival theory, that the patriarchal family is a late institution—that, in the real primitive family, descent was traced from the mother? According to the matriarchal theory, the early condition of mankind was "promiscuity." There was neither marriage nor giving in marriage; instead of organized society there was a horde. Paternity being impossible to establish, descent was traced on the mother's, or "safe," side. What are we to do with all the evidence relating to very primitive races still extant, who reckon descent, not as we do, but on the female side?

—Prof. Tylor's answer to these questions is, that the essential point in the maternal system, where it exists (as among the Pueblo Indians, visited by him in 1884), is that the wife remains in her own family. The husband may live with her, or live elsewhere than in the wife's house, but in any case the family is the wife's, the power is lodged in the hands of her brothers and uncles, and the husband cannot be the "head of the house."

Under the patriarchal system, the Sabine women are carried off by force; young Lochinvar secures his bride in the same manner; under the maternal system families keep their married daughters. The system is also, confessedly, connected with that of exogamy, by which a people is divided into intermarrying classes or clans, no man or woman being permitted to marry within his or her own; but while maternal peoples are exogamous, exogamous peoples may be either paternal or maternal. Exogamic rules are certainly not contrived to prevent all marriage between kinsfolk, because they take account of only one line of descent, prohibiting the remotest cousins on the mother's side, but allowing the nearest on the father's, or *vice versa*. Prof. Tylor's conclusion from these facts is that the object of exogamy is not moral, but political; the purpose of intermarriage being to bind together in peace and alliance clans which might be otherwise hostile. The same cause which leads to exogamy will lead to the maternal system, but it is an artificial system, introduced as a substitute for and in opposition to the natural paternal system. Whenever the social pressure is removed, the maternalized husband will emancipate himself from his inferior position, and the tendency will be towards a universal paternalism, both in family life and in the system of descent such as generally exists throughout the world to-day. Falling in with a party of Ojibwas, Prof. Tylor asked a girl what was her totem, to which she replied that she was a Beaver. "'Then,' I said, 'your mother was a Beaver'; but her reply was, 'No, it was my father.' They all seemed as much surprised at being thought to count clanship on the mother's side as I was to find that the customs of their forefatbers had become strange to them."

—M. Victor Turquan publishes in the *Revue Bleue* of August 15 a curious study entitled "La Statisque aux Salons," in which he enumerates the works which have been exhibited at the Palais de l'Industrie and at the Champ-de-Mars, together with the artists who have produced them, classified by sex, civil condition, nationality, and, in the case of those of French birth, by their native department. The Salon of 1896 was the one hundred and twenty-second in order. This does not mean that the Salon is only a hundred and twenty-two years old, for its exhibitions have not always been annual. There were ten Salons under Louis XIV., twenty-six under Louis XV., nine under Louis XVI., nine under the First Republic, five under the First Empire, six under the Restoration, sixteen under Louis Philippe, four under the Second Republic, thirteen under the Second Empire, and twenty-four under the Third Republic. The Salons were quite as irregular in other respects as they were in their chronology. There are surprising differences, for example, in the number of works shown. To take the records of this century only, the exhibition of the year 1800 included only 275 numbers. This figure increased gradually until it became 1,210 at the end of the first decade. Then it fell off for a while until the year 1817; since that date it has steadily increased, until at the present time the number of works offered each year is about 9,000. The number accepted and shown annually varies naturally as the severity of the jury varies. Under the reign of Napoleon III. the number of works shown averaged about 3,000. In the year 1872, 4,867 were offered, of which 2,067 were received. In 1875, 7,345 were offered and 3,662 received. In 1880, when the jury was extraordinarily yielding, 9,254 works were offered, of which no less than 7,327 were shown. In 1891, however, the pendulum had swung to the other extreme, and out of 8,181 works presented only 3,660 were received. This severity has not been kept up, and in the present year 4,879 works were exhibited, being almost exactly half of those presented.

—This year, too, showed at the Champs-Élysées the work of 1,517 painters, of whom 339, or more than a fifth, were foreigners. In the 197 women included in this number 67 were foreigners, or one in three. Among the women painters there were twice as many spinsters as there were wives and widows. The United States stands first in numbers on the list of nations to which the foreign painters belong. We furnish 65 of them; the British Isles 60, Russia 24, Spain 27, and so on. Almost all countries are represented at the Salon except those of the yellow race. M. Turquan furnishes a map of France shaded so as to show graphically the relative fertility in the production of artists of different parts of the country. The most favored regions are the valley of the Seine, Marseilles and its neighborhood, Toulouse, and Bordeaux. Morbihan, Landes, Gers, a half-dozen central departments, Savoy, Basses-Alpes, and Corsica are the most barren. The northern half of France is, much more than the southern, productive of artists, and of this the valley of the Seine is by far the most fertile part—the *hortus inclusus* of the Muse.

THE SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE.

The Speaker of the House of Representatives. By M. P. Follett. With an introduction by Albert Bushnell Hart, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

THE Speakership of to-day is a product of our legislative circumstances and conditions. This office, without a prescribed term, and almost without a prescribed power, which is merely mentioned in the Constitution and hardly mentioned in the statutes, and is filled by one of the houses of Congress without the cooperation of the other or the approval of the President, has become, in the opinion of many wise observers, the most powerful position in the Government. At the same time, at the other end of the Capitol, is an officer presiding over the higher branch of the national legislature, who is of higher rank, who is chosen by the people of the United States, whose term of office is prescribed by the Constitution, yet whose office is also regarded by many wise observers as the most *powerless* in the country.

The legislative circumstances and conditions which have produced this result are these: During the present century the business management of the House of Commons has gradually and practically become vested in a "steering committee," as it would be called in Congress, popularly known as the Ministry. This committee determines, with some exceptions, what business shall be brought before the House, and what shall not be. It is true that the Ministry is not termed a committee, and that it is not formally appointed by the House, and that its members perform executive duties; nevertheless it manages the business of the House, and, if it becomes incapable of maintaining that management, the House discharges it and incidentally turns its members out of their executive offices, and obtains a new committee of management, a new ministry. The Constitution of the United States did not provide for legislative management. It was supposed that each of the houses could take care of itself. In the Senate this is still done, and in the House it continued to be done so long as the House continued to be a self-manageable, compact body. But as the House grew larger and was composed more and more of undisciplined and inexperienced material, management became more and more necessary; and this management gradually but ever increasingly was assumed by the one man who possessed a semblance of authority over the House. Only two powers were intrusted to the Speaker—the power to recognize members or not recognize them, and the power to appoint committees. But these two powers may be likened to two grains of mustard seed planted in a hotbed. From them has sprung, and out of them has grown, all the overshadowing authority, positive and negative, which is wielded by the Speaker of the House of Representatives. The story of this extraordinary growth is told in the book which we are now reviewing.

The explanation of this book, the reasons why it came to be, the lines upon which it proceeds, and the methods by which it has been wrought, are best told by a few sentences in Prof. Hart's introduction and the author's preface:

"This book," says Prof. Hart, "represents the strenuous labor of a well-equipped investigator for more than half of each year during four successive years. Whatever may be done by diligent search into the records, by visits to Washington, by conferences with ex-Speakers, and by a comparison of all her varied material, has been done by the author. . . . Miss Follett has made her own discoveries, arranged her own material, and expressed her own results in her own words, subject only to criticism and suggestion."

"To Prof. Hart," says Miss Follett, "under whose direction this work has been prepared in the Radcliffe College Seminary of American History and Institutions, I am under the deepest obligation for advice, for valuable criticism, and for constant interest; without his continued help, and without the stimulus of frequent discussion with him, this study would never have been completed."

In saying this, we have no doubt that Miss Follett speaks as truly as modestly—that is, that she states her case with scientific accuracy. It is always reassuring to reader or critic when he finds that an author understands his own limitations; for that indicates hopefully that the author comprehended the details of his work ere he welded them together and set them before the public in the form of a book. Many people will admit that this is a remarkable book for a young author; many more people will admit that it is a remarkable book for a young lady; but when we read what may be called the practical part of the book, the multifarious instrumentalities of the Speaker's power, the things which he does, the things which he refrains from doing, the reasons upon which he acts and the influences which restrain him from acting, and view in it, clearly, the complexities of that tumultuous parliamentary body which we know sometimes as the "bear garden" and sometimes as the House of Representatives, we are tempted to go farther and say that it is a remarkable book to have been written by any other person than a member of Congress—by a member having much experience, studious habits, commendable industry, and endowed with unusual powers of analysis and generalization. Miss Follett, we are informed, is a daughter of "good old New England

stock," a graduate of Radcliffe, and a student of history in other institutions.

Having said this much of the author, we shall now speak of the book precisely as if it had been written by any other person. It consists of eleven chapters, which may be assigned to five parts. First, we have the history and growth of the Speakership—the first appearance of a Speaker in the House of Commons, the English Speaker, the Colonial Speaker, the Continental Speaker, and so on to the Speakership of the Constitution. Second comes the choice of the Speaker, the process of selecting him, the method of electing him, the troubles of contested elections, and the great contested election instances of 1839, 1849, 1855, and 1859. Third, we have the most attractive portion of the book, "The Personal Element in the Speakership"; the early Speakers; the eminent Speakers; the Speakers in whose hands the powers of the Speakership have been expanded or abused—Clay, Polk, Winthrop, Banks, Pennington, Blaine, Keifer, etc. Fourth, we have the most useful portion of the book, to which seven of its eleven chapters are given, the powers and prerogatives of the Speaker. It is this portion of the book which is a valuable contribution to studies of Constitutional law, and the study of a vital subject. It should be read by every thoughtful citizen. Finally there comes "The Speaker's Place in our Political System," or, rather, the controlling influence of the developed Speakership as it now exists upon the law-making power, and the part it plays in directing or thwarting the political purposes of the country.

It is evident that the author has kept a tight rein upon herself with the intent of scrupulously keeping in the proper road of one who journeys through the regions of constitutional history; but there is one part of her work in which, we think, she might well have allowed herself more rein—we mean the part in which a young author is expected to err in the opposite extreme, the dramatic part. By dramatic part we of course do not refer to the screechings and howlings and all the crudities and absurdities which biennially demonstrate how much infantile material there is in the House of Representatives. The dramatic element plays no unimportant part in the affairs of men; and there have been times when the election of the Speaker was a matter of supreme national importance and the event one of truly dramatic interest. Miss Follett sketches in a dozen pages, clearly but too briefly, "the four great crises in the choice of Speaker, in 1839, 1849, 1855, and 1859." The most important of these was the election of Banks in 1855, or rather in 1856, for the contest lasted more than two months, and in a community quivering in the excitement of distractions which were soon to plunge the country into civil war. If any parliamentary conflict was ever entitled to full historical treatment, including the dramatic, it was this election of the Speaker in 1856, and if there is any book in which one might reasonably expect to find it, it is in this book devoted exclusively to the Speaker of the House. Miss Follett gives four pages to it, and depicts the political situation clearly; but she does not tell us of the counter attack on Banks which came perilously near to defeating his election—the attack founded on the once famous phrase which he used in a speech out of Congress, that he would, if necessary, "let the Union slide." Neither does she tell us of the technical objection which was raised to his election on the 133d ballot; nor of the handsome conduct of his leading opponent, Gov. Aiken of South Carolina, who rose and conceded the election of the member from Massachusetts, and requested permission of the House to escort him to the chair. This portion of the book will bear amplifying, and amplification will make it more interesting to the general reader, and will preserve some bits of history which should not be lost.

In this connection, too, it may be noted that Miss Follett's mind is so stored with the facts and incidents of our legislative history, and her intercourse with historical scholars like Prof. Hart has been so frequent and familiar, that she has come to overestimate the knowledge, or at least the memory, of ordinary readers. We do not recall a page in the book for which we would recommend condensation—a rare virtue, indeed, in books of the present day—but there are many pages which would be the better for amplification. The reader of history in a busy world needs to know what the writer is writing about without stopping to cogitate and recall. What, for instance, will the reader who is not fresh from Adams's 'Administration of Jefferson' make of the following paragraph (p. 322) on the first reading of it?

"An extreme illustration of executive influence was Jefferson's plan for breaking up Randolph's coterie in order to stop their steady opposition. An attempt was made to awe Monroe; Nicholson, Randolph's strongest supporter, was made Judge of the Maryland Circuit. 'The Speaker remained to be dealt with,' continues Mr. Adams in his account of this incident; 'to buy him was out of the question; to crush him was only a last resort; no other resource was left than to coax him. "Some enemy, whom we know not, is sowing tares between us," wrote the President to the Speaker, at the moment when he was warning Monroe, and lifting Nicholson to the bench. "Between you and myself nothing but opportunities of explanation can be necessary to defeat these endeavors. At least, on my part, my confidence in you is so unqualified that nothing further is necessary for my satisfaction."' Jefferson's tactics were successful. He infused his own ideas into the House, got rid of the most rebellious spirits, triumphed over the Speaker, and successfully dominated Congress."

On the subject of the quorum, Miss Follett deflects from her plain historic road and takes part in what must still be regarded as an unsettled and recurring political controversy. Her views and opinions and reasons, moreover, are but a reflex of those of Speaker Reed. A partisan argument is pardonable if there be somebody at hand ready to answer it. Miss Follett's is not a partisan argument; but her book is one which lays down principles intended not merely for the last Congress, or the next Congress, or the present condition of things, but apparently for all time. Such a book, if it would be philosophical, must, on a controverted question, fully present both sides. It is not enough for it to state objections merely to bowl them down. It must go deep—deeper than the disputants—and treat the subject in a truly comprehensive way. Miss Follett, like Mr. Reed, goes no deeper than the facts upon the surface—that there are members present who do not vote, and without their votes there is no quorum, and without a quorum nothing can be done. Thereupon, like Mr. Reed, she concludes that the way to have a quorum is to count it. Political expedients which are good enough for a strong, determined, partisan presiding officer are not good enough for a philosophical writer, whose business, if he take up the problem at all, is to go to the bottom of it and fully discuss it and thoroughly solve it. Here, one side perceives an evil, the absence of a quorum, and the other side perceives an evil, the danger of allowing one person on his mere inspection of the House to declare a quorum present; but behind these lies a third and greater evil which both sides may perceive, and should perceive, and some day will perceive—an evil which the philosophical writer certainly should perceive—viz., that this "counting a quorum" means minority legislation—the artificial enactment of a law by perhaps one-third of the House plus one vote, when nearly two-thirds of the House may be opposed to it.

Miss Follett apparently regards the refusal of a member to vote and make a quorum and a dilatory motion as one and the same thing—as obstruction—the obstruction of national legislation by the perverse conduct of the individual member. She cites "one of the oldest rules of the House" as the moral and legal authority which governs the case, and says that every member is "under strong moral obligation to obey the rules requiring him to vote," and that "his acceptance of his trust, and especially his oath of office, make it incumbent upon him to discharge the duty of voting, or at least to help to make up that number by which alone business can be accomplished." But there is an immense moral difference between the member who sits still and holds his tongue and simply refrains from helping the minority of the House to impose their will on the country in the form of a statute, and the member who forces himself upon the House, consumes its time, and, by his positive action, obstructs its business and thwarts the will of the majority. The difference is that the one is trying to maintain and the other is seeking to overthrow the principle that in this country the majority must govern; or, stated differently, the one member is merely *not helping the minority to govern*, and the other is *preventing the majority from governing*. It is true that members should attend the sittings of the House and assist in the transaction of its business, and should not evade the responsibility of voting. These, speaking in a general way, are their duties. It is also true that the Constitution makes a majority of the House a quorum, and allows the majority of a quorum to pass a bill, and that in ordinary matters of legislation this is a convenience. But does this mean that a minority of the House, when it chances to be the majority of a quorum, may seize its opportunity and pass a measure of great magnitude, and at the same time compel those who are opposed to the measure to help enact it into a law? In such tactics the less said about "moral obligation," the better. If the majority of the House think that a bill should be passed, it is their duty to be there and pass it. But should an upright, conscientious man, against his inmost convictions, be compelled by a rule of the House to assist in enacting a statute which he deems to be unjust, unconstitutional, or prejudicial to the general welfare? And is not the obligation imposed by such a rule in such a condition of things a very artificial "moral obligation"—one which must count for very little against the higher obligation which requires the legislator to legislate for what he deems the good of the country? And what matters it whether a man votes "aye" or "nay" so long as his vote will pass the bill?

It does not seem to be observed that there are, indeed, two classes of legislative matters, the ordinary, in which there is no moral or

political question involved, and the extraordinary or political, in which the whole country is interested (as the "salary-grab"), or upon which the whole country is divided (as a tariff bill). In the former, public convenience requires that the majority of the quorum may legislate. In the latter, public convenience is a secondary and trivial consideration. Public honesty and political responsibility are not to be frittered away by rules of the House. What would have been thought of the moral obligation of a member who, by keeping silent, could have defeated the "salary-grab," and by voting "nay" could have passed it? In this country it is the majority which rules, and the majority must be held to its political responsibility. If a new political policy cannot be established by a political majority, it must wait. Obstructing the action of the majority is one thing; relieving them from responsibility is another.

Starting from the premises of "the absolute necessity that some one must assure to the House the opportunity for the proper discharge of its functions," and of the need of leadership and "the lack of leadership" in the House, Miss Follett reaches the conclusions that "the Speaker's power is necessary and salutary"; that "he was never intended to be a moderator"; that "he is the only visible means of escape from a legislative chaos," and that "it is to the interest of good government that the Speaker exercise the responsibility which has gradually come upon him." We deplore this, or rather we deplore that the premises do not cover the whole case, and that the conclusions stop where they do; for our author reasons with such strength and clearness, and fortifies her position with so many illustrative facts, that a large part of her readers will accept her statements as the whole of the case and her conclusions as the end of the whole matter. Even so good a constitutional scholar and so clear a thinker as Prof. Hart says: "I am convinced by it that the Speaker's present status is a natural, normal, and inevitable development of our system of government, and promises good and not evil." These views may be sound for to-day and to-morrow—for this Congress and the next—but they are assuredly short-sighted. Moreover, the ability with which they are presented serves to veil the dangers and evils of the system from the growing intelligence of the country.

What is that system? Miss Follett accurately defines it: The House of Representatives "*is no longer the legislative power*"; "*it is not even the maker of the legislative power; it is but the maker of the real maker, the Speaker.*" The legislative work of the House is done, not by the House, but by fifty-two little star-chambers termed "standing committees." They sit in secret; they keep no record of their proceedings; nothing can be considered which they do not bring before the House; they report what they choose; they withhold what they choose; they are appointed by the Speaker; his power to appoint "is an absolute power"; and he can "constitute the committees so that he may to a great extent procure or prevent what legislation he wishes." Finally, the Speaker can recognize whom he will, and can refuse to recognize whom he will. He can "practically take away the representation of a district." "Cases are not wanting where members have sat through two years of service without ever being permitted to 'catch the Speaker's eye.'" Who is this national dictator? A man selected and chosen by the 357th part of the people of the United States. Well does Miss Follett say: "His status as the leader of the House of Representatives should be looked squarely in the face"; and his position is now "the possession of such important prerogatives without definite responsibility."

Under the head of "omissions" we must express a regret that Miss Follett has not added a chapter on the business methods of the House of Commons. Her work is entitled "The Speaker of the House of Representatives," but it might with equal propriety be entitled "The Way Congress Does Business." A clear statement of the modern methods by which the House of Commons does business would, in connection with her other work, form an invaluable lesson for her countrymen at this time and upon this subject. She alludes to Parliamentary proceedings and the control of the Ministry; but she does not tell us how the legislative time is apportioned between the majority and minority; nor how it is divided between the Government and the members; nor how the right of recognition is distributed without favor among individual members by lot. She alludes to the selection of the committees by a committee; but she does not point out that these committees are composed of members as absolutely impartial as jurymen; that the committees sit with open doors; that they keep a record of all that is said and done, and that that record is published daily for the information of the House. She extols the control of the Premier over the business of Parliament, and, most wisely, his responsibility for what is done and for what is not done; but she does not delineate how his authority is regulated and limited; how he must daily apprise every member of every motion or resolution or bill or amendment which he will bring before the House; how he must yield part of his authority to the Opposition, and part of it to the individual member, and how he and the Opposition and the youngest member stand, when on the floor of the House, upon an equal footing before the higher authority of an impartial Speaker. Of our new American Premier she forcibly says: "He *at one moment* decides what business shall come before the House; *at the next*, appoints the man who shall guide the House during its deliberation upon that business; then may himself take a responsible part in the affair—managing it, debating, and voting upon it—and, finally, he decides questions of order which have arisen *from this very matter*." Assuredly this is Premiership run mad. Miss Follett has shown herself to be admirably qualified to analyze and depict the procedure of English legislation and show the American citizen that the British Premier does not and cannot exercise the unlimited and inconsistent powers of the American Speaker, and that there would be a revolution if he did. Let us hope that a future edition of her work will give us this much-needed lesson.

MORE FICTION.

An Odd Situation. By Stanley Waterloo. Chicago: Way & Williams.

A Mountain Woman. By Elia W. Peattie. Chicago: Way & Williams.

Jersey Street and Jersey Lane. By H. C. Bunner. Charles Scribner's Sons.

HITHERTO we have regarded the introduction of an unknown novelist by one of established reputation as the expression of a kindly desire to give the struggling confrère a good send-off, to induce the public to buy his book and afterwards to read it. In his introduction to 'An Odd Situation,' Sir Walter Besant convinces us that this view of the matter is narrow, if not quite wrong, and shows that the literary introducer is under no obligation to confine his attention either to the person or the thing ostensibly to be introduced. On the contrary, he may detach himself from the supposed subject of discourse and free his brain of whatever burning thoughts happen at the moment to be demanding utterance. When Sir Walter Besant undertook to introduce Mr. Stanley Waterloo and his work, the pressure of accumulated information about the city of Chicago was apparently more than he could bear. He was feeling that the ignorance of the British public about Chicago was intolerable and must be enlightened, no matter under what pretext or at whose expense. So he proceeded to write an historical sketch uniting the Chicago of sixty years ago, "a kind of barbican, or advanced post, against the red Indians," with the Chicago of last April, which, we infer from his description, was then a kind of Athens, or last defence of refinement and cultivation against barbarians of whatever color. His appreciation of the greatness of Chicago is really very affecting, and, "given" all the facilities and capacities which he says must be "given," we see no reason for dissenting from his reflection that "it would be strange indeed if there did not come out of all this a growth of literature worthy of joining the literature of Shakspere, Milton," etc.

Probably no deprecating protest will be heard except, perhaps, from Mr. Stanley Waterloo, who may feel that his story will be judged as an illustration of the progress already made by Chicago towards a juncture with the great English literature. One cannot help sympathizing with the unfortunate gentleman for having been used as a milestone, for there is nothing in his work to suggest a vanity so complacent as to claim, or an ambition so vaulting as to covet, such distinction. The story is written in the first person, and the narrator frequently regrets that he has not the skill to make it as interesting in the telling as it was in the living. The regret will be perfectly comprehensible to most readers and ungrudgingly approved by all. The characters are plain farmers—very plain, indeed—slow in talk, sober in reflection, very genuinely uninteresting. The incidents, chiefly relating to the annoyance inflicted on those farmers whose lands lie partly in the United States and partly in Canada, are not exciting. A gift of humor might have saved the tale, but Mr. Stanley Waterloo of Chicago lacks that as completely as the gift of narrative. Sir Walter Besant, having arrived at his author in the last paragraph of the introduction, says cautiously that it is not his business to speak in commendation of the book. There we differ with him without apology, and say that, in the premises, it is rather more his business than to "boom" Chicago or any literary group or publishers therein. If he could not praise Mr. Waterloo, he should have let him alone and confided his precious impressions to a railway bill or other advertising medium.

Such shabby treatment of an author by an introducer is, we believe, unparalleled, for it is equivalent to announcing that there is nothing in the book to praise, and is therefore grossly unjust to Mr. Waterloo. Few authors have a finer or juster sentiment for nature, and very few are so modest, serious, and sincere. Moreover, he is instructive, having gone rather deeply into the effect of perpetual fried pork and pie on the body and mind of the

American rustic. His conclusions on this vital issue are admirably acute. Equally just, and supported by neat little parallel columns of statistics, are his reflections on the absurdity and positive harmfulness of the invisible customs line between the United States and Canada. Canada appears to be the chief sufferer, and the political argument tends to indicate her folly in preserving allegiance to the Empire. Putting one thing together with another, we have a suspicion that the loyal British novelist may not have read the book he introduces.

The transportation of a magnificent primitive female, a daughter of nature, from a mountain fastness or isle of the ocean to a giddy centre of fashion is a favorite operation in fiction. Long ago Mr. Black performed it successfully in 'A Princess of Thule,' and recently Mr. Meredith has done it vigorously and volubly. As a matter of fact, no woman ever inspired the same sort of sentiment as a mountain or a cataract—an abstract, impersonal sentiment exclusive of sympathy; and the sight of one whose appearance actually did suggest such objects would probably inspire more dismay than admiration. Against the few successes in humanizing a dryad, nymph, or mermaid may be scored innumerable failures, and of these none more complete than "A Mountain Woman," the first of a volume of short stories by Ella W. Peattie. This author has not shown discrimination in giving the first place to the stolid, enigmatical lady, described by an ardent lover as a "remnant left over from the heroic ages." All the subsequent tales, some soberly realistic and some pleasingly fantastic, are infinitely better, both in idea and in treatment. "Jim Lacy's Waterloo" is an impressive sketch of the trials that encompass the farmer in Nebraska, and the horrors of loneliness and thankless labor that frequently drive mad the farmer's wife. It is easy to see why a man with Lacy's strong passions and limited intelligence should fall on the Government and Eastern capitalists as responsible for untimely drought, the casual cyclone, dear transportation, and low prices. He must vent his bitter disappointment on something tangible, or curse God and die. His raving about the relation between fiat money and universal prosperity is just as much like argument as is the familiar declamation of the professional Populist orator. The assumption is false and the words are foolish, but in Lacy's case, as in many others, the facts behind are tragic. The remaining stories of the volume have a pathetic strain, with enough lightness to mitigate the hopelessness of "Lacy's Waterloo."

Mr. Bunner's last volume, entitled 'Jersey Street and Jersey Lane,' includes reminiscences of the New York of his boyhood, sketches of life seen from his office window, and some incidents of suburban life, trivial in themselves, but of absorbing interest to the participators. The work, with its casual narrative and accompanying serious or humorous reflection, is that of an essayist—work in which Mr. Bunner was not so perfectly at home as in verse or fiction. It is all pleasant and smooth and supremely tolerant, but there is something lacking, and we think that something is control of his subject and spontaneity, both characteristic qualities of most of his work. In some of the sketches the matter is a little thin; only a very accomplished essayist could use it effectively without seeming to strain points and to be finding the affair rather tiresome. In others, noticeably "The Bowery and Bohemia," there is a surplus of matter, and here we find a failure of synthesis and concentration. The knowledge and the feeling for a great picture of New York's most famous highway are both evident, but the composition is capricious and scrappy, the impression is tantalizingly incomplete, and the reader feels that the Bowery has just missed a chance of assured immortality.

Proportional Representation. By John R. Commons. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Mr. COMMONS gives a fair account of the origin, progress, and present condition of the movement for minority or proportional representation, now nearly forty years before the public. The conclusions which the story seems to establish are, first, that there is no great difficulty in making a proportional system work so as to produce a legislative body in which the numerical relations between the parties will reflect pretty accurately those in the electorate; second, that the other results predicted for it have never been attained. Its advocates in this country have always made the mistake of expecting too much from it. See, they say, what a shocking condition our legislatures are in: assemblies of unknown, ignorant, corrupt men, legislating in the interest of jobs and at the dictation of a boss—why do we not find our best men there? Why do we not elect our leading lawyers, merchants, publicists, scientific men? What is it that keeps such men out? The answer they give is, that the whole thing is due to a single cause—the fact that the voter, by the present system of representation, is compelled to choose between one of two party tickets, the names on which he has little or no voice in selecting. It ought to be possible for him in a free country to vote for any one he desires to see elected. Give him the combination of the "cumulative vote" and the "free ticket," says Mr. Commons, and he will vote freely, put good men in nomination, fill our legislatures with them, and redeem the country.

Now, as a matter of fact, wherever any sort of proportional representation has been introduced, as, for instance, in Illinois, where the cumulative vote has been on trial for twenty years, no difference in the character of the representation has been produced. The nominations are the old party nominations, and the Legislature is the same old body that it always was. Ah, it is said in reply, but that is because the cumulative system is not the true plan. Under it the party is still supreme; a plan must be introduced which will make the individual independent of party. A slight change in the machinery will do that. But the difficulty about the whole matter is that the argument rests on the assumption that the voter wants to be independent of party, and of this there is very little evidence. All the evidence brought forward in this book is that wherever any sort of proportional representation is introduced, what the voter tries to do, and usually succeeds in doing, is to make it tell, not in the way of freeing himself from party, but of getting all the advantage out of it he can for his party. Moreover, there is nothing in the present system to prevent voters, say in a city like New York—a community more important in population and wealth than most of the States—from combining together and putting up independent candidates. Not only this, but it has been demonstrated over and over again that, by combining against both parties, an independent mayor can be elected. How often is it done?

The fact is, and no political system can afford to ignore it, that the natural inclination of the average man is not to be independent, and spend his time thinking and consulting with his friends and neighbors as to who is the best person for mayor or representative or even coroner; but to let some one else do it for him, while he shelters himself behind the Party in whose name it is done. An obscure person—and the greater part of the human race are still obscure—gives himself importance by being able to label himself Republican or Democrat. It connects him with a great historical organization, a nation within a nation. Independence of character and mind is exceptional; independent movements are exceptional; and even when independent persons unite for a temporary object, their independence will drive them apart again when that object is attained.

This very peculiarity of human nature no doubt makes it all the more important that every opportunity for independent action in politics should be given, and it need hardly be said that we are in favor of reinforcing motives to independence wherever they exist; but it seems to be still an open question whether any system of proportional representation yet invented does tend in the direction of independence or not. One thing is quite clear, that a system difficult to understand cannot encourage independence, because one reason why people are not independent is on account of the mental effort it costs. One great beauty of party is that it saves mental effort and study. Now for anybody to make an intelligent use of the combination of the cumulative vote and the free ticket requires a good deal of mental effort, and the average voter will not make it. The people who will make it are the party managers, but not in the interest of independence. To sum up the whole matter, the impression produced on our mind by the arguments and by the evidence of Mr. Commons is precisely the opposite of that which he seeks to produce. It is that the general tendency of the elaborate system of proportional representation which he recommends would be to increase rather than to diminish the hold of the party managers on the great mass of voters.

The Ouananiche and its Canadian Environment. By E. T. D. Chambers. Harper & Bros. 1896. 8vo, pp. xxii, 357, illustrated.

OUANANICHE is a Canadian name, from the Montagnais Indian, applied to the common salmon of eastern North America. Individuals that reach the sea change slightly in appearance, and then are differently named. The landlocked salmon, so called, of New England and the ouananiche of the region to the northward differ only in name. Excepting an occasional outside excursion, the territory covered by Mr. Chambers's book is the great Labrador peninsula, and attention is directed chiefly to the region about Lake St. John. The author is more than a contemplative angler and a good writer; he is a careful student and an excellent observer. By scientific treatment of his subject he has produced one of the most valuable works in the literature of angling. Beyond the direct interests of the angler, immediately relating to the salmon, their haunts, habits, capture, and fellows in the waters, it contains the latest information regarding the country, with the best accounts of the scenery, routes, guides,

or game, and a chapter on the Montagnais, their folklore and their language. With frequent glimpses of forests and lakes and streams, hardly yet explored, which year by year attract greater numbers of our brethren to the other side of the St. Lawrence in pursuit of adventure, sport, or recreation, the pages are enlivened by vivid portrayals of scenes in the wilderness telling of the perils of navigation, of the skill of the guides, of the struggles with the game, of the blessed freedom from restraint, of the wild men and the abundance of wild things in the midst of the wildest surroundings, in such terms as surely will quicken the pulses of men whose souls inspire in sympathy with that of nature. Tourists and lovers of the rod and gun have special reason to be grateful to Mr. Chambers.

There are repetitions, and it would be strange if there were not. The book is something too long. It would have been more readable if divided into two parts; the diversity of subject-matter, and the fact that nearly every chapter is an essay in itself, making such a division practicable. Apart from these minor faults we have noted one or two unimportant inaccuracies, born of the writer's enthusiasm for his subject. One could wish that he had devoted more space to the final chapter, on the Montagnais Indians. This tribe, until the most recent times, has been almost unknown to the world outside of the Hudson's Bay trappers and traders, and, in its unenlightened savagery and strange traditions, its tenacity of ancient customs and wild and unexplored habitat, offers a more interesting study to-day than does any other North American tribe.

The Works of Max Beerbohm. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

We have here seven essays in a light vein. They could have been produced only by the life of London, and London essays they emphatically are. The best of them, "The Pervasion of Rouge," is in praise of Artifice. Everything about it is artificial, the style, the subject, and the ideas. Yet it is based upon an underlying truth which redeems it from absurdity. Hardly any one can question that there is a tendency to reaction in many quarters against the worship of nature which marked the taste of a previous generation. Especially is this true of London, where from time to time a cult—such, for instance, as that of æstheticism—breaks out without rhyme or reason, except that it is in some way connected with art—art being in these cases merely a particular kind of artificiality. Euphuism in the Elizabethan period must have been produced by the same sort of fashionable reaction in favor of the artificial. According to Mr. Beerbohm, rouge and the paste-pot are coming in again as a protest against too much nature; and being, in this field, a reformer, he predicts all sorts of good results. One of them is that the face will no longer be regarded as a vulgar test of character or emotion—a view which tends to "degrade the face æsthetically"—but as something to be prepared by its owner as a thing of beauty for the delectation of observers. Not only this, but the face, well painted and rouged, being no longer a thermometer of the emotions, literature will have to give us real psychological studies in order to make us know what goes on in the mind and heart. A blush, for instance, will no longer mean anything as an indication of shame; a sudden paleness, as the index of fear, will be out of the question. Thus soul will be separated from face, and one will cease to be a mere key for the study of the other. Besides, of all kinds of artifice, surely self-beautification is one of those most obviously suggested by reason and instinct. This, it may be said, raises the question whether such artifice is not open to the objection that it is natural; but the difficulty will be insisted on only by pettifoggers.

Mr. Beerbohm's volume is one of conceits, marked by a good deal of humor and cleverness, and marred by the single fault that he has little or nothing to say. Under these circumstances it is not without reason that he sings the praises of the artificial.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amram, D. W. The Jewish Law of Divorce according to Bible and Talmud. Philadelphia: Edward Stern & Co.

Balzac, H. de. Modeste Mignon.—The Rise and Fall of César Birotteau. Macmillan. 2 vols. Each $1.50.

Barss, J. E. Cornelius Nepos: Selected Lives. Macmillan. 40c.

Chetwood, J., jr. Immigration Fallacies. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 75c.

Daudet, A. Thirty Years of Paris and of My Literary Life. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.

Edwards, Rev J. T. Addresses: Educational, Political, Scientific, Religious. Eaton & Maine.

Field, E. Revolutionary Defences in Rhode Island. Providence: Preston & Rounds. $2 25

Hill, C. S. The Chicago Drainage Channel. New York: *Engineering News* Publishing Co. $1.50.

History of Banking in all the Leading Nations. Vol. iii. New York: *The Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.*

Houssaye, A. Souvenirs de Jeunesse. Paris: E. Flammarion; New York: Brentano's

How, W. W., and Leigh, H. D. History of Rome to the Death of Cæsar. Longmans. $2.

Kölbing, E. Lord Byron's Werke. 2 vols. The Siege of Corinth.—The Prisoner of Chillon, and Other Poems. Weimar: Emil Felber; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Larison, Dr. C. W. Elements of Orthoepy. Ringoes, N. J.: Fonic Publishing House

Le Soudier, H. Bibliographie Française: Recueil de Catalogues des Éditeurs Français, accompagné d'une table alphabétique par noms d'auteurs et d une table systématique. 6 vols. Paris: H. Le Soudier; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. $18 50.

Life and Speeches of William J. Bryan and Arthur Sewall. New York: J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co 25c.

Lindsey, W. Cinder-path Tales. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.

Lydekker, R. A Geographical History of Mammals. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.60.

McCarthy, J. Pope Leo XIII. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.

Miller, Prof K. Die Aeltesten Weltkarten. Part 4. Die Herefordkarte. Stuttgart: Roth; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Morley, J. Life of Richard Cobden. New ed. 2 vols. Macmillan. $3.

Moulton, Prof. R. G. Genesis. Macmillan. 50c.

Mühlbrecht O. Die Bücherliebhaberei (Bibliophilie—Bibliomanie) am Ende des 19. Jahrhunderts. Berlin: Puttkammer & Mühlbrecht: New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Munro, J. The Story of Electricity. D. Appleton & Co.

Newberry, Fanny R. Strange Conditions. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co $1 25.

Nichols, E. H. Elementary and Constitutional Geometry. Longmans, Green & Co. 75c.

O'Reil, Max. John Bull & Co. Cassell Publishing Co. 50c.

Pollock, Sir F. First Book of Jurisprudence for Students of the Common Law Macmillan. $1 75.

Pontoppidan, H. The Promised Land. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.

Robertson, Prof G. C. Elements of Psychology. Scribners. $1.

Robinson, Rev. J. B. The New Woman, and Other Poems. Chicago: C. M. Barnes Co. 75c.

Rolfe, W. J. Shakspere the Boy. Harper & Bros. $1.25.

Sangster, Margaret E. With My Neighbors. Harper & Bros. $1.25.

Schönbach, A. E. Walther von der Vogelweide. Berlin: Ernst Hofmann & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner

Selborne, Earl Memorials. Part I. Family and Personal. 1766-1865. 2 vols. Macmillan $8.

Social Observances. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.

Socio Economic Mythes and Mythe-Makers. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.

Tennyson, A. Rizpah, and Other Poems.—The Voyage of Maeldune, and Other Poems. Macmillan. 2 vols. Each 45c.

Thomas, Rev L. B. The Thomas Book: Genealogies of Sir Rhys ap Thomas, K. G., the Thomas Family descended from him, and of some Allied Families. New York: Henry T Thomas Co.

Thurston, I. T. Don Malcolm. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1 25.

Titchener, E. B. Outline of Psychology. Macmillan. $1 90

Usher, E. P. Protestantism: A Study in the Direction of Religious Truth and Christian Unity. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.00.

Wotton, Mabel E. Day-Books. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.

Zittel, Prof. K. A. von. Text-book of Palæontology. Vol. i., part i. Macmillan. $2.75.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 17, 1896.

The Week.

THE full significance of Monday's election in Maine can be appreciated only in comparison with the corresponding elections of Presidential years during the past quarter of a century:

	Rep. vote.	Dem. vote.	Rep. plurality.
1872	71,917	54,701	17,216
1876	75,867	60,423	15,444
1884	78 913	59,061	19,851
1888	70,898	61,850	18,048
1892	67,600	55,078	12,522
1896	88,000	84,000	49,000

Nothing like this has ever been known, or even remotely approached, in the history of Maine, or of any other State in the Union. The surrender to Populism has split the Democratic party in Maine almost evenly in two. About two-fifths of those who voted for a Cleveland candidate for Governor four years ago refused to vote for the Bryan candidate on Monday, or voted directly for his Republican opponent. Even in the last year of the war, when Democracy insisted that the war was a failure, the party was able to poll 45,332 votes. The September election in Maine undoubtedly shows the way that the November election in the nation will go. The only thing now left is to insure that the national verdict shall be as emphatic.

The full returns of the Vermont election show that the surrender of the Chicago convention to Populism cost the Democrats more than one-fifth of their vote of 1892, the total falling from 19,171 to 14,961. The full significance of this is not appreciated until one considers that the Democracy of Vermont is more "rock-ribbed" than that of any other Northern State. It takes a good deal of grit to be a Democrat in many a town, and when a man has once taken his stand for life with that party, he is generally ready to vote the regular ticket under any and all circumstances. That more than one-fifth of the party should refuse to support its candidate this year shows the existence of a revolt which is likely to cause still greater ravages in other States where independent voting is more common.

A Senator is to be chosen by the South Carolina Legislature which will be elected in November. An agreement was reached that candidates should submit their claims to the people at primaries. Tillman wanted Governor Evans for his colleague, and expected that the knowledge of his wish would settle the matter. At the first trial no one of the three candidates had a majority. The vote was taken over again last week with only Governor Evans and Judge Earle in the field. The Tillman machine made the most desperate efforts to win; State officers, county officers, and the whole force of the dispensary system being used in the Governor's behalf. Tillman made it a personal matter, and announced that, "if Governor Evans is defeated, it is the beginning of the end" of Tillmanism. The result is the conclusive defeat of Tillman's man, and to that extent of Tillman himself. Governor Evans was rejected, and Judge Earle received a majority of several thousands. The successful candidate is a man of character and ability, who will represent the State honorably. For this the whole nation has reason to rejoice.

For the first time in the history of the country a regularly nominated candidate of a great party for the Presidency has been formally repudiated by the national Administration of his party. President Cleveland, his Secretary of the Treasury, his Attorney-General, and all the other members of his cabinet make public announcement that they do not consider Mr. Bryan a true representative of the principles of their party, that they regard his candidacy as a menace to the national honor and welfare, and that they support heartily the Democratic ticket which has been nominated in opposition to him. No such political disaster as this has ever befallen a candidate for the Presidency at the opening of his campaign, or at any other stage of it. When it follows upon the revolt of over 200 of the journals of the party, comprising its strongest members in nearly all parts of the country, and the refusal of the leading men of the party to support him, this disaster brings the Bryan campaign to the point of collapse two months before election day. There is no longer any doubt that the entire moral force of the Democratic party, its stability, character, and intelligence, has decided to oppose Bryan. Thousands of these voters will support McKinley, as the surest way of defeating Bryan, and thousands more will vote for Palmer and Buckner. The great usefulness of the latter ticket lies in the fact that it gives opportunity for Democrats to enter the campaign with speeches and documents against Bryan. The speeches at the Louisville ratification meeting on Saturday, by Messrs. Palmer and Buckner and by Messrs. Caffery and Bynum, go to Democrats as the views of Democratic leaders whom the party honors and trusts, and they have vastly more influence in turning Democrats away from Bryan than Republican speeches and documents could have. They enter unquestioned into the Democratic households of the land, and their plain exposition of what Bryanism really is will play such havoc among Democratic voters that, when election day arrives, it is likely to have little support save that which the Populists and Anarchists give it.

Having got the National Silver party off his hands the day before, Mr. Bryan returned on Wednesday week to the subject of the Chicago platform in a formal letter accepting the nomination conferred by the convention which framed that platform. This letter is more after the usual style than most of his deliverances, although, of course, he has to work in such a phrase as "the cause which greed is prosecuting against humanity." The greater part of the letter demands and invites no comment whatever. It is interesting, however, to note that he tries to dodge the natural interpretation of the Altgeld plank about federal interference by making it relate simply to the "domestic affairs" of a State, whereas the action taken by President Cleveland in 1894, which was so bitterly condemned by the Governor of Illinois, grew out of interference with the transmission of the mails and of interstate commerce. On the subject of the civil service Mr. Bryan arrays himself openly on the side of the spoilsmen by clap-trap talk against "life tenure" and "a permanent office-holding class," and by advocating a general extension of the fixed-term system introduced under Jackson, which has been the fruitful source of evils for two generations. The tariff Mr. Bryan dismisses as of no account in comparison with the issue of the monetary standard, and he is quite right in thinking that the votes this year will be cast with reference to that issue.

Attorney-General Harmon treats Mr. Bryan with great consideration in courteously assuming that the latter was merely committing an "inadvertence" when he denied, in his letter of acceptance, that the President had any authority under the Constitution to maintain the authority and enforce the laws of the United States within the boundaries of a State unless requested to do so by the Legislature and Governor of the State. Mr. Bryan called it "interfering with the domestic affairs" of any State, but there is no doubt whatever that he had in mind the Chicago railway riots of 1894, and was putting himself squarely in line with Debs and the Chicago platform against Presidential interference in such disturbances in future. He is after the turbulent labor vote of the country, and knows perfectly well what he is advocating. Mr. Harmon is not a particle too emphatic when he says that this "is a far more serious matter than the money question, or any of the other questions now before the people, grave as they are." As he says, his statement of what the Constitution really provides is well known

to lawyers and students of the Constitution, and in the minds of all such persons there is no question of the authority under which the President acted. Neither is there any question of the entire accuracy of Mr. Harmon's estimate of what the Bryan-Debs-Altgeld view of the matter would bring us to:

"It was under the power conferred that the late rebellion was suppressed. Mr. Bryan's doctrine that this law is unconstitutional is more dangerous than that of secession. The latter at least left the Government some power and authority in the territory of States which should choose to remain. Mr. Bryan's would reduce it to the idle mimicry of the stage."

Mr. Harmon cites the resolution which Senator Daniel proposed and the Senate passed on July 12, 1894, warmly approving President Cleveland's action, and declaring that he "has the full sympathy and support of the law-abiding masses of the people of the United States, and he will be supported by all departments of the Government and by the power and resources of the entire nation." A like resolution was passed in the House a few days later, but we search the *Congressional Record* in vain to find any protest against it from Mr. Bryan. His fellow-Popocrats in this campaign, Lafe Pence and Mr. Bland, protested vigorously, but, though Mr. Bryan was present, as a vote on another question taken immediately after this resolution was disposed of showed, he had nothing whatever to say. The resolution was passed by a *viva-voce* vote, the demand for the ayes and noes not being sustained. Where was Bryan as the friend of the people, the champion of downtrodden labor, the upholder of the Constitution, in this crisis? He was not running for the Presidency then, and was not seeking the turbulent labor vote as he is now.

Mr. Hobart is extremely fortunate in having his letter of acceptance appear simultaneously with Mr. Bryan's. He devotes three-fourths of his letter to a presentation of reasons against the free coinage of silver and for the maintenance of the gold standard, and his arguments are clear and cogent. He makes a strong presentation of the injury that would be suffered by depositors in savings banks, shareholders in building and loan associations, pensioners, and other classes of people who have saved money or have been receiving money that was as good as gold. Particularly commendable is his readiness to declare that the gold standard is the best possible standard, and to state what "an honest dollar" means, as when he says:

"Any nation which is worthy of credit or confidence can afford to say explicitly, on a question so vital to every interest, what it means, when such meaning is challenged or doubted. It is desirable that we should make it known, at once and authoritatively, that an 'honest dollar' means any dollar equivalent to a gold dollar of the present standard of weight and fineness. The world should likewise be assured that the standard dollar of America is as inflexible a quantity as the French Napoleon, the British sovereign, or the German twenty-mark piece."

Political turpitude has seldom put itself more openly and shamelessly on exhibition than in the action of those State Democratic conventions which are reversing themselves on the silver issue. The New Jersey Democrats last May adopted what was probably the soundest and stoutest currency plank of the year. They were for a "firm, unvarying maintenance of the gold standard," and "unalterably opposed to all devices and schemes for the debasement of our currency." Last week at Trenton the same Democrats (or nominally and officially the same) showed what their unalterable opposition was good for by going for the Chicago platform with enthusiasm. In Pennsylvania the abandonment of conviction was even baser, as actually the same men who in April were for gold, in September are for silver. It was not a new convention, but the April convention reconvened. What in April was un-Democratic, dangerous, dishonest, is now "thoroughly Democratic and purely American"! The merciful Providence that fashioned men hollow on purpose that they might their principles swallow, must look upon the work of his hands in New Jersey and Pennsylvania and pronounce it good.

Nothing seems to have hit the Bryan newspaper organs nearer the belt than the exposure of the forgery which attributed to the London *Financial News* an opinion that free silver coinage would lift America to the pinnacle of prosperity and hurl England into the depths of commercial ruin. We do not think there is a free-silver newspaper in this country which has not copied this alleged opinion, British though it was, and it has been sent out in sheets by general and local committees. The flat denial of the London journal that it ever expressed such an opinion could be met in only one of two ways, either by acknowledging the "mistake" or by impeaching the denial. The latter seems to be the course decided on by the Bryanite press. The Philadelphia *Item* declares that it has made strenuous efforts to obtain a copy of the *Financial News* of the date to which the opinion quoted was credited, but that "a liberal offer in London has thus far failed" to fetch one, and "the natural inference is that the entire edition has been destroyed, as they refuse to let you see the files." We have no doubt that if the *Item* will go through the public libraries, it will find that the edition of March 10 has also been cut out of the bound files. This would be just like a British editor. But what mystifies us is why this particular editor, who was so ready to assist the American silver cause in the early spring, withdraws the hand of friendship entirely in midsummer.

A Chicago banking firm, Peabody, Houghteling & Co., publishes a list of the "gold-bugs" who have bought gold mortgages through them during the past four months. Widows predominate in the number of investors, thus adding one more to the many reasons for bewaring of them known to the elder Weller. What could be more nefarious or more convincing evidence of the need of a change in our oppressive currency laws than the greedy haste of widows to invest their $500 to $3,500 insurance money in Chicago mortgages, and their actually insisting upon being paid back as much as they loan? These are the real "money-changers" and persons of "fixed incomes," for whose destruction Mr. Bryan so loudly calls. With these grinders of the faces of the poor the free-coinage law will deal sternly, as it will also with the clergymen, the clerks, the retired army and navy officers, the authors, the hospitals and colleges, whose investments are recorded in the lists. Down with the Widows! No Savings-Bank Domination!

President Walker hastens to resent and denounce the efforts of George Fred Williams and other silver orators to make him out an authority in favor of free coinage. This he calls "folly" and "suicidal," and says that all the leading bimetallists of Europe consider the attempt to establish free coinage in this country alone as a terrible blow to their cherished hopes. It was not necessary for President Walker to assure those who know him that he is firmly opposed to the Bryan madness. But, in the great dearth of "professors" to give aid and comfort to the silver reasoners, his name has been a godsend, and has been so freely used that it is well to have him disavow all connection with repudiationists. At the same time it is rather funny to find him so indignant over the baseness of using his "argument" for international free coinage as an argument for independent free coinage. Arguments are strange things, and are wrested by the unlearned to their own destruction with uncommon ease. When President Walker and the other New England bimetallists put out their silver programme early in 1894, just after the fearful struggle to repeal the Sherman law, they carried great joy to the camp of the cheap-money men, and were perhaps the most potent single force in causing a revival of the silver craze. We admit that it is possible to discriminate between their arguments and those of the 50-cent-dollar men, but the distinction is too fine for the common mind to draw.

An advance in the Bank of England's official discount rate is the traditional recourse, on the London market, to check or modify a heavy outflow of gold. Such an advance ordinarily serves its purpose,

in part, if not in full. The theory of the change in the discount rate is that the Bank of England, being the largest single lender on the London money market, ceases to loan money except at a rate above existing open-market quotations. By so doing it gives an upward tendency to London money rates in general. If then the subsequent advance in the open market goes far enough, capital will be drawn to London from all other important money markets, with a result, in the first place, of turning the foreign exchanges partly in London's favor, and therefore, in the second place, of checking the gold export from England. This is a perfectly simple and mechanical operation, and is especially efficacious in stopping a heavy gold movement from London to the Continent. Of course, however, the success of such a measure must depend largely upon two other factors in the situation. The open London money market must be in shape to follow the rise in the Bank of England rate; if it were not, the Bank would simply lose its own business to no purpose. But, more than this, the operation, to effect its purpose, must not be offset by an unusually heavy foreign trade indebtedness. If, for example, England's merchandise imports from Germany had been doubled, without the doubling of its exports to Germany, there is reason to doubt whether a rise in the Bank of England's discount rate could check in any large degree the flow of gold to Germany. Now this, as it happens, is precisely the present situation as between Great Britain and the United States. For the seven months ending July 31, this country exported to Europe nearly $69,000,000 more of merchandise than we sent in the same months of 1895. We have imported also $43,000,000 less. The result is a foreign credit balance this year, on merchandise trade alone, of $90,743,609, against an actual debit balance last year of $21,219,092. August returns will probably emphasize this difference.

The Treasury circular entitled "Information respecting United States bonds, paper currency, coin, etc.," contains the mint estimates of gold and silver production during the calendar year 1895—figures not previously published. Our readers are already familiar with the great increase in the world's gold output, which rose from $180,626,100 in 1894 to $203,000,000 in 1895. But the equally remarkable increase in the world's silver production has attracted less general notice. The world's output of silver, reckoned in coining value, was $226,000,000 in 1895. This was an increase of $9,107,000 over 1894, of $28,000,000 over 1892, and of $144,200,000 over 1873. The particular significance of this enormous and continuous increase in the silver output is the light which it sheds on the probable amount of depreciated metal which would be thrown upon our mints if silver free coinage were adopted. The more conservative bimetallists have lately harped upon the allegation that no "flood of foreign silver" could submerge our currency, because, as they declare, all foreign silver is in the shape of coin, whose value would be lost by melting. There is reason to doubt the force of even this contention regarding foreign coin. But it is quite sufficient to point out the fact, embodied in these mint returns for 1895, that in a year when the market price of silver bullion was almost at its lowest, enough was mined to have forced $226,000,000 new silver dollars into our circulation. Of this product, moreover, $154,000,000 worth, or 68 per cent., was produced outside of the United States. To what total the annual production would advance were coinage of silver opened free to all comers at our mints, is a matter of conjecture merely. Four hundred millions' worth pressing annually for coinage into legal-tender dollars is no excessive estimate.

A notice in the *Journal des Économistes* of the various bimetallic publications of the month says that "most of the authors have great need, in truth, of learning what are money, supply and demand, exchange, credit, and all commercial negotiations," but they are not aware of it. One of them, M. Allard, declares that everybody, except a few ignorant and obstinate economists, is of his way of thinking, and adds that an "enormous party is rising, North and South, East and West, crying for the free coinage of silver." There is no doubt that the complete mental soundness of bimetallists has long been suspected and discourteously questioned by some of their opponents. We know of one who says that every bimetallist he has ever known had a far, vague look in his eyes. But the fact is that they are not madder than all believers in a social panacea. Every man who thinks he can diffuse plenty through a smiling land by a single stroke of the pen, becomes so excited by the prospect that he makes bystanders doubt his soundness on other topics. Money has been seized on by these enthusiastic individuals because its influence is so tremendous, and the bimetallists are rarely business men, and have to meet a good many sneers and much ridicule. But if they knew all the things the *Journal des Économistes* says they ought to know, they would not be bimetallists. No business man, for instance, wants two standards, because business has never been done on two standards. Nor would any absolutely sane man expect nations to change their currency because *he* thought gold had appreciated and goods had not fallen. Nor would he believe, as some do, that God Almighty had forbidden the demonetization of silver. We must regard bimetallists as agitators, not financiers.

The growing belief in Europe that some decisive action must soon be taken by the Powers in Constantinople is not hard to account for. Time has shown what a complete mockery was the Sultan's promise of reform, with which European diplomacy had to be content a year ago. He lacks either the power or the will, or both, to carry out the reforms he pledged himself to effect. The present situation would be regarded by everybody as intolerable were there not a reasonable fear that any proposed or possible change would but lead to a situation still more intolerable. To depose the present Sultan, as is suggested, and set up another one in his stead, might work in Zanzibar, but would promise little improvement in Turkey. It is doubtless the system, the conditions, the inherited traditions of the Sultan's rule, and not the mere man who happens to be Sultan, that makes Turkish government such an anachronism. The incredible thing is that the civilized Powers should much longer protect a government which would be destroyed by its own cruelty and blindness were it not so supported. We have reason to know that a break-up of some sort is thought to be inevitable by the oldest American residents in the Turkish Empire. The American professors in Robert College, with other Americans resident in Constantinople, have a regular drill that they go through in anticipation of the smash. Every man, woman, and child knows just what to do—to just what legation or battle-ship to fly for protection—the moment the general insurrection and massacring begin. They do not know when it will begin, but that it will begin some day they feel certain, and think it only reasonable caution to be ready.

Spain continues to put forth desperate efforts to hold Cuba. She now has 40,000 additional troops on the way to the island to be ready for operations in the fall. This will make a total of nearly 175,000 men sent out in less than two years. No such force was ever sent so great a distance by sea to wage war. The cost is enormous for a nation of impaired resources, and it seems to be the opinion of London financiers that it will force Spain into bankruptcy if it has to be borne much longer. Meanwhile new complications arise to worry her rulers in the shape of revolutions in Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands. Whether these have been incited, as Prime Minister Cánovas asserts, by Cuban emissaries, it is not important to know. The point is that they call for more troops and more money, when it appeared as if the last available man and the last borrowable dollar had already been requisitioned. The Spanish generals are not saying so much as they were a year ago about a speedy suppression of the Cuban rebellion, but they are probably more keenly conscious than they were then that it must be suppressed quickly or not at all.

"FREE COINAGE EXPLAINED."

THE precise way in which the new silver dollars were to reach the people when the silver régime was established, has engaged the best thought of the silver party, but all have felt that it was a subject of great difficulty. The first and cruder view was that an office of Silver Distributor would be created in each State, on the model of our liquor law, with Assistant Distributors under him in each county, whose duty it would be to pass the silver out to the people as fast as it was coined. But what was to be the rule of distribution? How much silver was each person to get? Well, the earlier thought on this point was that each person was to get sixteen dollars, and that this was the true and honest interpretation of the maxim "16 to 1." But necessarily an error of this sort could not last long, and could find currency only among our more simple-minded citizens. The correct explanation of the phrase 16 to 1 speedily made its way to the front. It was soon understood that 16 to 1 meant that the nations were to agree that every one who had an ounce of gold was to be able to procure for it sixteen ounces of silver. But no sooner was this explanation diffused than a new difficulty arose. Even the most ignorant could not understand why, if they could get thirty-two ounces of silver for one ounce of gold in the market now, the nations were to agree that they should hereafter get only sixteen. They understood the market practice of taking all you could get, but they could not understand being bound to take only about half what you could get. This point has not yet been cleared up, and this province of the subject remains to this moment a good deal of a muddle.

The clearest and most convincing excursus on the subject we have seen is a paper issued by Mr. Henkle of Rochester, N. Y., under the heading of this article. He shows what free coinage really means, in terms and with an authority so clear that nobody can hereafter honorably profess ignorance on the subject. The Government is to buy silver at the market price, 53 cents to the dollar, and coin it into dollars at 100 cents—profit to the Government, 47 cents. Some donkeys may suppose that it is the value of the silver that makes the dollar, whereas "it is the Government stamp of authority." "Isn't this plain and true?" asks Mr. Henkle. We should think so. To us it seems plain as a pikestaff. Well, now, how are these dollars to reach the people, and how is the Government to get its profits? Nothing easier. The Government is to buy material for 600,000,000 silver dollars from the Western mine-owners at the market price. For this it can pay with 318,000,000 legal-tender dollars, and thus have a profit of $282,000,000. It is then to establish a State bank in each State and county, and in it deposit this money, and these banks are to lend the money to the people, on the usual security, at 3 per cent. In this way the Government is to have control of all the money in the community, and to relieve a suffering people from the payment of all taxes, and it appears that this control of all the money in the community by the Government is provided for by the Constitution of the United States—a point which, we confess, we had not noticed ourselves. Nothing more admirable for the relief of the taxpayer than this plan of buying silver and paying for it with legal-tender dollars coined out of it has as yet been produced, and its best feature is its simplicity.

But we cannot say we are altogether satisfied with Mr. Henkle's way of distributing the silver among the people, and we fear it will excite much discontent. It will be observed that it is to be entirely by way of loan, "on the securities now furnished to banks." Now, we must remind him that one of the most devilish of the devices resorted to by those "thieving instituti ns," the banks, for the oppression of the poor is the exaction of security for loans, and, above all, what these monsters call "good" or "gilt-edged securities," meaning stocks or bonds capable of being sold on the exchange at a certain price. How many honest citizens allow their homes to be defiled by such securities? Why, not even 10 per cent. The great mass are far too proud, and too American, let us say, to allow such things to enter their houses. Now, how are these to get their share of the Government silver loans? We fear Mr. Henkle has not given this branch of the subject the attention it merits. We say let the banks loan to every citizen at 3 per cent. on his honor as a man. We say that giving security for loans is a degradation to which no American should submit, and is a practice of English aristocratic origin.

But the Government is not to confine itself to coining silver. It is also "to print and put in circulation in the same way as many millions of full legal-tender money as the necessities of our industry may require to put them all into operation." Every mill and mine and shop is to draw from the Government through the banks all the money they may require. Gold-bugs would doubtless say that in this way the country would be "flooded with money." Not so, O gold-bug! As Mr. Henkle well remarks: "No one would borrow and pay interest on more money than he could profitably use." But we must again point out to him that if the money had to be borrowed on ordinary security, very little would be borrowed. We would suggest, therefore, respectfully, either that the security condition should be removed from Mr. Henkle's plan, or that every citizen should be furnished by the Treasury with a reasonable amount of collateral to be used in making his loans. This done, we agree with him that no citizen would borrow more money than he could profitably use. The reluctance of citizens to borrow any money they cannot employ profitably, is one of the great facts of the day, though in gold circles people may affect to doubt it.

Mr. Henkle also proposes an enormous tariff, and the restriction of all payments on mortgages to 10 per cent. a year, and one of the most determined overhaulings of corporations, telegraph and railway lines in history, so as to enable all the American people to send their telegraphic messages at five cents for ten words and to travel by rail 100 miles for 63 cents, and a variety of other startling but good changes in our society. In fact, if his programme should be carried out, none but foolish and simple-minded persons will earn a living, seeing the facility with which they will be able to borrow. What we like in his paper, which has been widely circulated, is that it shows us that the determination which existed at the time of the French Revolution to emancipate the people from the rule of the money power, is not dead. It has slept for 100 years, but Mr. Henkle's manifesto proves that the great thoughts about money which presided over French finances in 1796 still exist among us, and that crack-brained people of that period, as the children of the world called them, have their successors on American soil, thank Heaven.

POPULISM IN AUSTRALASIA.

IN speaking of M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu's accounts of New Zealand last week, we said we should return to his report on Australasia, as the Populists are working their sweet will there in the absence of a political constitution. He compares Australia with America, but says the profound difference between them is that the latter was first settled over two centuries ago by a very superior population, and had a government long established when its immigration began to arrive, while the former was invaded by immigrants of a very poor class in its very infancy—that is to say, about fifty years ago. Contrasted with America, Australia is, in fact, a mushroom, the very land of Populism—that is, of love of novelty, of want of responsibility, and of ignorance and recklessness applied to government. In fact, our Populists are politically Australians.

In the first place, nearly if not quite half the population live in cities, where they can hold meetings easily and harangue each other; and to the city they are drawn by the high tariff. In fact, the city population is largely composed of ruined and unsuccessful gold-miners and furious protectionists. The state, too, occupies a very high position in their minds, but with more reason than here, because, ever since they have known anything of it, it has met the public burdens largely by the sale of public lands. They were therefore led in the beginning to insist on the state constructing all the railways, and employment was thus

given during several years to a very large body of laborers. But the railroads were eventually finished, and then the laborers had to be discharged or otherwise employed. But the laborers would not allow themselves to be discharged. Consequently, works of all descriptions, called "relief works," had to be set on foot to support them, and before very long the people came to feel, like the Populists here, that the supply of employment to labor is one of the functions, if not the chief function, of Government. But when the state is the chief employer, there is not much, if any, rising into the position of employer among the men, and as each province has its own tariff, and no market beyond its own borders, the industries are poor and feeble. Consequently, the laborers form a distinct, separate, and somewhat hopeless class, which, like our Populists, hates all other classes, and especially the great landholders, who remain in the country, own thousands of acres of land, and give themselves airs, take a daily bath, wear white cravats, and dine late, as in England, and are known as "squatters." These men, and the agricultural class generally, are said to be the bone and sinew of Australia, but they have little or no power in the state. The Government is really in the hands of the Populists of the towns.

It is these Populists who dominate in the legislative assemblies, and, as the country has no regular historical parties, they are divided into "groups" as in France, and delight in turning ministries out of office, so that Victoria, New South Wales, and New Zealand have had twenty-eight cabinets in forty years; South Australia forty-two. As here in America, the separation between what is called "society" and politics is complete. There is the greatest hostility towards "squatters," merchants, and bankers, and their appearance in politics is considered an intrusion. M. Leroy-Beaulieu says, to "succeed in a profession is death for a politician." A leading politician does not study any legislative reform with regard to its effect on the community, but with regard to its effect on his own political fortunes. When one of them, named Reid, came into office in New South Wales, with a mandate to reduce the tariff simply, he forthwith started an income tax, exempting all incomes below $1,500, and treated the members of the Upper Chamber, who are appointed by the Governor, and who opposed his schemes, as "rotten and corrupt old fossils."

In New Zealand the Prime Minister is an old saloon-keeper, and the principal work of the Parliament in one session was voting state guarantees for banks. In one night it voted a guarantee of $16,000,000, the total revenue not being more than $20,000,000. They have, curiously enough, the phrase, "forcing bills through the House," the equivalent of our phrase "jamming a bill through." In fact, their legislatures are so like ours that there is, M. Leroy-Beaulieu says, a growing agitation in favor of the referendum. In all the legislatures Labor is so powerful as to dominate all parties, and it employs its strength almost wholly in getting "reproductive works" set on foot, no matter what, so long as they give employment—generally railways, or roads, or wharves. In all these the wages are enormous and the day's work very short. The States borrowed for this purpose, M. Leroy-Beaulieu thinks, about $700,000,000 of European capital. They have had strikes, too, with the usual accompaniments of murder and incendiarism, instigated by orators who denounce the parliaments as "committees of corpulent robbers, wellbred thieves, oratorical prostitutes, and abject mercenaries." "The tree of liberty," said one, "will never flourish till it is manured with the bones of these fat usurers and insolent despots." Who would not think he was listening to Bryan, or Tillman, or Altgeld, or Kearney? In fact, says M. Beaulieu, "the influence of socialistic doctrines makes itself felt in all parts of Australian legislation—the land laws, the laws on labor, the system of taxation, and the general tendency of the state to make itself a merchant or manufacturer, and to encroach more and more on the domain of private enterprise."

From most of these excesses we are saved by our system of constitutions, the great wisdom of which was never so manifest as at this moment. But we have here, as in Australia, a large body of ignorant and poor men, who chafe under constitutions, who cannot be got to understand the delicacy and complication of modern governmental machinery, and, in their joy at finding themselves in power, make light not only of knowledge, but of all human experience.

PROFITABLE SCIENCE.

No small stir was caused in England a few months ago by a book entitled 'Made in Germany.' It was put forth by the Fair Traders, and undertook to show, by a lot of haphazard figures, that the Germans were alarmingly encroaching upon England's foreign trade. The remedy was, of course, discriminating or protective duties—the Q. E. D. of all such clamorous pamphleteers. Lord Rosebery rather thoughtlessly cited the book, and this led the *Economist* to dissect its assertions and statistics, with the result that the remains were hardly worth decent burial. But the real source and danger of German competition, with a sure indication of the only means of meeting it, have recently been brought to the attention of the English public in a way to cause 'Made in Germany' to appear more than ever vulgar and futile.

Prof. Ostwald, the distinguished German chemist, in a letter to his friend Prof. Ramsay, set forth the reasons for the superiority of German science, theoretical and applied, in so striking a manner that his English correspondent felt impelled to give the letter to the public through the London *Times*. Its significance was at once perceived. Here was something deeper and more powerful than tariffs. Here was a frank disclosing of the secret of German power as a competitor for the world's commerce, with the unavoidable inference that there was but one way to rival it—not by laws or diplomatic manœuvres, but by meeting knowledge with knowledge and skill with skill. Papers like *Nature* have taken the matter up, and insist that the need of reorganizing English scientific education requires no clearer demonstration.

Prof. Ostwald showed, in the first place, how the root idea of German higher education—freedom of teaching and freedom of learning—necessarily carried research and specialization to their highest terms. Originality and independent investigation alone give the teacher his place and retain his pupils. But it is the splendid opportunity for technical careers offered to students by German manufactures that makes, as Prof. Ostwald asserts, the organization of the power of invention in the arts and industries, now to be observed in Germany, something unique in the world's history. Referring to his own specialty, he says:

"Each large work has the greater part of its scientific staff—and there are often more than one hundred Ph.D.s in a single manufactory—occupied, not in the management of the manufacture, but in making inventions. The research laboratory in such a work is only different from one in a university by its being more splendidly and sumptuously fitted than the latter. I have heard from the business managers of such works that they have not infrequently men who have worked for four years without practical success; but if they know them to possess ability, they keep them notwithstanding, and in most cases with ultimate success sufficient to pay the expenses of the former resultless years."

Is it any wonder that, by such methods, Germany has come to control the fine chemical markets of the world? By her superiority in this respect alone she is able, silently and without any legislation, to lay a tax upon almost every industry in every country. German manufacturers have come to a clear understanding of the commercial importance of science. Not long ago one of them offered a university professor a very large salary simply to come into his works and make experiments regarding the practical use of certain scientific methods which the professor had been developing. This close relationship between science and industry is good for both. It puts the best trained and highest inventive power at the service of manufacturers, and it also furnishes the scientist not only with new openings for a livelihood, but with wide opportunities for research. Prof. Ostwald declares that some great establishments provide finer technical means

and Oratory. Poetry and English Literature had, however, from the first been his favorite studies, and it was through them that he was drawn to the study of Anglo-Saxon, in which he early became an authority. He also gave most valuable instruction in English writing, his own very simple and straightforward style serving as an excellent demonstration of the correctness of his principles. In 1860 he married Miss Elizabeth Ellery Sedgwick, daughter of Robert and granddaughter of Theodore Sedgwick.

Down to the close of the war, the old system of oral instruction, combined with a curriculum consisting almost altogether of required studies, made the work of a professor at Harvard very different from what it now is. Teaching was done, not by lectures, but by recitations, supplemented by wearisome correction and marking of innumerable examination-books. The instructor often taught in turn a variety of subjects, and in this way an enormous amount of time was wasted, while a professor might be for years without any professorship in the proper university sense. The election of Mr. Eliot as President in 1869 marked the beginning of the change to the present system; but it was not until 1876 that Prof. Child took the chair of English literature, for which all his studies were a preparation. Since then his work has consisted mainly of courses in Anglo-Saxon, Chaucer, and Shakspere.

The great work of his life has been his 'English and Scotch Ballads,' a monument of research and scholarship which can never be superseded, his industry and the thoroughness of his investigations having made it complete. His aim was to trace to its sources and preserve in an authentic form this whole body of popular literature, and at the close of his life he was able to say that he believed not a single ballad had eluded his search. An introduction remained to be written, but the work itself was done. The labor and linguistic knowledge involved in it no one who had not some acquaintance with the daily course of his studies would be likely to understand. Not merely constant correspondence with scholars all over the world, with reference to forms of ballads existing in foreign countries, but also endless collation of texts and manuscripts, was required, and all this in addition to his regular duties. The shelves of the university library are enriched by a precious collection of volumes gathered together in the course of these labors. His other contributions to literature and scholarship have been mainly as an editor. The general editorship of the American edition of the British Poets, in which was included an edition of Spenser under his charge, was among them, as were also 'Four Old Plays' (1848), a collection of 'Poems of Sorrow and Comfort' (1865), and two invaluable papers published in the Transactions of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 'Observations on the Language of Chaucer and Gower,' which conclusively settled long-disputed questions with regard to the forms of Chaucer's language and versification. A number of lectures before the Lowell Institute have never been published. Had his time for twenty-five years not been so taken up with the almost mechanical labor of hearing recitations and correcting examination-books, he would no doubt have accomplished more. To those who are aware how his time was further limited by self-imposed tasks of all sorts, public and private, it is surprising that he should have accomplished so much.

His fame as a scholar is secure; but it is not as a scholar that he will be chiefly thought of by those who knew him best. Indeed, his own modesty led him to keep his acquirements always in the background; no one was less inclined to parade his knowledge. What all who met him felt was the variety, interest, humanity, and sincerity of his character, the singular force of his individual and original personality. It is difficult to reproduce in words the impression he made, for it came of many qualities seemingly inconsistent—an inconsistency which a man less simple might have tried to conceal. It did not seem necessary for Prof. Child to conceal anything, for when he was most impulsive and natural, the qualities and even the defects which showed themselves were all little short of delightful. His very idiosyncrasies were endearing. Many of us go through life with an ideal of action or character for which our real qualities totally unfit us. With him there seemed to be no motive for playing a part, even with himself. His warmth of heart, his hatred of wrong and injustice, his keen sympathies, his devotion to duty, were as real as his lively convictions, his strong religious feeling, his prejudices, his shyness, his combativeness, his melancholy, and his quaint and inexhaustible humor. He expressed them all as he felt them, and it was the strongest proof of the excellence and beauty of his character that his sincerity only made his conversation more entertaining and himself more attractive.

His interest in public affairs was far from perfunctory, being a necessary result of his character and education. The concerns of Old Cambridge were those of democratic village life in a highly educated and respectable community. Much more engrossing were those of the nation in the throes of the rebellion. Many of the most distinguished officers who volunteered from Massachusetts had been his pupils and friends, and the war was to him at once a sacred struggle and a cruel slaughter. His constant regret was that he could not offer his own life in it. He busied himself with assisting those in the field in any way in his power, and throughout the whole period, from 1861 to 1865, he might almost be said to have been actually in the service. His deep interest in the careers of many of the Harvard graduates who had fallen in the war, made him the chief promoter of the publication of the Harvard Memorial volumes. When the war ended, his participation in public affairs did not cease, and he continued to do more than his share for many years. His inborn independence of character forbade his being a party man, and his efforts were always in behalf of good government and proper nominations, without regard to their effect on immediate party fortunes. He was very fearless, and his transparent honesty compelled the respect of his opponents during the years when, as an independent Republican, he was continually driven into opposition to the party to which he originally belonged.

We have left ourselves little space to speak of his characteristics in private life. To those of our readers to whom Prof. Child was personally unknown, the more intimate and more peculiar qualities of his nature can be only dimly indicated. The memories of a sensitive, woman-like tenderness and sweetness, which made him one of the most widely beloved of men, of a faithfulness of friendship which created about him a narrower unbroken circle of deeper affections—these and other precious memories are his priceless legacy to his familiar friends. Among these his originality had full play and expression. Doing nothing for effect, and having variable spirits, his conversation was unequal, and was most characteristic when no effort of any kind was required. Then his peculiar vein of humor was at its best, his expressive and vigorous face became the mirror of his mind, and the spirit of true friendship breathed in his talk. He was fond of children, and liked to devote himself to them, ready to take his share in their gayety and playfulness. To the poor his heart and his hand were equally open. He knew that his judgment was likely to be misled by his goodness of heart; and though he could seldom resist an impostor's appeal to his charity, the enjoyment which he derived from his own narrative of the adventure seemed quite to make up for any pecuniary loss. He was born and remained to the last a lover of his kind; he attributed to others the native good desires he found in his own heart.

We cannot close this imperfect tribute without a reference to the loss which this journal sustains. From the inception of the *Nation*, Prof. Child was among its warmest friends and most generous contributors; and if the burden of his latter years forced him to withdraw from our active staff of reviewers, of which his name was a chief ornament, he never found himself out of sympathy with the political aims of the *Nation*, or out of touch with it on its literary side.

THE PROSPECT IN NEBRASKA.

GERING, September 7, 1896.

IT is now nearly thirty years since I made my first visit to the Missouri Valley. Since that time I have had occasion to revisit it at regular intervals of three or four years. During this period the changes have been marvellous. On my way now, I was warned by friends in Chicago who learned of my destination that it was important to be vaccinated before crossing the Nebraska line in order to avoid the contagion of Bryanism. But, so far, that has not proved necessary; for there is still much force in the proverb that a "prophet is not without honor save in his own country." The severest critics of the regular Democratic nominee I have met have been among his own neighbors. A leading judge in Lincoln told me that in the five years during which he has been on the bench, Mr. Bryan has not had a case before him. In short, Mr. Bryan is a politician, pure and simple. He has not been connected with any business or commercial enterprises such as to command confidence in his ability to manage even ordinary affairs, much less the vast business interests of the nation. The enthusiasm for Bryan, therefore, has no such basis as that which commended Lincoln both to his own State and to the country at large. For Bryan to say that "in my opinion" the free coinage of silver will be safe for the Government, is to present a slender basis for confidence.

Another omen which bodes the Bryan movement ill even in his own State is the magnificent crops of the year. The acreage of corn is the largest ever planted, and the fields are fairly burdened with the ripening grain. Conservative judges say that it will run up to 300,000,000 bushels, which, if properly cared for and fed to stock, will yield to the producers $100,000,000. The two previous years were, indeed, disastrous, from lack of rain; but this year the rains have been abundant and well distributed, so that the average return for five

years, even with present prices, is far from discouraging. This is becoming more and more apparent as the weeks go by, and will tell heavily against the free-silver enthusiasts.

I struck the State at the time of the State Fair at Omaha, and the scenes which everywhere greeted me there were far from depressing. The railroads had made a five-dollar round-trip rate from the extreme portions of the State, and tens of thousands of people had come in in gala attire. The fair grounds were overcrowded, processions of fraternal and industrial organizations thronged the streets, headed by brass bands almost without number. Thousands of Scandinavians were pouring in from every direction for a great musical festival. Apparently everybody was good-natured and happy. There was ground for great diversity of opinion as to whether the Bryan buttons were more numerous than the McKinley badges, but there was no appearance of general gloom. The papers estimated that 200,000 people witnessed the processions.

Of course this may seem a superficial view, but it is not wholly so. One does, indeed, hear of the occasional sale of products at ruinously low rates. I was told of a farmer in the northwestern part of the State who recently sold 700 bushels of corn at five cents a bushel, netting him, when certain expenses were taken out, but thirty-two dollars. I have heard of a locality where horses are "eighteen dollars a dozen," but have not been able to verify the report. Without doubt the victims of such hard necessity who are compelled to sacrifice their products at forced sales, are sufficiently numerous strongly to elicit public sympathy. But to one who has watched the course of events for the last twenty years the surprise is that they are not more numerous. The reckless way in which families with little or no capital have been drawn out into this vast region to compete with each other and with the world in the production of a few staple articles, has made it inevitable that there should be great disappointment.

The place from which I write is in an irrigated section on the North Platte River, sixty miles from railroad communication. The station from which we drove was one of the most flourishing towns of the region, containing about two thousand inhabitants. About half of these consist of the families of ranchmen, which reside there nine months of the year for the sake of the excellent public schools which are maintained. During the summer all together have an outing on the ranches. So dry is the climate that there is not a shade tree in sight either in town or on the prairie, yet the houses, though small, are all rather neat, and there is a general appearance of thrift. On starting out for our long drive over the country, we were at once confronted with the evidence of disappointment which has overtaken so many in the western part of the State. For hours our course lay over a beautiful prairie country in which there was not a house or tree in sight. The only sign of man's presence was the diminishing town we were rapidly leaving behind. But on almost every quarter section there was a mound of earth, reminding one of the abandoned village sites in the Valley of the Nile. These were the remains of sod houses which were built a few years ago by eager settlers drawn into the country by the report of good crops occasioned by two altogether exceptional years of moderate rainfall. On the strength of these good years, loan agents secured an immense amount of capital to aid the settlers. But the successive years of normal drought have done their work, and both borrower and lender have lost all. Clearly, the western quarter of the State is valueless for general agriculture, except in the irrigated portions. On the whole, however, one is agreeably surprised at the evidences of general prosperity. In the eastern part of the State land is four times as valuable as it was twenty-five years ago. Then ten dollars an acre was a good price. Since that time it has doubled in value twice, and improved land in the eastern third of the State cannot now be had for less than forty dollars. But, of course, this process of geometrical increase of values cannot go on indefinitely, and when the check in the rate comes it is very disappointing to many. Prices of land, however, are keeping up better in the eastern part of this State than in Ohio. Foreclosures are, indeed, frequent, but not excessively or alarmingly so.

To the more intelligent, and they are the majority, an extension of credit is seen to be the all-important thing in a region of such present distress, but of ultimately increasing values. But credit is just what Bryan and Altgeld and their followers are destroying. A loan agent in the central part of the State told me that, at the time of the Chicago riots two years ago, the fright of capitalists completely checked the extension of credit, while the present agitation prevents its reëstablishment. The chief thing which the farmers need this year is the credit required to draw into the State the live stock (depleted by the last two years of drought) to which they can profitably feed their enormous crop of corn. In this irrigated section the relation of capital to production is more apparent than elsewhere, and the importance of credit is keenly felt. It is an instructive illustration of the complicated relations of modern society that the severest blow the interests in this region have received for a long time, fell in connection with the disturbance of credit occasioned by Mr. Cleveland's unfortunate Venezuelan message last winter.

Coming from the centennial celebration of northern Ohio, it is interesting to contrast the story of pioneer life a hundred years ago and now. The comparison is entirely in favor of the present times. The sod-house of to-day is more comfortable than the log-house of our fathers. The prairie is far more easily subdued than the forest. As the cheap railroad excursion rates and the vast crowds at the State Fair witness, the pioneer of to-day is not beyond the reach of general civilizing agencies. The well-established State University and the numerous public schools of high grade, with their feeders in every district of the State, bring education within reach of every enterprising boy or girl, and very generally all are possessed with a desire to improve their educational opportunities. On my drive here we stopped at a sod-house to exchange horses. A buxom lass soon came over a swell in the prairie, riding a horse and driving a dozen others before her from which we could take our pick. We afterwards learned that during the last school year she regularly rode horseback thirteen miles and back each day to attend a school which was held in a sod school-house. But the school was kept by a graduate of the University.

It may seem unfortunate that the financial policy of a great nation should perhaps be dependent on the opinion of a few recent emigrants from Europe now living in sod-houses on the prairie. The foreign element of this State, however, is unusually intelligent, being largely German and Scandinavian. The Germans are reported as generally favoring the gold standard, while the Swedes and Norwegians are less decided, and are still making up their minds. Much attention is therefore paid to them by both parties, for very likely the scale may be turned by the votes of the two or three counties in this State in which they largely preponderate. Good crops, much discussion, and sound sense are sure to cause the truth to prevail among this population. Bryanism is not a new thing in Nebraska. His star has already passed the zenith. He never has carried his own State, and does not seem likely ever to do so. At any rate, the votes which were taken on the long trains on which I rode from the State Fair showed an overwhelming majority against him.

G. Frederick Wright.

A RALLY FOR HOME RULE.

Dublin, September 5, 1896.

The cause of home rule for Ireland, which six years ago was apparently on the threshold of success, has latterly seemed to all but a few in a nearly hopeless condition. This has been due mainly to the inordinate self-assertion of two men, and to consequent divisions and difficulties. Had Mr. Parnell expressed the least regret for the trouble which his disgrace in the Divorce Court had brought upon Ireland, had he been willing to withdraw even for a few months from public life, all his offences would soon have been forgotten in his splendid services and his sufferings on behalf of the country. He stood firm as a rock for himself, and against that rock the Irish party went to pieces. The services to the Irish cause of the parties and individuals in Ireland and England who could not tolerate Mr. Parnell's conduct and attitude, were preserved largely through the abilities and untiring energy of one man, Mr. Healy. In the exigencies and excitement of the time, men were blinded as to the wrongfulness and the certain consequences of the bitterness with which he imbued and waged the contest. We had a painful example of the extent to which clamor has to be resorted to, and seeds of future woe implanted, in a country that has no constitutional method of carrying out its wishes in local affairs. When, six months later, Mr. Dillon and Mr. O'Brien emerged from prison and took their stand against Mr. Parnell, they were unwilling to assent to Mr. Healy's methods; and when, in the autumn of the same year, Mr. Parnell died, and all legitimate cause of quarrel appeared removed, his followers declared themselves in honor bound still to hold aloof from their old associates, whose methods, they declared, had brought their leader to his grave.

At the elections of 1892 all seemed well so far as Ireland was concerned. The Parnellite representatives were reduced to nine. An apparently solid party of over seventy, united by the most stringent pledge to sit, act, and vote together or resign their seats, stood behind Mr. McCarthy. I know of nothing stranger in the turnings and intricacies of the human mind than the rôle which Mr. Healy has since played, and which has brought affairs to their present pass. He whose most trenchant weapon of attack against the seceders was that they had broken the party pledge in not siding with the majority against Mr. Parnell, has since, having again twice taken it, set that pledge at defiance, and in-

terpreted it in a manner calculated to make of it a mockery, a delusion, and a snare. His intellect, exceptionally keen and subtle, and sharpened to the finest point by the education and practice of the law, has been applied to prove that a pledge can be kept in the letter and broken in the spirit. The changes were wrung upon charges the most audacious, the most damaging, the most untrue, and over and over again thoroughly disproved, as to the disposal of funds by his colleagues; and this during the heat of last year's election. The Parnellites place Mr. Parnell's memory before everything else. The feud is to be kept up until those who could not approve his course of action are in their graves or are prepared to do penance at his grave.

Mr. Healy's inexplicable policy, whether consciously or not, if continued, could have no other end than the utter destruction of the present movement. He has more than once avowed, as the proper method of party warfare, to "hit a head wherever you see it"; and as those on his own side are the nearest to him, and as those who rise above the ordinary level are most easily seen, they are one by one singled out for attack. (Seldom having to bear responsibility, never having to suffer directly, to any great extent, for not standing by and supporting able men, cavil and criticism are by us indulged in to an inordinate degree.) Mr. Sexton, a most devoted man, the best parliamentarian of the party, one of the ablest financiers in Parliament, has been driven into private life. Mr. Blake, who abandoned his Canadian career to aid the cause, and is said lately to have refused a judgeship and £6,000 a year further to serve Ireland, has held his place, notwithstanding abuse and vilification, with heroic patience and devotion. But no party, however small, can keep its place by reliance upon personal feeling alone. The Parnellite party, while including sincere Home-Rulers, is composed mainly of pronounced anti-clericals and of men who desire to be considered respectable as well as Nationalist, and to avoid pecuniary sacrifice. A Parnellite Lord Mayor was the first Home-Ruler to be honored with a degree *honoris causa* by Trinity College. No young man in Government or Unionist employment is likely to be called to account if he airs his Nationality under the guise of Parnellism. Mr. Healy's strength lies, amongst the Parliamentary party, in the fact that he has several relatives members of Parliament, in the sharpness of his tongue, in a certain charm of manner; outside it lies mainly, I am convinced, in clerical feeling that would gladly see a revival of the pre-Home Rule days, when all the spare cash of the laity went into the coffers of the Church, and when Irish members were to a considerable degree the nominees of the priests. So it is not surprising that Mr. Chamberlain should designate Mr. Healy as the "greatest living Irishman."

Thus, taken altogether, the situation in Ireland had become intolerable. A convention to consider the matter was called for at home and abroad; and it must be difficult for outside Protestants to understand that this convention, meeting under the Pope's blessing, with a Catholic bishop in the chair, and addressed by numerous Catholic clergymen, has been directed against the claims of the leader of an extreme clerical party. The convention was decided upon by the unanimous vote of the party of which Mr. Healy is a member. All parties were asked to join in issuing the invitations and making the arrangements. Mr. Redmond refused. Mr. Healy at first carefully abstained from committing himself; and when he recognized that the assembly that would come together would most certainly pronounce against the unpatriotic course he had taken, did all in his power to make it a failure, and, later on, violently attacked and belittled it. All Irish members of Parliament, clergymen of all denominations, Nationalist members of local public bodies, delegates from clubs, Young Ireland societies, literary societies, labor organizations, Foresters, and other bodies, many of them Parnellite, were invited. Delegations were requested from Irish Nationalists of all parties abroad. Never before was there a convention at which the doors were more widely thrown open to persons of all shades of opinion in connection with the subject for which it was called. As the result, the convention met and held its sittings in the most capacious hall in Dublin three days of this week. Some 42 members of Parliament attended; 21 delegates came from the United States, 18 from Canada, 3 from Australasia, 2 from South Africa; 300 came from Great Britain, and many hundreds from all parts of Ireland, every county being represented.

It was the most remarkable gathering of Irish men and women ever brought together. The great hall behind and in front of the delegates was crowded with a respectable, intelligent, and well-conducted assembly. The speaking was of a high order. Every one had fair play. What struck me most was the unflagging interest with which the proceedings were followed. There were no pauses for rest or refreshment, yet at the conclusion on Tuesday of the four-hours' sitting, on Wednesday of five hours, and on Thursday of five hours and a half, the hall was apparently as full as at the commencement. All sides had professed a desire for unity on the common basis of love for Ireland. Mr. Healy had often declared his anxiety to be afforded an opportunity of laying his grievances before the world. Neither Mr. Redmond, nor Mr. Healy, nor yet any of their followers, appeared to state their case, or show any other possible grounds upon which a united fight for home rule can be maintained than by friendly councils, and, after due discussion, the subordination of the judgment of the minority to that of the majority. Nothing was said to offend the susceptibilities of any party. In accordance with the feelings of the meeting, resolutions were withdrawn in which persons and newspapers were by name condemned. Mr. Parnell's name was received with hearty applause. An extract from one of his speeches found its place among the mottoes with which the hall was adorned. We may be certain that if his name ceased to be used as the shibboleth of faction, all in his career would soon be forgotten but the services of his earlier years. The attitude of late among Irishmen abroad has been: "Until you are united as of old, we shall refuse to give you moral or material aid in the contest for home rule." The foreign delegates have this morning unanimously issued a manifesto declaring that they came unbiassed in their views towards any party, that those who were responsible for the arrangements scrupulously abstained from any attempt to influence their judgment, and that they undertake on their return to their various homes to convey to their people their sense of the magnitude, authority, and order of the convention, and pledge themselves to give their loyal and unfailing support to the parliamentary party.

There is some danger of the resolution and expressions of desire for the release of the remaining dynamite prisoners being misconstrued. It arises in no degree from sympathy with a policy of dynamite. These men are rightly styled "political prisoners," because they were arraigned so that they might receive life instead of ten-year sentences, not as dynamiters, but as conspiring against the Crown. The feeling here and among Irishmen abroad is so strong regarding England's past treatment of Ireland and late attitude towards her, that it is well understood why men of a certain class of mind break down under the strain, and attempt or do desperate deeds. Irishmen know and feel their own grievances, and they ask that their attitude towards these offenders should be judged by the English and others by their own towards conspirators with whose grievances they sympathized. An English jury enthusiastically acquitted Dr. Bernard, although of known complicity in the Orsini outrage, by which many lives were lost. I need scarcely call to mind the general attitude of mind in Great Britain towards German and Italian conspirators in the forties and fifties, towards Russians of late years, towards the Johannesburg committee and Dr. Jameson the other day. These Irishmen received life sentences in 1884, while in 1892 Englishmen and foreigners for more overt offences in the matter of dynamite were sentenced to but ten years' imprisonment. Moreover, the English penal-servitude system is one to which no living creature ought to be subjected. One of these men, at least, has been turned out insane. Mr. Davitt has declared that for seven of the nine years he spent in prison he never ceased to suffer the pangs of hunger. The mildest extreme of laxity in prison discipline is less likely to encourage crime, and bring the administration of the law into contempt, than the cold, inhuman, relentless severity with which Irish offenders, at least, have been treated under the British penal-servitude system. Light sentences and abuse of the power of pardon in the interests of the many in your country are, in the long run, less hurtful to the best interests of society and general content than are here light sentences and abuse of the power of pardon in the interests of the few as practised in England.

I have been led into a digression from a consideration of the Irish Race Convention. It was altogether an eminent success. There is still a majority of forty or fifty entirely reliable and clear-headed members prepared to support united, disciplined action. Mr. McCarthy has, on account of failing health, resigned the chairmanship. Mr. Dillon, an able man, has been elected to the post. He is highly cultured, of irreproachable personal character; one who has given hostages to fortune by his late marriage with a daughter of Sir James Mathew, one of the English judges (a nephew of Father Mathew, the temperance reformer). If Irishmen at home and abroad properly support this party and act reasonably, the movement will be soon again on firm ground. This conference is by far the most representative national gathering that I have seen in Ireland. Only four persons took any distinctive part in it whose names I can find as having been present at the Home-Rule Convention of 1873 under Mr. Butt. As one of the speakers said the other day: "Men come and go, the personnel alters from generation to generation; the National movement ever renews itself and urges forward, deep and strong."

D. B.

Correspondence.

THE NEW ZEALAND LAND EXPERIMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article on "A Striking Illustration," September 10, you say that "the Government of New Zealand has taken possession of the land on the Henry George plan." Permit me to correct you in that. The "Henry George plan" does not contemplate any of the foolish, socialistic things credited to the New Zealand Government by M. Leroy-Beaulieu. On the contrary, it contemplates leaving the individual in greater freedom than before. It asks the Government to simplify the system of taxation by taxing nothing but land values, and then to keep its hands off all those things that belong to the individual.

Single-taxers have watched the legislation in New Zealand with interest, and especially that regarding taxation; for although mixed with much error, it appears to be a step in the right direction, relieving personal property of taxation and supporting the Government, or a portion of it, from land values. But they do not believe that it is a function of the Government to say what the people shall eat and wear, to loan money to them, and establish settlements. The Henry George plan is not paternalistic. It looks to individualism. HOWARD M. HOLMES.

DETROIT, MICH., September 11.

Notes.

FORTHCOMING works bearing the Scribners' imprint are President Andrews's 'History of the Last Quarter-Century in the United States,' in two large volumes; a new (limited) edition of Vasari's 'Lives of the Painters,' in four octavo volumes, annotated by Mr. and Mrs. Edwin H. Blashfield and Mr. A. A. Hopkins, with 48 photogravures after the masterpieces of Italian painting and sculpture; a new and long-desiderated edition of Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge's 'Hans Brinker,' with more than a hundred drawings expressly made in Holland by Allan B. Doggett; 'On the Trail of Don Quixote,' by A. F. Jaccaci, with many illustrations in addition to those which have appeared serially in *Scribner's Magazine;* and 'Problems of Modern Democracy,' essays by E. L. Godkin.

Henry Holt & Co.'s fall announcements include 'The Island of Cuba,' with an account of the present war, by Prof. M. M. Ramsay and Lieut. A. S. Rowan, U.S.A.; 'A Diplomat in London,' by Charles Gavard; 'Music and Musicians,' by Albert Lavignac; 'Telepathy and the Subliminal Self,' by Dr. Osgood Mason; 'The Irreligion of the Future,' by J. M. Guyau; the third volume of Ten Brink's 'English Literature'; 'The Fern Collector's Handbook and Herbarium,' by Miss Sadie F. Price; 'The Grasses of North America,' by Prof. W. J. Beal; and 'The Outlines of Electricity and Magnetism,' by Prof. Charles A. Perkins of the University of Tennessee.

The Putnams' holiday Irving will be 'Bracebridge Hall,' in two volumes; and they will also bring out Tilford Groesbeck's poem 'The Incas,' with illustrations by Eric Pape; and the second volume of Mr. George Haven Putnam's 'Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages.'

Next month the Century Co. will issue a collection of wood-engravings and half-tone plates under the title, 'Modern French Masters,' with text by Prof. John C. Van Dyke—twenty biographical and critical monographs.

Harper & Bros. promise Prof. Woodrow Wilson's 'Life of Washington,' with illustrations by Howard Pyle and Harry Fenn, and 'The Naval Actions of the War of 1812,' by James Barnes.

'The Seven Seas,' poems by Rudyard Kipling, a translation of Dr. William Hirsch's 'Genius and Degeneration,' 'Alterations in Personality,' by Alfred Binet, 'What is Electricity?' by Prof. John Trowbridge of Harvard, and a new edition of Andrew D. White's 'Fiat Money in France,' are in the press of D. Appleton & Co.

Macmillan Co. have nearly ready 'The Education of the Nervous System: A Study of Foundations, especially of Sensory and Motor Training,' by Reuben Post Halleck, M.A. (Yale).

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish seasonably 'Football,' by Walter Camp and Lorin F. Deland.

William Doxey, San Francisco, "at the sign of the *Lark*" (the droll periodical edited with pen and most original pencil by Gelett Burgess), announces 'The Wild Flowers of California, their Homes and Habits,' in which more than 600 varieties will be described by Mary Elizabeth Parsons, and 150 delineated in full-page drawings by Margaret Warriner Buck; 'Tales of Languedoc,' by Prof. Samuel Jacques Brun of Leland Stanford University, illustrated by Ernest Peixotto; 'An Itinerant House, and Other Stories,' by Emma Frances Dawson; and new editions of Rearden's 'Petrarch, and Other Essays,' and of Alfred Robinson's 'Life in California.'

An *édition de luxe* of FitzGerald's 'Omar Khayyám' is to be issued by the Dodge Book and Stationery Co. of San Francisco.

Bliss, Sands & Co., London, are preparing 'Venus and Apollo in Paintings and Sculpture,' with letterpress by William J. Stillman, and eighty-one large-sized photogravures, including Botticelli's 'Birth of Venus,' probably in colors, as a frontispiece. A Burne-Jones is the only modern instance admitted.

'A Cycle of Cathay; or, China, South and North,' by Dr. W. A. P. Martin (Fleming H. Revell Co.), is rich in personal reminiscences, but is hardly the book on China which those most interested in the country are earnestly looking for. Dr. Wells Williams's work—a monument of old-fashioned learning—will still remain our reference and reading-book, unless some one with equal ability shall furnish us with a view of modern China as seen through the glass of science. Perhaps we had not the right to expect this from the busy President of the Imperial Tung Wen College at Peking. As it is, Dr. Martin's pages are readable, and are made attractive by the author's own metrical renderings of some pretty Chinese poems. Most valuable are the chapters discussing China's neighbors, her diplomacy, education, and the missionary question.

The translation of Nietzsche's works into English pursues its paradoxical course. After vol. xi. comes vol. viii., entitled 'Thus Spake Zarathustra: A Book for All and None' (Macmillan). It is *the* sacred book *par excellence* of the Nietzschians, and, like other "Sacred Books of the East," demands much patience from a reader on whom a protractedly prophetic style is likely to pall; so much, indeed, that the doubt indicated in the sub-title, viz., as to whether what is intended for all will be perused by any, appears amply justified. A book of the sort is necessarily a difficulty for translators, and so the task has been undertaken by the editor of the whole series. Unfortunately, though Dr. Tille possesses a far better knowledge of Nietzsche's German than his predecessor in vol. xi., his command of English idiom is quite insufficient to render it satisfactorily into the latter language. A lavish use of the archaic *-eth* in the third person singular of English verbs does not alone constitute a lofty and prophetic style, nor redeem the bulk of the translation from commonplace and clumsy literality. Dr. Tille ought not to require to have it pointed out to him that the significance of the word "lust" (p. 132, etc.) is not the same in German and in English. And, lastly, what is the casual reader to make of passages like the following: "My gift of the gab—is of the folk. Too coarsely and heartily for angora-rabbits I speak. And still stranger my word soundeth unto all ink-fish and pen-foxes" (p. 278)?

The *Portfolio* monograph for the current (July) number is 'The Life of Velazquez,' by Walter Armstrong (Macmillan). As the Art of Velazquez is to be treated of by the same author in a future number, he confines himself for the present to an account of the great Spaniard's career, which is "based chiefly, though by no means exclusively, on the researches of Prof. Justi," and which gives the known facts clearly and concisely—something which the ponderous German was unable to do. The illustrations are, perhaps, as good as could be expected, the qualities of Velazquez's painting being extremely difficult of reproduction; and some of them are especially welcome as being of little known works.

Those who have retained their earlier liking for the clever work of M. Victor Cherbuliez and for the romance of thirty years ago, will read with interest the Swiss writer's latest novel, 'Après Fortune Faite.' To those who have been immersed in the stream of later fiction, or who have even watched the current of it as it has run, the book will seem somewhat like a resurrection from the dead. It does not concern itself much, if at all, with life. Its subtileness in the analysis and portrayal of character is like that of a child drawing upon a slate. It is the farthest possible remove, or almost the farthest, from the human document. And yet it is an extremely interesting and entertaining novel. In reading it one has a sensation not unlike that of driving over a well-made road through a pleasant country with a good horse. From the first page to the last one feels the satisfaction of easy, delightful motion. The book will consequently provide an agreeable hour or two. In this all too serious world there are many more serious novels which are less restful and less amusing.

We have already spoken briefly of Otto Mühlbrecht's 'Die Bücherliebhaberei' (Berlin), which now comes to us from Lemcke & Buechner, New York; but it may not be amiss to specify its useful appendices, forming half the book. The bibliophile, then, is treated to a general and critical bibliography; book-fancying and book-knowledge in general; general history of the art of printing and the book-trade; special ditto (in which category we miss Friedrich Kapp's History of the German Book Trade); works in advocacy of Gutenberg's title as inventor, and in opposition thereto; incunabula; curiosities and rarities; prohibited works; pseudonyms and anonyms (with no account of Halkett and Laing's three large volumes); privately printed books; ex-libris; printers' marks, etc.; binding. The

imperfections we have hinted at have two compensations in an alphabetical list of printers of the fifteenth century, a chronological index of printing-places to the year 1830—both after Falkenstein—and a general index of commendable completeness.

'Adolf Bastian als Festgruss zu seinem 70. Geburtstage 26. Juni, 1896,' is the title of a stately volume of 630 pages, dedicated to the distinguished traveller and ethnographer by "his friends and admirers," and published by Reimer in Berlin. The contents consist of thirty-two essays on comparative psychology, mythology, ethnology, anthropology, linguistics, and other sciences of a cognate character, in many of which Bastian was a pioneer. Thus, Virchow discusses "Rassenbildung und Erblichkeit," Steinthal "Dialekt, Sprache, Volk, Staat, Rasse," Preuss "Menschenopfer und Selbstverstümmelung in Amerika" (especially in connection with rites for the dead), Weber interprets an obscure passage of the 'Arthava-veda' as "Ein Indischer Zauberspruch," and there are papers by Ranke, Kuhn, Hirth, Achelis, Bartels, Buchner, and other well-known scholars. The value of the work is increased by numerous illustrations, but greatly diminished by the lack of an index.

'Trunksucht und Selbstmord' (Drunkenness and Suicide) is the title of a statistical study recently published in Leipzig by Dr. Prinzing. Of all nations, he says, the Germans have the strongest tendency to suicide, and this tendency is greatly aggravated by the habitual use of brandy as a beverage, so prevalent in many provinces of North Germany. Excessive beer-drinking promotes suicide indirectly by causing diseases of the heart and liver productive of melancholy.

A brochure of 119 pages entitled 'Henrik Ibsen's Jugenddramen,' by Dr. Roman Woerner (Munich: Beck), contains the first instalment of an historical and critical survey of the works of the Norwegian dramatist, to be completed in two volumes, of which the first will treat the historical and philosophical dramas from a biographical as well as a literary point of view, and the second the modern stage-plays from the publication of "Love's Comedy" in 1863 to the present time. Dr. Woerner's thorough knowledge of the languages and literature of Northern Europe renders him fully equipped for the task he has undertaken. The brochure ends with an extended and acute analysis of "The Warriors at Helgeland" (1858), known in Germany as "Nordische Heerfahrt."

A hitherto unpublished manuscript of Bossuet's has just been discovered in the library of the Seminary of Saint-Sulpice, well known to be especially rich in manuscripts of Fénelon and Bossuet, though no one had supposed that it contained any which had not already seen the light in print. In the course of his long controversies with Fénelon concerning spiritual matters, Bossuet was led to write a series of treatises on the "états d'oraison." Only the first of these treatises has been printed and made familiar to theologians. A manuscript of considerable bulk entitled "États d'Oraison," preserved in the library at Saint-Sulpice, had long been regarded as the original of the already printed work. Some weeks ago, however, the librarian of the Seminary, wishing to make a more careful study of the manuscript, began to examine it. Almost at once he perceived that it contained the text of a second treatise, bearing the same title as the first, which had been overlooked and which was believed to be lost. This treatise carries on, without completing it, the great work undertaken by Bossuet against Quietism. Like the first, it is written in French. The manuscript is now being copied and will soon be in print.

The Union pour Action Morale, of which M. Paul Desjardins is the founder, has resolved to placard the hoardings of Paris with ideal pictures, seeking thus an influence upon the minds of the people beyond that of the Louvre and the Luxembourg. M. Puvis de Chavannes has lent himself to the good work by permitting the reproduction (in full size, but in only two colors) of his five famous frescoes in the Panthéon, representing incidents in the life of St. Geneviève, patron saint and traditional saviour of the city of Paris. Reproductions of an "Adoration of the Magi," by Benozzo Gozzoli, and of a picture by Fra Angelico are to follow. The artistic poster we know in this country, as well as the disfigurement of the face of the earth by the "smart" advertising agent; even the placing of sensational texts in rural spots to catch the eyes of the ungodly is an expedient not untried by us. There are still blank spaces left in the minds of our people that the Paris plan might admirably help to fill.

An anonymous writer in *Macmillan's Magazine* for September offers some acute observations on "The Man Pepys" as revealed in his unblushing Diary. He seems to us, however, unnecessarily perplexed as to the purpose and motive of "this daily record for himself only," which, after all, differentiates itself from the great mass of introspective diaries only in degree. From the point of view of the man of affairs, it was a prudent memorandum of whatever affected or promised to affect his reputation as a public officer, and, through that, his worldly prosperity. On the side of the thousand and one interests which his active and curious mind entertained, and preëminently of his amours, the Diary must, we believe, have been kept not so much for reference (though here too prudence entered in) as for rereading. The mere recording of his infidelities must have revived, in imagination, the passionate pleasure of them, and it is significant that in the poignant passage (the word is hardly too strong) in which he notifies himself that now, in default of eyesight, the Diary must terminate, he also snaps the thread of his amour with Deb.

In view of the recent sickening reports of Japanese atrocities in Formosa, an account of this island by the Rev. W. Campbell, for more than twenty years a missionary there, in the Scottish *Geographical Magazine*, is timely and interesting. The great alluvial western plains, he says, "offer simply illimitable opportunities" for raising sugar-cane, rice, indigo, turmeric, etc., not to speak of the gold and coal mines, sulphur deposits, and petroleum fields in other parts of the island. In 1894 twenty-one million pounds of tea and forty thousand cwt. of camphor were exported. A graphic description is given of the surrender of the capital, Tainanfu, on the collapse of the short-lived republic, to the Japanese, which was accomplished without bloodshed through the interposition of the English missionaries. With the advent of the new rulers the chief obstacles to the development of the country, the mandarins and the literary class, have been removed, while the importation of opium, except for medicinal purposes, is prohibited. Roads are to be built, the railway extended, harbors opened, a proper currency introduced, and the head-hunting tribes of the interior are to be brought into subjection.

There is an excellent map of Venezuela, with accompanying text, in the seventh number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. It shows the various lines of communication, both land and water, even to the most important mule-paths. The same number contains proposals, endorsed by a numerous body of European scientific men, for the establishment of an international system of seismological stations. The sites chosen are Shanghai, Hongkong, Tokio, Calcutta, Sydney, Rome, Tacubaya (Mexico), Port Natal, Capetown, Santiago de Chile, and Rio de Janeiro.

The Boston Public Library Bulletin for September contains a very useful list of some 218 titles of books, Government reports, and pamphlets on the currency question.

The number of foreigners studying in German universities during the past summer semester was 2,192, of whom 1,665 were Europeans and 527 non-Europeans. Of the latter, 442 came from America, 56 from Asia, 15 from Africa, and 4 from Australia; of the former, 515 were Russians, 316 Austrians and Hungarians, 283 Swiss, 139 English, 96 Belgians, 56 French, 44 Netherlanders, 34 Italians, 31 Swedes and Norwegians, 28 Luxemburgers, 25 Rumanians, 24 Turks, 23 Servians, 21 Greeks, 12 Bulgarians, 9 Danes, 5 Spaniards, 2 Portuguese, 1 Lichtensteiner, and 1 Montenegriner. Of the whole number of foreigners, 595 studied philosophy, philology, and history, 488 medicine, 444 mathematics and natural science, 261 law, 148 Protestant theology, 126 agriculture, 74 cameralistics, 24 Catholic theology, 24 pharmacy, and 8 dentistry.

A recent rescript issued by the Minister of Public Instruction in Germany admits women to the lectures in all the departments of the University of Bonn, provided that they are found by the rector to have pursued the necessary preparatory studies, and that they obtain the consent of the professor or docent whose lectures they wish to attend.

The Classical Club of Yale University will celebrate the opening of their new rooms in Phelps Hall on October 9 with an address in the Battell Chapel by Prof. B. L. Gildersleeve of Johns Hopkins, at 8 P. M., followed by a reception in the library of the club. At 4 P. M. on the same day Dr. Dörpfeld will speak in Osborn Hall on "Recent Excavations in Greece."

—The attention of the librarians in their annual meeting at Cleveland, week before last, was largely centred on Washington. Mr. Bernard Green, who has been superintendent of the construction of the Congressional Library building from the start, gave an interesting account of the work. This building, the largest if not the finest library building in the world, will accommodate four million volumes and give every facility for their use, is most complete and thoroughly fitted in every part, and decorated in a manner quite commensurate with its character and use. The most remarkable thing about it is that it is completed within the time (eight years) assigned by Congress in 1888, and for the sum appropriated—six million dollars. As Mr. Green remarked, Congress had so thoroughly worn out both itself and the subject in fifteen years of fruitless discussion and experimentation that when a definite plan for the work was adopted, providing for its execution under the direction of the Chief of Engineers, Gen. Casey, and thus removing it from the realm of jobbery, there was no further meddling on the part of that body, and we have this magnificent structure as a standing proof

that Government work is not always bad. The same lesson was enforced upon the librarians by Mr. F. A. Crandall, United States Superintendent of Documents, in a paper on the work of his office. He made it quite evident that, under the law of 1894, which created his office, a radical reform of the abuses which have been connected with the public-document business has already been accomplished, and that if the supplementary bill drawn up by him and already passed unanimously by the House becomes a law, we shall have a system at least fifty per cent. more efficient, and at the same time twenty per cent. more economical, than the old one. Still another Washington note was sounded by Dr. Cyrus Adler of the Smithsonian Institution Library in a paper on the bibliographical and library work of that Institution. By his showing, it appears quite probable that the library interests of the country have, after all, been better served by the Institution under its actual system than they would have been had the whole fund been originally devoted to the establishment of a great library, as was at first proposed.

—Apart from these matters, the chief interest of the convention lay in the work, rather lately undertaken by the Association, of furnishing intelligent direction and aid in the selection of good books for libraries. Mr. George Iles of New York, who has shown his practical interest in this enterprise by his generous aid, both editorial and financial, in the issue of the Association's 'Annotated List of Books,' read a thoughtful paper on "The Appraisal of Literature." Recognizing the value of the book notices and reviews to be found in the critical journals, there still, he said, seems to be need of and ready use for discriminating and intelligent advice to librarians and readers as to the actual and relative value of the different books offered for purchase. Nothing ever done by the Association has seemed to be of greater general utility than the A. L. A. catalogue of 5,000 books recommended for libraries, published for the Association by the United States Bureau of Education in 1893. One session of this year's convention was devoted to the discussion of titles for a proposed supplement of newer books, and it was determined that there should be a rigorous exclusion of everything of questionable value or of questionable morals. The President's address at this meeting, by Mr. J. C. Dana, librarian at Denver, and an able paper following it by Mr. J. N. Larned of Buffalo, were devoted to the discussion of the larger bearing and real value of the public-library movement. Mr. Dana sounded a minor key, giving considerable value to many grave charges which are often brought against free libraries, but still contending that, if properly administered, these libraries contribute largely to the public welfare. Mr. Larned, viewing this movement in its historical setting, characterized it as the one means to be depended upon in addition to the free school to overcome the evils of a *fin-de-siècle* civilization fostered by a debauched and mercenary newspaper press.

—The practical pedagogue sometimes finds it difficult to see that the psychologist is making such additions to the art of teaching, as laid down by the philosophy of common sense, as he thinks he is, but it is easy to believe that a study of "common motor automatisms," reported on by Mr. E. H. Lindley in the last number of the *Journal of Psychology*, may be the basis of very important practical regulations. By this phrase the author means the little tricks of movement that grown people as well as children are strongly inclined to when called upon for severe or unusual mental effort. The material for the study was in large part collected by Miss L. A. Williams of the State Normal School at Trenton, N. J., and is of unusually high value. Some of the apparent results are that adults are hardly less prone to such habits than children, that there is no difference due to sex, that swaying with the body is almost confined to children, and drumming with the fingers to adults. Young children are little given to these movements, but that is due to the fact that they are almost incapable of any considerable sustained effort. Automatisms increase in number with fatigue, and with the intensity of the effort; automatisms of posture show a reversion to the fœtal position. These habits have their origin in the enormous activity of the child, his inability to control his movements completely, and his proneness to imitation. They are accordingly a much more frequent accompaniment of volitional attention than of spontaneous—the former is a late development, and still imperfect and more or less difficult to sustain. But the most important point brought out by the paper is that these forms of motor activity are of two fundamentally different kinds; part of them are processes for the production and maintenance of central nervous activity, and are important features in the mechanism of voluntary attention, while others are the result of deficient control, and hence represent serious leakages of energy. It follows that while some demand summary suppression at the teacher's hands, others are means for the development of working power, and should at least not be interfered with. An interesting field is opened in determining with some exactness the relative effect upon the cerebral circulation of the various automatisms. It is pointed out in passing that if a child in learning to write does not easily overcome the marked twistings of the mouth, etc., which accompany the effort, it is an indication that it is not yet old enough to undertake the mastery of the art.

—It is safe to conjecture that Malwida von Meysenbug, who contributes to the August *Cosmopolis* some unpublished letters of Richard Wagner with a connecting commentary, is the author of the anonymous 'Memoiren einer Idealistin' which has provided biographers with interesting details regarding Wagner's life and sufferings in Paris during the time of the "Tannhäuser" rehearsals in 1860-'61, several of the incidents related in the text being nearly identical with passages in that book. The writer had been led by admiration of Wagner's genius to seek his acquaintance. She was a frequent visitor at his residence in Paris, and subsequently tried to keep up a correspondence. In seven years she received nine letters from him, in one of which he praises her for being "a genuine friend, who isn't frightened into immediate silence if one of her letters remains unanswered, but kindly writes again." It cannot be said that the letters she received from him reveal any important incidents in his life hitherto unknown, but they contain many characteristic details. Wagner not only was an indefatigable writer, but he had a rare faculty for adapting the style of his letters to the character of the recipient: the tone or atmosphere of these letters is quite different from the varied spirit of the letters to Liszt, Uhlig, Heine, Praeger, Frau Wille, and others, so that one is almost tempted at first to believe in a mystification; but as the letters proceed, the real Wagner is soon revealed unmistakably. We have space for only one brief extract, from a letter dated Biebrich on the Rhine, March 12, 1862:

"During all this time there was only one period when I really existed. That was when, amid unprecedentedly disagreeable circumstances, and as though it were the last chance to save my life, I locked myself up four weeks in Paris to write the poem of my 'Meistersinger.' By the end of January I had finished it, and my next task was to find an asylum where I might set it to music. After overcoming countless difficulties I have found such a place here in Biebrich, and to-morrow I hope to begin on the composition. . . . For such an undertaking I could ask my publisher for the advance of such a sum as is requisite to support me for a year while I am at work. The four weeks of literary activity in Paris were my happiest, but I was able to keep up the charm only by refusing to look right or left, until no one remained about me but *garçons* and *concierges*. The poem gave me ineffable pleasure; I am convinced it is my most inspired effort."

And in a later letter, when the music, too, was completed, he wrote: "That is my masterwork; no other comes up to it. To *that* performance you must come."

—The past spring and summer witnessed in Paris a general recrudescence, or one might say exacerbation, of interest in the love affairs of Musset and George Sand. The movement was started by the curious volume of Mme. Arvède Barine, and by an article by M. Spoelberch de Lovenjoul in *Cosmopolis*. Other periodicals followed suit, each taking its part in the controversy and throwing its little pebble of document or of hypothesis on the large and growing cairn. Among these later articles may be signalled as of especial interest one which Dr. Cabanès contributed somewhat more than a month ago to the *Revue Hebdomadaire* on the relations of George Sand, Pagello, and Musset at the time of the winter in Venice. Pagello is still alive, and Dr. Cabanès appealed to him directly as to an historical source. He, who all his life till now has been very discreet, permitted one of his friends to make some disclosures. The legend that Musset became aware of his betrayal by Mme. Sand through seeing two shadows projected on the wall of the Hôtel Danielli, is rejected by Pagello, as it was always denied by the heroine of the incident. Signor Fontana, who speaks for Pagello, tells the story thus: One night George Sand, after having written three pages of inspired poetic prose (Signor Pagello has kept them and they are unpublished), put them into a blank envelope and handed them to Pagello. He, seeing no address, and either not understanding or feigning not to understand the situation, asked her to whom he should give them. She snatched the envelope out of his hands and addressed it: "Au stupide Pagello." A few days afterwards George Sand declared frankly to Musset that she could no longer be more than a friend to him. At one time Pagello had almost made up his mind to burn his correspondence with the author of 'Lélia,' but he has not done so. Her letters, of which there are enough to form a volume, are in the hands of an Italian writer and will appear after Pagello's death. A memorial which the nonogenarian has written, and which he gave in charge to his eldest son, will be published at the same epoch by the filial piety of a grandchild.

—The *Revue de Paris* of August 15 is the latest to take up the tale, though doubtless the *Revue des Deux Mondes* will have its innings yet. This latest article is the work of M. Maurice Clouard, and the most piquant part of his study bears upon the relations of

the two famous lovers after they returned from Venice. Musset came back first and alone; George Sand followed with Pagello. Then began the period of storm and stress chronicled by Mme. Arvède Barine. It was storm and stress of a very undignified and trivial sort—daily tempests in a teapot, with the jealous Pagello looking on. M. Clouard prints a number of the notes and letters that were written at the time, and they are not pleasant reading. Lifelong exile to Spain was threatened, and the result was a month's sojourn at Bâle. Eternal separations were announced every day, and none lasted twenty-four hours. Pagello soon tired of the sight of these lovers' quarrels and withdrew to Italy. At last George Sand, in an access of good sense, departed for Nohant on the 6th of March, 1835, and this time the episode was definitively closed. During the rest of the life of Musset, George Sand and he were on friendly terms. They wrote to each other, and saw each other, and their relations appeared to be wholly cordial. Why, twenty years after Musset's death, George Sand should have written 'Elle et Lui,' is a mystery which M. Maurice Clouard professes himself incapable of explaining. He only states the problem, and urges, in order to its resolving, the publication of all the correspondence between the lovers. But not all of those who are in possession of these most interesting literary documents appear as yet to have made up their minds to let them see the light.

—Complaints are again made in the German newspapers of the stagnant condition of the book trade, overproduction being usually advanced as the chief cause (there were more than 20,000 new publications last year). But there are other causes, one of which is feelingly dwelt on in the following extract from one of the letters to the poet Anastasius Grün by Frankl (and others), with their answers, which are to appear in book form this autumn. It was written in 1865, but might as well be dated yesterday:

"Every laboring man, provided he isn't a fool and is willing to work, may succeed in making a comfortable living; the German author alone cannot do so. Who is to blame for this? No one but the German public! It buys no books. While hardly any one hesitates to spend 4, 8, or 10 florins for a few hours' fleeting amusement in theatre or concert-hall, he cannot make up his mind to give two or three florins for a book. Ladies of the highest circles do not hesitate to send to the circulating library for their favorite novels, which may have been in the hands of the unwashed and diseased—perhaps a leper. Why the alms of a Schiller stipend if Germans bought the books of their writers as the English and French do? I know that poets and authors starve with them, too, but none of the standing of Gutzkow [who had just made an attempt at suicide]. Would not even Goethe and Schiller, Herder, Uhland, Lenau, and Grün have died of starvation had they been dependent on the profits on their writings alone? Grillparzer received in Austria for the whole work of his career 2,800 florins, or 400 florins for each 'piece.' . . . Our poets must learn to imitate the good custom of former potentates, each of whom learned a trade in order to have something to support himself in case he lost his crown."

—The papers bring us news of the death, at the age of sixty-five, of Joseph Delbœuf of Liège, one of the most original philosophic writers of our time. Those who know him best as a philosopher will be surprised to learn that his official life was spent in teaching Latin and Greek at the Belgian University, and that we owe numerous contributions to classical philology to his pen. His first work, published in the 50's, was his essay on Scientific Logic. His contributions to psychology, especially to the elucidation of space-perception, of Weber's law, of sleep and dreams; to algorithmic logic; to speculative biology; to the philosophy of mathematics, and to metaphysics—have made him widely known. A dozen years ago he became interested in hypnotism, and, owing to a certain natural talent, had much success in therapeutic suggestion, making interesting contributions to that subject. He stoutly resisted the Belgian doctors in their attempts to restrict by law the liberty of experimenting in these directions. He was a fascinating writer, such an alliance of wit and reasoning as he commanded being excessively rare. He was a most original and lovable personality, and all students of philosophy will deplore that he has passed away without having given to the world a final systematic elaboration of his ideas on the philosophy of Nature. He was an indeterminist, and one of the very few—Fechner and our own Charles S. Peirce are others—who see more hope in speculatively evolving dead matter from living than living matter from dead. In the clash of opinions, this point of view is also precious, and Delbœuf's final work would have been of first-rate importance.

INDULGENCES.

A History of Auricular Confession and Indulgences in the Latin Church. By Henry Charles Lea, LL.D. Vol. III. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers & Co. 1896.

Dr. Lea's third volume comes with gratifying promptness to complete this really great contribution to our knowledge of the Roman Church in one of its most interesting aspects. Though it rests upon the former volumes as a basis, it may well be read as an independent treatise by that larger public for which the subject of indulgences has always a peculiar attraction. At no other point does the Roman institution come so close to the daily and hourly experience of its members. By no other device does it so effectively command their allegiance. We predict, therefore, for this volume a wide circle of readers. It ought even to commend itself to candid Roman Catholics, for we doubt if they can find anywhere a more careful presentation of the history of this institution or a more intelligent appreciation of its purpose. That the author is wholly out of sympathy with that purpose goes without saying; yet here, even more than in the former volumes, he holds his prejudices in check, and subordinates them to the purely historical aim he has set before himself.

In pursuance of this aim Dr. Lea tries first to fix, on the basis of the most trustworthy Roman authorities, the definitions of the terms most frequently to be employed, and then proceeds to show the almost endless variety of ways in which these definitions have been interpreted in practice. Probably nine out of ten Protestants have always thought of the indulgence as a remission of sins for a money payment, and have even fancied, without much reflection, that it was a license to commit indefinite sins in the future. Dr. Lea corrects these errors at the outset, and never, throughout the volume, loses sight of the original meaning of indulgence as a remission of some part of the penalty due for sins in consideration of a voluntary contribution to some one of the many pious uses for which, ever since the days of the crusades, the Church has always needed money. Given the system of penance described in Dr. Lea's first two volumes, and given also the theory of the Church as the sole dispenser of the divine bounty; add to this the notion of a purgatory after death in which the soul is gradually freed from the burden of sin left upon it after all the sacramental functions of the Church in this life have been duly performed, and the theory of indulgences follows by a very natural progression.

Like many another comparatively harmless theory, however, it begins to be dangerous as soon as it gets into the hands of men who have ends of their own to serve by it. As defined by the law-making and law-interpreting power of the Church, the indulgence was never anything but what it was in the beginning—a part of that beneficent activity by which the Church reconciles offending man with a forgiving God. There was never a moment, to the present day, when the Church could not defy the world to point to a single case of authoritative departure from the received definitions. Yet, from the very earliest time, there was a great variety of opinion among orthodox scholars as to the limitations of the indulgence, and almost any abuse could justify itself by reference to first-rate authorities. Still more inevitable was the diversity of practice arising from the frailty of the instruments to whom this awful power must needs be intrusted.

The rule that a principal is bound by the acts of his agents, one of the safeguards of civil society, has never been very strictly understood by the Church. The central power has always been jealous of its ministers, and has gone on steadily diminishing their independent activity, until, by the act of papal infallibility, it has practically destroyed it. The history of indulgences illustrates perfectly this demoralizing tendency. No matter how gross the violations of the early, simple, and comparatively harmless theory might be, the Church could always throw the blame upon its wicked or ignorant agents, and, by its merciful pardoning power, cover any evil they might have done. From time to time, as evils came to be too notorious or too scandalous, it yielded to demands for reform, but always with the reaffirmation of the principles underlying the abuses it was (no doubt sincerely) trying to amend.

Nor has the papal power ever been very careful about consistency in detail. Above all else it is a practical institution, and concerns itself with immediate demands, always justifying its action by reference to certain great fundamental ideas which it alone can truly interpret. So, in the matter of indulgences, it has always been able to clear itself of all imputation by showing how the great needs of "religion" demanded the action in question. Dr. Lea carries us forward through the tangled maze of scholastic theology and Jesuit casuistry and Roman assertion to an almost clear understanding of the devious ways whereby the indulgence system has kept its marvellous hold upon the conscience of an "enlightened" generation. We say "almost," because it is doubtful if the uninspired non-Roman intelligence of the nineteenth century is capable of really comprehending that shading into each other of the true, the fictitious, and the false which alone can make this view of the moral life acceptable.

On no point, perhaps, in the whole range of ecclesiastical administration has the policy of vagueness been so consistently carried out as here. Even the very terms of the indulgence are to this day undefined by any decisive au-

thority. Doctors have differed radically, for example, as to the meaning of the phrase "an indulgence of so many days." Does it mean remission of so many days' penance on earth, and, if so, in what does a day's penance consist? Or does it mean shortening by so many days the period of purgatory, and, since the length of this period is unknown, is there any conceivable proportion between the amount of sin for which purgatory is due, and the act in consideration of which the indulgence is granted? Rome has been employing this language for now at least a thousand years, but has never defined it, and so it goes on cheerfully spurring on the zeal of the faithful by promises of they know not and do not stop to ask what. The Church gains its revenues, the faithful are edified, and the day of compromising explanations is indefinitely postponed. The phrases by which all action of Rome is justified are familiar, but it needs just such a careful presentation as this of Dr. Lea to bring out the curious disproportion of these phrases to the demand of the enlightened conscience which calls them forth.

The sketch of the part played by the indulgence in bringing out the protest of the Reformation is the least weighty part of the volume, perhaps because by that time the system was itself the chief agency in its own ruin, and, therefore, needs less emphasis. Dr. Lea is not writing a history of the Reformation, but tracing an institution, and the interest of his narrative therefore leads him on along the course of the Counter-Reformation, and into the vast application of the indulgence as a weapon against the ever-present enemy. If the Roman institution has become more decent under the constant criticism of Protestantism, it cannot be said that, so far as the indulgence is concerned, it has become more intelligent. Dr. Lea's last four chapters, with their calm enumeration of the recent developments of the indulgence theory, offer a subject of study as serious to the student of social science as it is curious to the psychologist.

RECENT MUSICAL BOOKS.

The Story of British Music. By F. J. Crowest. Scribners. Pp. 396.

Legends of the Wagner Dramas. By Jessie L. Weston. Scribners. Pp. 380.

The Evolution of Church Music. By F. Landon-Humphreys. Scribners. Pp. 179.

THERE are some queer statements in Mr. Crowest's history of British music. In the preface the reader is told that "histories of music almost rival the planets in number"; but we are quite sure there are a great many more, though perhaps not quite as many as there are stars. On one of the last pages we read that in England, during the Elizabethan age, "musicians rose up who were as great in their way as were Shakspere, Bacon, Halley, and Frobisher in theirs." If Mr. Crowest will name the British musician who was as great in his way as Shakspere, his discovery will make his own fame second only to that of Columbus. This revelation is probably reserved for a second volume, which is incidentally promised on page 384. The present volume extends from the earliest times to the Tudor period, and it must be conceded that, apart from astronomical and patriotic eccentricities, the author has produced a readable and useful volume. There is necessarily a good deal of padding in it, for up to within a few centuries accurate knowledge regarding the history of music in any country is very scant; the earliest recorded piece of secular music in England belongs to the thirteenth century, and remains nearly isolated for a couple of centuries more.

Mr. Crowest has followed the example of Naumann in illustrating his volume with numerous cuts, some of which possess exceptional interest, as, for instance, that of the Welsh *crwth* (crowth), generally considered the earliest instrument played with a bow, or those of the primitive organs, with their curious arrangements for "raising the wind." Amusing details are given regarding that musical wonder of the tenth century, the Winchester Cathedral organ, with its four hundred pipes and twenty-six bellows worked by seventy strong men, which produced tones "like thunder" that made every one "stop with his hands his gaping ears," and was "heard throughout the town." Mr. Crowest says that no such organs are made to-day, but he might have suggested that this organ was nevertheless typical of what is perhaps more characteristic of musical England than anything else—the love of massive effects. To this day the "biggest thing" in musical London is a Handel Festival concert, with 5,000 singers. Such a performance attracts an audience of from 20,000 to 30,000 in the Crystal Palace, and the big organ, which makes itself heard above all these voices, does its share of the attracting. Another curiosity mentioned is the old custom of one church lending an instrument to another, which indicates that in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries some of the church organs were of a portable character. Though he gives no statistics, it is safe, in view of the religious propensities of the English, to believe Mr. Crowest when he says that "to-day the building of organs, whether for church, concert hall, or chamber, has become one of the leading trades" of England. Fathers of the Church allowed the lyre, cithara, and other instruments in the church service, but it is easy to see why the organ drove all rivals from the field: its sustaining power supported the voices and prevented the flatting usual in congregational singing.

Mr. Crowest concedes that the indigenous music of England has a less distinctive quality than that of Wales, Scotland, and Ireland; but for British music as a totality he claims that "when the whole story has been told, it will be found that no country—neither France, Germany, nor Italy—has so ancient an origin in music, or a more glorious record than has England." The last part of this sentence is absurd: England has not produced a single composer of the first rank (like Bach, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, Wagner), or even of the second (Handel, Mendelssohn, Gounod, Verdi, etc.). It must be conceded that the quaint melodies of Scotland, Wales, and Ireland are as beautiful and as original as the folkmusic of any country, including Russia and Germany; but why the English, who had such a splendid foundation to build on, and who, for many centuries, really were, as abundant testimony shows, as much addicted to music in public and private life as any nation, should have never built a musical cathedral on those foundations is an ethnological and æsthetic mystery which our author does not solve. He suggests, indeed, after speaking of the great popularity of the minstrels, that "the obloquy which for so many years afterwards attended the following of music as a profession in this country, and which reputation only the persistent example of musicians of the latter half of the nineteenth century has permanently removed," was due to the degradation of the minstrel love-ditties to songs of a licentious, satirical, and libellous character, which caused the church and society to taboo them. But that such a cause could not have prevented the rise of a musical genius we know from the analogous case of literature and the drama. In view of their poetry, architecture, and painting, it would be absurd to call the English an unæsthetic nation; why, then, have they produced no musical genius? The great absorption of the British mind in political questions and commercialism has been suggested in these columns as a partial answer to that question, but it does not explain why (since, after all, a great deal of music is made in Great Britain) not a single great genius has appeared as the exception to emphasize the general mediocrity.

The claim, to which Mr. Crowest recurs again and again, that England is the oldest musical country—he even says that it "played the major part in making the art of music that vast medium of thought and expression which it now is"!—is, of course, based chiefly on that eternal and rather commonplace canon, "Sumer is icumen in," of which one is getting rather tired. Granted that it is by far the earliest preserved secular piece of its kind, Mr. Crowest himself gives the reasons (pp. 376-7) why secular music had so little chance of preservation except orally; and the fact that the earliest piece preserved is English may be a mere accident, and affords no valid proof that in other countries such pieces may not have been sung much earlier. If there were a large number of such English pieces, the case would be stronger; but one swallow does not make *sumer*. On the other hand, Mr. Crowest does well to emphasize the fact that in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries secular music was greatly in advance of church music, on which historians have usually based their inferences. The minstrels, not being bound by conservative ecclesiastic rules, caught the modern spirit of music in rhythm and harmony much sooner than the church composers. Exactly what their harmony was it is difficult to say. Following Sir Frederick Ouseley, Mr. Crowest makes rather rash inferences as to the use of harmonic intervals and part singing in very early times. When he says (p. 68) that "man is a harmonious creature, who must have been endued from the beginning with the faculty of forming harmony with the voice—just as the merest children can add to-day what they term 'seconds' to a tune," and again (p. 269), "It is in the nature of things that wherever there is melody there harmony is close by"—he makes assertions which, in view of what we know of ancient Greek and Oriental music and the art of savages, cannot be accepted.

One of the most interesting quotations in this volume is from the Venerable Bede (672-735); it indicates the esteem in which music was held in some early English minds:

> "Music is the most worthy, courteous, pleasant, joyous and lovely of all knowledge; it makes a man gentlemanly in his demeanor, pleasant, courteous, joyous, lovely, for it acts upon his feelings. . . . Music encourages us to bear the heaviest afflictions, administers consolation in every difficulty, refreshes the broken spirit, removes headache and sorrow, expels foul spirits, and cures crossness and melancholy."

The opponents of Wagner, in their eager search for ammunition, used to predict that his dramas would never become popular outside of Germany, because their German sub-

jects could not be expected to appeal to audiences of a different nationality. Jessie L. Weston, in the 'Legends of the Wagner Drama,' makes (or ought to make) these critics blush by pointing out that

"of the great cycle of legends based on well-known works of mediæval German literature, which forms the subject-matter of Wagner's music-dramas, two alone, the Nibelungen and the Tannhäuser legends, can be claimed as purely German; and of these, the hero of the first, Siegfried, is but the Teutonic development of an Aryan original whose British parallel is to be found in Parsifal. . . . The heroes of the Wagner drama are no strange creations of a foreign tongue and a foreign literature, but belong to us by hereditary right."

Again, she confutes those who, while admitting Wagner's selective instinct and dramatic power, denied his poetic gift and denounced his dramas as rubbish. As a matter of fact, what is unique and original in these dramas is precisely that selective instinct and dramatic power; the material for his dramas Wagner, like Shakspere, borrowed from the world's literature. "We need to realize that the life of the Wagner drama is the genius, not alone of the musician and dramatist, but of men whose work has already stood the test of centuries." In the 380 pages of the present volume the author endeavors to show the relation of Wagner's work to the literary and legendary sources upon which it is founded. The book is not, therefore, like several others that have recently appeared, a mere attempt to tell the stories of Wagner's poems in English prose, but it is a study in comparative mythology and poetry which may interest even those to whom Wagner is mortal and Bayreuth a mundane city.

Bishop Potter, in an introduction to the Rev. F. Landon-Humphreys's 'Evolution of Church Music,' says that "the history of music may be said, in one aspect of it, to be almost a history of religion." Fortunately, the author of the volume before us has not looked at his task from such a broad and comprehensive point of view. He writes as an amateur for amateurs; but his elegantly printed volume contains much that will interest clergymen and others. It is a compilation of well-known facts which are clearly presented on the whole, although some of the technical points will be difficult to grasp by those unfamiliar with musical history. Our author thinks that "musical taste is nowhere at a lower level than in our own land," and he attributes this in part to the popular demand for novelty in the hymn-books. He has a great admiration for German chorals, and justly remarks that if the compilers of hymn-books would select more of these in place of the feeble, trivial tunes they prefer, our psalmody would be greatly improved. He says that the German edition of the Moody and Sankey hymns

"has been enriched by a full harmony which changes their slight melodies so completely that you would hardly know them for the same as the originals. But it should be reiterated that in Germany these hymns are used only by the smaller sects—the dissenters, so to speak. In the Lutheran Church the introduction of these trifling tunes, even for Sunday-school use, would not be permitted."

The London Burial Grounds. By Mrs. Basil Holmes. Macmillan.

London Street Names. By F. H. Habben. Philadelphia: Lippincott.

It is difficult to realize that, up to about thirty years ago, intramural interment was still permitted in London. For many years Mrs. Basil Holmes was engaged in making a list of London burial-grounds. The reader may naturally ask why to make such a list should have required so much labor. The answer is, that the list was intended to include sites which had ceased to be recognizable as burial-grounds. An immense number of burial-grounds were opened by private speculators; when these grounds were full, the sites were, after an interval more or less indecent, utilized for building purposes, the human remains being carted away. Starting, therefore, with Rocque's map of 1746, Mrs. Holmes set to work to find out by actual inspection what had become of the burial spaces marked in this and later maps. The work, tedious and difficult enough, had, as Mrs. Holmes shows, its humorous side; she gives narratives of her encounters with grave-diggers, gardeners, and others, sometimes friendly, sometimes hostile, generally with a flavor of suspicion. The work was undertaken first for the Metropolitan Public Gardens Association, and later for the London County Council—in both cases with a view to laying out the disused burial-grounds as public gardens. The book is full of painful and even of horrible details, telling of gorged graveyards, raised by burials many feet above the old levels, with the sickening accompaniments which we prefer to leave to the reader's imagination. We are not surprised to find that, as the result of her dreadful experiences, Mrs. Basil Holmes is an advocate of cremation. While it cannot be said that the book furnishes agreeable reading, it bears every evidence of most praiseworthy care in its compilation, and should be of great value to those in search of information on the subject of London burial-places.

In a volume of fewer than three hundred pages Mr. Habben has endeavored to give an account of the street-names of a portion of London—of Old London, one may say. The subject is interesting and is well treated, and our author has evidently spent much time and research on it. The arrangement is alphabetical, in which Mr. Habben follows Elmes, Cunningham, and others. Some London names are of great antiquity: for example, Watling Street and Addle Street come down to us from Saxon times; Basinghall Street dates from the thirteenth century; Bucklersbury, famed in Shakspere's day for its trade in "simples," takes its name from the Buckerel family, a member of which was Mayor in 1231. Goodman's Fields was called after the owner of a farm there, "at the which farm," says Stow, "I myself in my youth have fetched many a half-penny worth of milk." Many a name like Austin Friars, Crutched Friars, Blackfriars, Whitefriars, Minories recalls the name of a monastery swept away by that zealous reformer Henry VIII., who turned the sick into the street and put the cost of their keep into his own pocket. Curtain Road preserves the name of the Curtain Theatre, built about 1576; Bear Gardens, in Southwark (omitted by Mr. Habben), derives its name from the bear-garden, a representation of which is given in the earliest map of London—that of Braun and Hogenberg, published in 1572, but probably copied from a map drawn fourteen years earlier.

We do not always agree with Mr. Habben, who is perhaps a little too much inclined to accept the derivations of Stow, which are sometimes of quite antique simplicity. It is, for example, difficult to suppose that the suffix "le Poor," distinguishing the church of St. Peter in Broad Street from other churches similarly dedicated, was derived from the poverty of the parish. Probably research would show that, as in the case of St. Benet Fink, St. Lawrence Pountney, St. Martin Outwich, and others, the distinctive name was that of a family (le Poer) connected with the church as benefactors. But Stow might have saved Mr. Habben from one questionable derivation. Mr. Habben thinks that Gun Square, Houndsditch, "should be rather Gun's Square, the only surviving memento of an obscure individual, probably the owner of the property." But, in discoursing of Houndsditch, Stow tells how, about the latter reign of Henry VIII., certain gunfounders got ground on "the field side" of Houndsditch to enclose for the casting of brass ordnance. Accordingly, on Braun and Hogenberg's map, we find on "the field side" of Houndsditch, "y° Goounefownders h°," with a mounted gun in the enclosure. The place is also clearly indicated, although not named, on the map of Aggas, so-called. The enclosure occupies, apparently, exactly the site of Gun Square.

Camping in the Canadian Rockies. By Walter Dwight Wilcox. With twenty-five full-page photogravures and many text illustrations from photographs by the author. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

The tourist era of the Canadian Rockies began ten years ago with the opening of the Canadian Pacific Railway. More recently the construction of one hotel at Banff in the Canadian National Park, and of another at the heart of the Selkirk glaciers, has made the region a recognized centre of mountaineering effort. New fields so alluring soon attracted travellers from every part of the world, and the work of individual exploration in the neighborhood of the railway line has gone forward apace. We may now confidently await the publication from time to time of sumptuous illustrated bulletins relating to the Canadian Rockies, in which successive climbers will announce their exploits, discoveries, and pleasures. Dr. Green and Emil Huber have already printed interesting accounts of adventure in the Selkirk range. Mr. Wilcox surpasses them both in completeness of survey, fulness of detail, and beauty of illustration.

Neither the Canadian Rockies proper nor the Selkirks reach the same elevation that is attained by the main ridge of the Rockies in the United States. The highest summit yet found, between the boundary and the railway, falls short of 12,000 feet. Mounts Forbes, Brown, and Hooker in the Waputehk range probably reach 13,000 or 14,000 feet, though nothing very definite is at present known about them. The great charm of the Canadian Rockies to mountaineers is not their altitude, but their glaciers. These surpass the Aletsch glacier in extent and the Rhone glacier in beauty. To take a single example of their abundance, Mr. Wilcox says incidentally of the view from Eagle Peak: "The great Illecillewaet *névé*, with its twenty square miles or more of unbroken snow fields, stretches out in the distance and forms part of the eastern horizon. . . . It has been stated on good authority that from Mount Abbott, a far lower ridge on the farther side of the valley, more than one hundred and twenty individual glaciers may be counted, but there are even more within view from Eagle Peak." The fish and game, the flowers and rocks of the district appeal equally to sportsmen and scientists. If only their flies and their jungle were less trying,

the length and breadth of the Canadian Rockies would be compassed in the next ten years.

Mr. Wilcox's interest in the Rockies and Selkirks is so diversified that his book can hardly be viewed from the standpoint of a single sport. He is devoted to camp life—even to the length of describing its beneficial effect on the character—and when it comes to a choice between mountaineering and photography, the latter seems to carry the day. He has historical chapters on the early explorers and their work. He discusses the pleasures of the natural sciences, the origin and cause of mountains, the Chinook winds, the effect of high latitude on sun and moon, etc. Withal, the present volume comes within the range of tourist literature. We have six or seven works on the same region by geologists, geographers, and railway surveyors. The difference between Mr. Wilcox and his most important predecessors is that he was out for pleasure and they were out for work. Mr. Wilcox ventured far enough from the beaten path to encounter some trials and privations, but the well-equipped camper of modern times treads a primrose path. To gain an idea of what the Canadian Rockies are at their worst, one must read the narratives of Mackenzie, Hector, Milton and Cheadle, or at least Mr. Wilcox's abridgment of their most harrowing experiences. Geographical curiosity and the peltry trade were the motives of the pioneers. Mr. Wilcox went out to camp, to climb, and to take photographs. Yet his account of the first complete journey around the base of Mount Assiniboine shows that he has the energy and endurance of the true explorer. It is pervaded by a tone of resolution and objective purpose which leads us to hope that he will continue in the same field, and come home some autumn with the top of the highest of the Waputehks in his pocket. At present he stands half way between the ordinary tourist and the professed explorer.

Mr. Wilcox's principal centres were Banff, Lake Louise, and the Glacier House. His longest expeditions led to "Paradise" Valley, to the foot of Mount Assiniboine, and to the Bow Lakes. His best summit was Mount Temple, the highest of the Canadian Rockies yet ascended. The quotation marks about "Paradise" require an explanation. The valley in question lies at the base of Mount Temple and received its name from a variety of qualities delectable to campers. Mr. Wilcox lays such stress upon its beauty that one is reminded of Rasselas and the Happy Valley of Abyssinia. Fortunately it is within easy reach of Lake Louise, and even the casual tourist can reach it without much inconvenience. Mr. Wilcox praises the scenery of the Canadian Rockies enthusiastically, and numerous full-page illustrations justify all that he says. One should not conceal the fact that the danger to climbers is considerable in both Rockies and Selkirks. The assistance of trained local guides is wholly wanting, and the mountains are, to use a phrase of Alpine slang, "in a very bad state of repair." When to these sources of risk is added complete isolation in case of accident, it will be seen that the utmost care is required in the equipment and conduct of expeditions to the Kootanie and the Bow. A member of Mr. Wilcox's party nearly lost his life on Mount Lefroy two years before the death of Philip S. Abbot at the same point brought sorrow to many hearts and loss to his country.

We have only one stricture of consequence to make upon this excellent book of travel and adventure. It should have been accompanied by a map. Mr. Wilcox fails to justify his remissness in this respect by stating in the preface: "A map is not included in the volume, as, owing to the wildness of the country, there are no detailed maps covering this region that are entirely satisfactory." A confessedly rough map based on Dr. Dawson's Preliminary Report would have been much better than nothing.

The Thomas Book, giving the Genealogies of Sir Rhys ap Thomas, K.G., the Thomas family descended from him, and of some allied families. By Lawrence Buckley Thomas, D.D. Imprinted at New York city by the Henry T. Thomas Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. 627.

The Ashley Genealogy: A History of the Descendants of Robert Ashley of Springfield, Mass. By Francis Bacon Trowbridge, author of the Champion Genealogy and the Hoadley Genealogy. New Haven: The Author. 1896. 8vo, pp. 472.

THE large and well-printed volume, 'The Thomas Book,' will take its only suitable place among the curiosities of the collector, as a monument of money wasted. The editor or compiler evidently had no plan of arrangement, and seemingly had no special object in view except to empty his scrap-books. Undoubtedly many facts are truly recorded herein, but most of them have been printed before, and the need of the reproduction is not evident. Thus, the first twenty-eight pages relate the pedigree of a Thomas family of Wales, leading up to the unfounded suggestion that one member was Philip Thomas, a colonist in Maryland 1651–1675. Then follow some forty pages of the genealogies of various Thomas families in Maryland; and, as far as p. 193, other Thomas families are recorded, arranged alphabetically according to their localities. Little can be said in praise of this part of the book, as the longer pedigrees are entirely lacking in suitable arrangement, numbering, or cross-references, and the shorter ones are simply scraps. For example, two pages are given to the noted Thomas family of Marshfield, as an excuse for putting in a portrait of Gen. John Thomas, and adding a "society item" in regard to one other member of the family. On p. 155 will be found a record of the Thomas family of Portland, Me., giving the names of Hon. William W. Thomas and his two sons, copied from some printed source of information, but filling out the requisite number of pages. Pp. 196–556 are made up of families allied to the Thomases, arranged alphabetically and located indiscriminately in America or in Europe. Of these sketches the principal ones relate to the Chew, Lawrence, Fairfax, and Snowden families, and the connection in most cases seems to be that some one member of such family has married some Thomas.

It is impossible to call this book in any sense a genealogy or even a help to genealogy. There cannot be the slightest gain in reprinting scraps from Burke's 'Peerage' or his 'Commoners,' covering a few generations of a single line of some English family no more connected with America than with Ethiopia. Nor are we to be edified by cuts of English coats-of-arms or portraits of English worthies copied from books easily accessible. As we have already said, it is highly probable that much of the American portion is new and correct, but no author who neglects the well-known rules for arranging and printing genealogies can expect more than reluctant thanks for his work. A book of this size and miscellaneous character could be pardoned only had there been a suitable index; but, as might be presumed, nothing of the kind is provided. The only attempt to make matters intelligible is the use of the childish plan of using various fonts of type to mark the generations, which not only disfigures the page but adds enormously to the cost. In fact, the main impression made upon the reader is that expense was no object, and that a big volume with as many illustrations as could be dragged in was the end to be attained. We by no means object to the publication of English genealogies by American namesakes, especially if due prominence be given to the fact that the connecting link is missing. But really if one should try to collect all families with so common a surname as Thomas, it seems absurd to drag in Thomas, Archbishop of York, who died A. D. 1100 (pp. 71-73), and Thomas à Becket (p. 564).

In the 'Ashley Genealogy' are recorded the descendants, in the male line, of Robert Ashley of Springfield, 1639–1682, through his three sons David, Jonathan, and Joseph. The difference in the lines is quite marked, David having 284 male descendants, heads of families; Jonathan 53, and Joseph 84; the last being divided into two branches. These Ashleys seem to have been remarkable for an attachment to their birthplace unusual in this country, and most of those recorded spent their lives in the vicinity of Springfield. The most noted of the name was perhaps Chester Ashley, born in Amherst, Mass., in 1791, an emigrant to Arkansas, and a Senator therefrom in 1844–48. This family history is in all respects creditable to the compiler. The system is clear and full, the dates are precise, the sketches wonderfully complete, especially of men pursuing the ordinary avocations of life. The illustrations, mainly views of houses, will appeal to the hearts of future generations, and every bearer of the name must feel under obligations to the author.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abrahams, Israel. Jewish Life in the Middle Ages. Macmillan. $1.75.
Bedell, Prof. F. The Principles of the Transformer. Macmillan. $3.25
Bourke, Capt. J. G. On the Border with Crook. Scribners. $2.50.
Brinton, Prof. D. G. The Myths of the New World. 3d ed., revised. Philadelphia: David McKay. $2.
Brodhead, Eva W. One of the Visconti: A Novelette. Scribners. 75c.
Castlemon, Harry. The Mystery of Lost River Canyon. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co
Chamberlin, J. E. The Listener in the Town. The Listener in the Country. Boston: Copeland & Day. Each 75c.
Dresser, H. W. The Perfect Whole: An Essay on the Conduct and Meaning of Life. Boston: G. H. Ellis.
Emerson, Prof. O. F. Brief History of the English Language. Macmillan. $1.
Fearenside, C. S. Intermediate Text-Book of English History. Vol. III. London: W. B. Clive; New York: Hinds & Noble. $1.
Grandgent, C. H. French Lessons and Exercises. Second Year's Course. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Hertwig, Prof. O. The Biological Problem of To-day. Macmillan. $1.25.
Hibbard, G. A. Lenox. [American Summer Resorts.] Scribners. 75c.
Holland, J. G. Sevenoaks: A Story of To-day.—Arthur Bonnicastle. New ed. 2 vols. Scribners. Each 75c.
Holmes, Mrs. Mary J. Mrs. Hallam's Companion, and Other Tales. G. W. Dillingham. $1.50.
Irving, Washington. Columbus, his Life and Voyages. Condensed by the Author. Putnams. $1.50.
Judson, H. P. The Higher Education as a Training for Business. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus. 30c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 24, 1896.

The Week.

THREE States have held elections this month. In all of them the rural population greatly preponderates. Not one of them contains any city of the first or even second rank in population. One is an overwhelmingly Democratic State in the far Southwest. The other two are strong Republican commonwealths in the extreme Northeast. Arkansas has a slightly larger population than Maine and Vermont combined. It is a State in which the free-silver sentiment has always been very strong. No canvass was made in it by the Republicans. Since the last Presidential election, the payment of a poll-tax has been made a qualification for the exercise of the suffrage. The new test was designed, as in all the Southern States since the war it always has been designed, to reduce the Republican vote. In twenty or more counties of the State, including nearly all of those in which the Republican vote would be large, the Republicans, in defiance of the spirit of the State law, were refused any representation among the election officials. The day after the election, and for a week or more longer, every dispatch from Little Rock reported enormous Democratic gains. Pluralities of seventy-five and eighty thousand were said to be indicated by the returns. The official figures are now in. It appears that the Populist vote of 31,117 in 1892 has been reduced to 13,989. This means, of course, that 17,000 Populists who in 1892 supported their own ticket, have been reconciled to the Democratic party by the declarations of the Chicago platform and by the nomination of Mr. Bryan. In spite of this large reinforcement, the Democratic vote, which was 90,115 in 1892, is only 1,009 larger in 1896. On the other hand, the Republican vote, in spite of the election methods and of the poll-tax qualification, has increased 1,742, so that even in Arkansas there has been a net Republican gain—trifling, it is true, but still a gain. The fair method of comparison, however, between the results of the two elections is to consider the Populist and the Democratic vote together on the one side and the Republican vote on the other. So considered, the anti-Republican forces in 1892 polled 121,232 votes; in 1896 they polled but 105,113 votes. Their majority over the Republicans in 1892 was 87,588; in 1896 it was but 69,727—a loss of 17,861, and this figure probably represents the number of sound-money Democrats who declined to vote their party ticket this year. Even in Arkansas, therefore, something like twenty per cent. of the Democratic vote cannot be polled for the nominees of the Chicago convention.

In Maine and Vermont the total Republican vote polled this year was 136,971, as against 106,527 four years ago—a gain of 30,444. The total Republican vote in these States this year is 9,000 greater than was ever before polled in them at any election by any party. The total Democratic vote in the same States, which in 1892 was 74,294, has fallen to 49,746—a loss of 24,448, or very nearly one-third. Never since the Republican and Democratic parties have faced each other, has so small a Democratic vote been polled in these States in the year of a Presidential election. The heaviest Republican plurality ever before given in them was 47,729, in 1868. This year the plurality amounts to 87,225, or nearly double that of twenty-eight years ago. Taking the three States together, it appears that a Democratic plurality of 24,000 in 1892 has been changed into a Republican plurality of 31,500 in 1896. It was said just after the Arkansas election that it answered Vermont. The facts show that the answer was an echo. Indeed, the result in Arkansas points to the overwhelming overthrow of the free-silver forces perhaps even more certainly than did the outcome in Maine and Vermont, for it shows not only that in the East and in New England is the Democratic party weaker than it was four years ago, but that it cannot this year poll its entire vote even in those sections of the country in which free silver has for a score of years been a part of the local party creed.

Neither the Vermont nor the Maine election casts any light upon the probable strength of the Palmer and Buckner ticket in November. In Vermont there was no Democratic gold-standard ticket, and in Maine the one which was nominated could not be got on the official ballot, so that anybody who wished to vote it had to write the names. Even with this immense disadvantage to contend against, Mr. Clifford received 567 ballots, which is almost exactly 1 per cent. of the Democratic vote of 55,078 at the corresponding election in 1892. If it had been as easy to vote for Mr. Clifford as for the Republican candidate, he would undoubtedly have been supported by more than one Democrat in a hundred, as many would have gone to the polls for that purpose who stayed away as it was. At the same time the prevailing feeling among those Democrats who rejected Bryanism with indignation, was to make their opposition as effective as possible by swelling the majority for the Republican candidate; and this seems to be the prevailing tendency among voters of that class throughout the North at present.

The Buffalo "Democratic" convention "completed its work" by adopting a platform which declares virtually that all previous platforms of the party for a quarter of a century have been lies, and by putting in the field for Governor a man who could not accept the nomination without either repudiating the platform or repudiating his own utterances of three months ago. This astonishing performance by a great party is excused and defended on the ground that in no other way could the organization be held together for future work. It is confessed that overwhelming defeat at the polls is expected, but that is thought to be of small moment compared with the preservation inviolate of the principle of "party regularity." Though Senator Hill held aloof from the convention, there seems to be no doubt that he directed its action, and that both the platform and the ticket are the results of his orders. It is even intimated that he will himself support the ticket, and will also support Bryan and Sewall, taking the ground that as an uncompromising bimetallist and unswerving Democrat he has no other course to follow. This would be the only logical course for Mr. Hill. The Buffalo convention was the natural fruit of his eleven years of party leadership in this State. He it is who has reduced the party organization to such a level that it is not ashamed to have Sheehan, the Buffalo defaulter, for a leader, or to sit in a convention with Tom Grady as presiding officer, or to go into the campaign with Danforth, the canvasser of illegal election returns, as chairman of its State committee, on a platform which favors repudiation and national dishonor and business chaos, and with a candidate for Governor who has not sufficient self-respect to refuse to stand on a platform which favors what he has denounced as unpatriotic and dishonorable.

Mr. John Boyd Thacher wishes it to be understood that he is himself the sole author of the letter which has made him the most despicable candidate that ever ran for high office in this State, and he should be allowed to have his way about it. He has made it impossible for either Bryan or anti-Bryan Democrats to vote for him, and, standing before the people of the State in this isolated attitude, he declares with great vehemence: "No human being on God's footstool knew anything about that letter except John Boyd Thacher." What is the matter with him? Why, bimetallism. He says he has not declared for gold, neither has he declared for silver, but that he stands for bimetallism, international bimetallism. The fact that the present campaign is a square fight between gold and silver does not bother

him at all. "I don't care four cents about being elected Governor; I want to be right in this matter." It is useless to try to understand Thacher, to explain his conduct by applying rational tests to it. If you will look in his eye, you will detect there that far, vague look which is said to characterize the eyes of most incurable bimetallists. The trouble with him is fundamental.

An attempt is made in the Buffalo Bryan Democratic platform to get up a State issue on the repeal of the Raines liquor-tax law, but it cannot succeed. It will be impossible to repeal or change the law in the next two Legislatures, because the Senate holds over for two years longer, having been elected for three years. It is a strongly Republican body and the Raines law is a strong Republican measure, and as such will not be meddled with. The members of the next Assembly, and their successors also, will be powerless to effect any change in the law, and it will be useless to endeavor to make such a proposition an issue in their election either this year or next. The Raines law is, in fact, a fixture for more than two years, and all efforts to get rid of it in the meantime will be wasted energy. It is, furthermore, working with far greater general satisfaction than was expected. The liquor-dealers seem reconciled to it, and even our alarmed German citizens do not make any complaints. As an issue it will play no part in this year's campaign, and cannot be counted upon to keep the Republican majority much below 200,000.

Tom Watson must have been delighted at the revelations made by the *Tribune* on Friday morning about his "hated rival" for the Vice-Presidency on the Bryan ticket, or rather tickets. Mr. Sewall recently took the contract for carrying four ship-loads of timber from Maine to Long Island City, and insisted upon having this clause inserted in it:

> "The party of the second part agrees to pay to said party of the first part, or agent, for the transportion of said timber .....dollars and.....cents, United States gold, or its equivalent."

Nor is this an isolated case. The *Tribune* has also discovered that one of Mr. Sewall's ships has been chartered to the Standard Oil Company, and has just loaded a cargo of case oil at Philadelphia for Japan, and that this clause appears in her contract of affreightment:

> "The party of the second part agrees to pay to said party of the first part or agent, for the use of said vessel during the voyage aforesaid, ...cents, United States gold, on each and every case delivered."

At best, Sewall with his known record was an absurd candidate for Vice-President on a platform declaring for 53-cent silver dollars, but when it is found that he insists upon 100-cent gold dollars in his own business, only Tom Watson's vocabulary is equal to the demands of the situation.

As a contribution to financial and economic thought, the following utterance of Mr. Bryan, made in Kentucky on Tuesday week, is the most remarkable yet offered even by him:

> "If any man in this community would offer to buy all the eggs produced at 25 cents a dozen, and was able to make good the offer, nobody would sell eggs for less, no matter what the cost of production, whether 1 cent or 5 cents a dozen. So with silver. Free coinage would establish the market price of silver at $1.29, and nobody would sell it for a cent less."

Why limit the price of eggs to 25 cents and of silver to $1.29? If the reasoning is sound, the price in each case might easily be doubled, and the consequent benefit to the human race correspondingly increased. And why stop with eggs and silver? Why not mark up the price of everything you wish to buy, offer to pay double or treble what is asked for it, and keep on paying that price to all comers—hold it there? That's all you have to do—hold it there. "Nobody would sell it for a cent less," says Bryan, so long as you held it. "So with silver." And the man who is putting forth such thought as this is a candidate for the Presidency of 70,000,000 of people in the closing years of the nineteenth century!

The Populist platform demands the acquisition by the Government of all the railroads in the country, in order that the "tyranny and political power" of those corporations, which result in the impairment, "if not the destruction," of the citizen's "political rights and personal liberties," may themselves be destroyed. The system which is to be acquired consists, according to *Poor's Manual*, just issued, of roads owing $5,640,942,567 in bonds, and $840,000,000 of current and unfunded debt. The owners of it have stock put down as worth $5,182,121,999. It is the stockholders of whose tyranny the Populists complain; whatever power the railroads have is wielded by directors and Presidents who are selected by and are themselves stockholders. To judge by Poor's pages, their devotion to tyranny has the peculiar result of producing the most shocking effects on their own income. In the last year they paid 4.25 per cent. interest on the bonds they owed, keeping for themselves only 1.59 per cent. on their stock. In 1894 they got 1.64; in 1888, 1.77. A disinterested love of tyranny is a novelty; but it must certainly be stamped out at all hazards. It is not for anybody's real interests that tyranny should increase as dividends decline. A tyrant who will take 1.59 per cent. for the sake of tyranny will never let liberty thrive even if he has to take less; and there are roads which have gone so far as to take nothing at all.

An illuminating glimpse into the constituents of "the money power" is afforded by an analysis of the depositors in a savings bank of Dubuque, Ia., which has 7,614 accounts, representing $4,000,000. These 7,614 persons are classified as follows: mechanics and laborers, 5,120; farmers, 1,207; teachers and professional men, 632; administrators and executors, 604; capitalists, 51. Still another glimpse is furnished in this statement by an exceptionally well-informed citizen of Franklin County, Mass., a county composed almost entirely of small farming towns, in a recent address to the "plutocrats" of that region who have loaned money on Western mortgages; "From data that I have obtained, I believe that not less than $3,000,000 of Franklin County money is to-day invested in Western farm mortgages, and that two-thirds of this belongs to farmers now in active life." With these revelations as to the character of "the money power" should be put an incident illustrative of the class of farmers in the West who are not deluded as to the source of their troubles, and who have no notion of trying to cheat their creditors out of half that they owe them. A savings bank in Windham County, Vermont, holds a small mortgage on a farm in Kansas—the money that went West being very likely the savings of a farmer in the Green Mountain State. The Western farmer recently sent the six months' interest due on his loan, and added in a postscript that he "did intend to send some principal on this pay-day, but the free-silverites are raising the very devil with business here in Kansas, and for a fact all over the West, and prices for all farm products are ruinous."

We have received a number of inquiries as to the redemption of silver dollars by the Treasury Department. So far as the statutes are concerned under which the present silver dollars have been coined, the dollars are not redeemable in any other coin or currency. The Treasury, moreover, has not made a practice of exchanging gold for silver dollars on demand. But this is because no test case has actually arisen, chiefly for the reason, as Mr. Carlisle has lately pointed out, that the supply of silver currency in existence has been limited. We were very near to something of a crisis in this regard in 1884 and 1885, when the pressure of silver coin or certificates in payment of dues to the Government, plainly menacing the maintenance of the gold reserve against legal tenders, was finally relieved only by Secretary Manning's very able management of the currency. Mr. Manning withdrew the legal-tender notes of small denominations, replacing them with certificates for large denominations. This void in the smaller currency was then filled by silver certificates in ten-dollar denominations or less. The certificates, by this process, were kept in permanent

circulation outside the Treasury, for use in small exchanges. The law which may be construed as guaranteeing the maintenance of our silver currency at its face value in gold, is the clause in the silver-purchase act of 1890 wherein it is declared to be "the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other." This declaration was reaffirmed, as Mr. Carlisle points out in his letter of Tuesday week, in the act of November 1, 1893. Mr. Carlisle concludes from both these acts that whenever "the silver dollar cannot be kept equal in purchasing power with the gold dollar, except by receiving it in exchange for the gold dollar, when such exchange is demanded, it will be his [the Secretary's] duty to adopt that course." The Secretary is, however, entirely right in adding that such a demand is quite improbable.

Mr. G. Bernard Shaw writes entertainingly and suggestively in the September *Cosmopolis* of the late International Socialist Congress. That it made itself a laughing-stock in so many ways is a manifest gain. "I, the Socialist, am no longer a Red Spectre; I am only a ridiculous fellow." The change is a welcome one for society in general, and it ought to be even for the Socialists, as it insures them much more indulgence and unconcerned hearing than they have enjoyed. As for the disorder and clashing and wild beating of the air which marked the London Congress, Mr. Shaw forcibly says that they were no more than what might have been expected from a body irresponsibly assembled and without any mandate or executive power. The Italian and French Chambers, the House of Representatives of the United States, and latterly even the House of Commons are not in a position to throw stones at the Socialists for disorder. But it is in the analysis of the mental attitude of Socialists that Mr. Shaw is most happy. Most of their working ideas are delusions. "They still see the social problem not sanely and objectively, but imaginatively, as the plot of a melodrama, with its villain and its heroine, its innocent beginning, troubled middle, and happy ending. They are still the children and the romancers of politics."

The Italian statistician Luigi Bodio, in a letter to the Cobden Club, makes a striking exposition of the folly of the protectionist and paternalistic policy of Continental Europe during the past twenty years. Great sums have been spent by the state on railroads and other means of international commerce, and yet tariff laws have been framed ingeniously to make international commerce impossible or unprofitable. The real advantage of the European manufacturer and agriculturist over his competitors in America and in the Orient is in the abundance of capital at a low rate of interest. But this advantage the Governments of Italy and France have deliberately thrown away. By their system of vast and increasing state expenditures, they have so increased taxation as to more than make up for the lower rates of interest they have to pay. What does it profit the French farmer to be able to borrow money at 3 per cent. as compared with the 6 or 7 which his American competitor has to pay, if his taxes are made three or four times what they used to be, and what they should be, by lavish public outlay? This, as Signor Bodio affirms, is one of the worst forms of socialism, and prevents industry and agriculture from profiting as they might by abundant capital and reduced taxes.

When defining, or deftly refusing to define, in the Commons the objective of the Anglo-Egyptian expedition up the Nile, Secretary Chamberlain said that the aim was to go towards Dongola, but whether they went as far as that point or beyond it would depend upon the amount of "resistance" encountered. As Dongola was taken on Saturday practically without any resistance whatever, there is no reason on that score why the advance should pause there. Nor is there any likelihood that it will. The reconquest and holding of the Sudan was doubtless the intention from the first, and though there was more or less shuffling about it in the beginning, it is now pretty well understood. And there seems no probability of any effective protest against the movement as long as all goes prosperously. The country made little response at the time to Mr. Morley's attack on Salisbury's disingenuous and somewhat sinuous Egyptian policy, and is secretly, no doubt, rather glad to have the African success to set over against the Turkish humiliations. Certainly the original excuse given for the expedition has now been entirely abandoned. Who talks any more of a demonstration in aid of the Italians, or cares whether Kassala is evacuated or not?

Cholera has been a far deadlier foe than the Dervishes to the Anglo-Egyptian expedition up the Nile, and the account of the way in which the disease was faced and vanquished makes interesting reading for the laity as well as for the profession. In brief, the method followed was that of isolation, disinfection, sanitation. There was no pretence of establishing a quarantine. There could not be, as troops and transports had constantly to pass through infected districts in order that the preparations for advance might go on. Surgeon Gallwey, an experienced cholera-fighter, was put in charge, and at every camp where cholera broke out he would say, "We ought to be ashamed of ourselves if we cannot stamp it out in ten days." He was able to do so in nearly every case, though the men had often to be flogged or threatened with shooting to keep them from poisoning themselves with the germ-laden water of the Nile. Even at Wady Halfa, where a large civilian population of filthy habits, ignorant and superstitious, added to the difficulties of the situation, the epidemic, though more severe than elsewhere, was held in check and finally extinguished. Everywhere Gallwey Bey and his staff of English and Egyptian medical assistants went on the supposition that the cholera germ was a definite thing, taken into the system in definite ways, and with a definite period of incubation. This made the treatment definite and precise and successful. But there are doubtless thousands of people in New York who would be as ready now as they were in 1892 to regard a case or two of cholera on an incoming steamer as a thing to be shrieked over and fled before, instead of being calmly treated by the methods of rational medicine.

The Pope has at last decided, or his theologians have decided for him, that Anglican orders are absolutely invalid, and that there is nothing for it but a return to the Catholic fold. This is a somewhat amusing anti-climax to the huge row kicked up by the Nonconformists last June over Gladstone's letter on this subject to Cardinal Rampolla. They called it "a miserable trifling with Rome," but the result shows that Rome, for her part, is not at all to be trifled with. The Nonconformists, in fact, could have asked for nothing better than thus to have High Church pretensions stamped upon by the Higher Church. Many Anglican bosoms will doubtless be wrung at this dashing of their hopes; but the great mass of the English clergy will very likely say that, if the Pope does not approve of them, neither do they approve of *him*, and so that score is even.

A new Carlist agitation in Spain appears imminent. The Carlist Deputies walked out of the Cortes a few days ago, in indignation, real or pretended, at the vote extending railway charters and privileges, and on Monday their party published a manifesto. What these divine-right monarchists want, or say they want, is "administrative and economical decentralization," and they also propose that no official in Spain shall draw his salary until the soldiers in Cuba and the Philippines are paid. All this is certainly ominous. The Carlists have been very patient and loyal, ostentatiously saying that all home differences must be sunk in the face of the Cuban peril. Like the Spanish Republicans, they have professed to be willing to join forces with any Government in order to put down the Cuban rebellion. But they now seem to be losing both patience and hope. The chance to improve their political fortunes in this time of the country's troubles is too good to be forborne much longer. In Spain's multiplying embarrassments, a Carlist uprising might well prove to be the final push into chaos.

THE SECRET OF MONEY.

THERE is probably nothing stranger in the bimetallic and the silver movement than the fact that money has been from the beginning a human invention for human convenience, and never has been regulated, shaped, or directed by any government successfully. Since the use of cowries and wampum, money has been the creature of human desires and tastes, and all attempts to do anything with it but follow human inclinations about it have surely failed miserably. No attempts to make people use currency in some way they did not like, have succeeded, and no attempt to affix to gold and silver a value, positive or relative, that was not the market value, has succeeded either. All we know about currency we know from history. We can tell nothing about gold and silver except by seeing what men have done about it in times past. The way the human mind acts on media of exchange contains the whole science of money. "Gresham's law," so called, for instance, is no more "Gresham's law" than the law of gravitation is "Newton's law." What Gresham did was to observe the way in which the mind regarded two kinds of currency of unequal value and report it. He did not say whether it was good or bad, wise or foolish. He simply said it existed. When the Bullion Committee in England was set to discover why inconvertible paper and gold differed in value in 1810, what it found out was not anything in the nature of gold or the nature of paper, but the manner in which the minds of dealers regarded gold and paper; and it reported accordingly.

All treatises on currency or money, from the earliest days to our time, are of no value except to explain to us how the human mind acted on certain phenomena. All that economists and financiers have ever said about currency, which is of any value, is simply the record of what people have done about the standard of value. If a college professor is examining students about money, he asks: What happens if certain things occur in the money market or any other market, and how do you know? The only answer is: We know simply that such things have occurred already, under similar circumstances. All finance is, in short, history, and so is nearly all political economy. If any political economy is more than history, it is simply prophecy. Every government which has ever sought to impose a currency of some kind for its own purposes, has found that the people would have their own way by putting a discount on the Government money and having their own medium of exchange on which they made their calculations.

It is the same with the price of all commodities as with gold and silver. Things are cheap simply because people do not want them much; dear because they want them a good deal. They are not dear or cheap because some politician or dictator says they ought to be cheap or dear. In fact, cheapness and dearness, both of gold and silver and of everything else, are states of mind. They are not qualities or things. There was an attempt made in 1890 to persuade the people that things ought to be dear because dearness was "American," but it only produced ridicule. Dearness and cheapness remained dependent on human desires, not on national polity. No matter how holy a cause may be, it cannot raise prices one iota.

We are now witnessing, both here and in Europe, the first attempt ever made in the history of currency to provide people with money against their will, in virtue of superior wisdom. All other attempts made by governments to provide currency for the people against their will as manifested in prices, have resulted either from a desire to cheat or to provide revenue or to show their power. We have to-day in America, England, and Germany a large body of persons rarely engaged in business, or familiar with exchange, who have undertaken to get mankind to take a new departure and fix prices, not by human inclination, but by international agreement. This makes the silver and bimetallic movement something new in finance. They have determined that money should not any longer be the product of human tastes and desires, but the product of a treaty made by philosophers and statesmen. They are to furnish the nation, not with natural money, but with artificial money—that is, an entirely new kind of money, which will not depend on the cost of production and will have nothing to do with people's likes and dislikes. It will be thought out, so to speak, rather than issued or coined. Silver will be cheap, and gold will be dear, not because silver is plenty and gold is scarce, but because professors and economists can settle what gold and silver ought to cost. The quantity produced of either by labor will have nothing to do with the price at all. The price of either in relation to each other will be settled between a few dozen men, who will decide what price will be best for human happiness. They will meet in a room, and say one ounce of gold ought to cost sixteen ounces of silver, or it ought to cost forty, as may seem to be best. Human desires will have nothing to do with the matter.

This change in the mode of making money and settling prices will be something completely new in the history of the human race. It will be a complete revolution in human affairs. The standard of value will either be settled by a majority vote or by an agreement between plenipotentiaries. The members of Congress, or the diplomatists, will let the merchants and bankers and dealers who have things to sell, know how much they ought to get for their wares; and their minds will be kept in a state of equilibrium by statute. If they find themselves valuing gold too high, they will check their desires and moderate them to a wise proportion with silver, while if they find themselves placing too little value on silver, they will piously raise their estimate for it to the recognized and happy ratio of the philosophers. We do not believe any such revolution has been attempted in human affairs before. If successful, and the influence of human tastes and desires on prices can be destroyed, and conventional prices substituted therefor, four dimensions of space will at last have a chance.

LEGISLATION DE MINIMIS.

THE attention of Americans has frequently been called in recent years to the increasing floods of local legislation. They are whelming State legislatures and Congress alike, and are multiplying statute-books at a rate which will soon make a new Omar necessary to deliver us. From the successive "State Library Bulletins" published at Albany, with their comparative summaries of legislation in the several States, we have had an impressive annual hint as to the way the time and strength of our legislatures are wasted on minor local affairs. The present Governor of New Jersey was the first public officer in high authority to come out against the growing evil. By his open threat to use the veto on the petty back-yard bills, and by an actual use of it on many such measures, he succeeded in keeping down the mustard-seed laws in New Jersey to unwontedly small, if still too swollen, proportions.

But the plague is not one from which we alone suffer. All English-speaking nations and legislatures seem to be succumbing to it. The extent of its ravages across the seas may be seen from a glance at the "Review of the Legislation of the British Empire in 1895," published in the first number of the new *Journal of Comparative Legislation*. Here in summary form we have a classification of the acts not alone of the English Parliament, but of all the colonies from the least to the greatest. It is a comprehensive survey, from which perhaps the strongest impression one derives is that of the extraordinary demands made upon parliaments, both imperial and colonial, upon cabinets and councils, prime ministers and high commissioners and governors, by minor affairs that could be much better disposed of by a local administrator.

The very ratio between public and local bills is suggestive. The first session of the English Parliament in 1895 passed 44 acts which could be called general, but its local acts numbered 158. In the short second session the figures were 6 and 15, respectively. Specimens of the bills classified as "general" show over what miserable details the wits and time of the Commons are wasted. Thus there had to be much debate over the nice question whether laundries should be regarded as

factories. After long wrestling with the Market Gardeners' Compensation Act, it was triumphantly voted that the landlord's consent was not necessary in order to allow a tenant to set out a currant-bush. With such bills as these set down as measures of general public interest, it may be imagined what back-country and cross-roads affairs the laws conceded to be local really were.

The exact figures for the several colonies are not given; but the showing would doubtless be worse rather than better, as the Prime Minister in England has a more rigid control over legislation, and exercises it more relentlessly, than is the custom in colonial parliaments. At any rate, one look at the kind of thing which engaged the attention of the latter in 1895 is enough to make the proverb *De minimis non curat lex* appear ridiculous. Many necessary and useful bills were doubtless passed, but the swarm of acts straining at gnats and aiming at the impossible is simply prodigious. Take the mere matter of animal pests. Vermin seem fairly to crawl over this index of colonial legislation. South Australia amended its Vermin Act so as to impose penalties on corporations and districts "which are negligent in suppressing rabbits." Beetles had the floor in the Straits Settlements, and locusts buzzed about the ears of legislators in Natal. The registration of dogs took up the time of the New Zealand Solons, while rabbits and marsupials fairly revelled in the legislative halls of Tasmania, South Australia, and Queensland. Sierra Leone made a unique record in its ordinance against the Human Leopard Society.

A good example of the way in which laws expect executive officers to make omniscience their foible is furnished in the West Australian statute entitled the Engine Sparks Fire-Prevention Act. Among many other provisions it is ordered that every engine shall be equipped with a "spark-arrester," and that the pattern of it is to be determined "by the Governor in Council." Imagine the Governor in Council gravely passing on spark-arresters! What is really needed is an arrester of absurd and petty laws. Of like genus is the law making it the duty of magistrates in Fiji to determine whether a given man is "of confirmed intemperate habit," so as to be a "prohibited person" to whom it is a crime to sell liquor. But New Zealand has outstripped all other lands in audacity in its Institute of Journalists Act, whereby, under the authority of the Governor in Council, such monstrous undertakings as the following are to be lawful:

"Devising measures for testing the qualifications of candidates for admission to professional membership of the Institute [of Journalists] by examination on theory and in practice or by any other actual and practical tests."

"The ascertainment of the law and practice relating to all things connected with the journalistic profession, and the exercise of supervision over its members when engaged in journalistic duties."

We need not point out that where such things begin, liberty ends.

It is, of course, a powerful stream of political and legislative tendency in the Anglo-Saxon race which, in these latter days, thus spreads itself into so many ineffective tricklings in the sand. We want to leave nothing to the discretion of an executive officer. Everything must be down in black and white. We prefer to have the most complex and conflicting maze of laws, to be fought over in the courts, instead of a short and simple order to a local administrator to do the work required. In that way, we think, we guard ourselves against abuses of power and against that tyranny which is our inherited but unreasonable dread. What we most need to guard against now is the abuse of law, and the tyranny of a mass of statutes which no one can understand, which dissipates official responsibility and breaks down legislatures. What we need is, for example, to lay a mandate on a competent man, "Clean the streets of this city," without doing our best to tie his hands and spoil the work by making laws to fix the wages he must pay, to compel him to choose his assistants in certain ways, and by all the other statutory contrivances which leave us a fine degree of Anglo-Saxon liberty, but with it a lot of Turkish streets. There is clearly a call for reposing greater trust as well as exacting sharper responsibility in local administration of all sorts; and the work bids fair to be helped on by the growing absurdity of the other method which is strangling itself and us all in the endless meshes of red-tape legislation.

THE DYNAMITERS.

THE steady persistence of the new ministry in England in not doing the things which they said they would do if they got into power, and in doing the things which people thought they were sure not to do, is among the remarkable phenomena of recent English politics. One of the things of all things which they were considered sure not to do, was to let the Irish dynamiters out of jail. During the last year or two of Mr. Gladstone's administration, in fact, hostility to everybody and everything Irish was "the thing" in English circles of the Tory class. The principal reason for not conceding home rule was the badness of the Irish. They were all dynamiters or sympathizers with dynamite, and one of the horrors and disgraces of the Gladstonian régime was that Gladstonian ministers deigned to consult with and be on friendly terms with the Irish members. Indeed, the reason given by Mr. Macdonald of the *Times* for believing that Pigott's Parnell letters were genuine, that "they were just the kind of letters Parnell would write," was a fair expression of the mental condition of the whole Tory party about the whole Irish party. Mr. Balfour rose into fame by treating its members of Parliament as common criminals and puting them into prison dress, and dogging their footsteps with spies, and getting a priest indicted for murder because a policeman was killed by a mob who were resisting the priest's arrest; and by making himself the foremost apostle of the doctrine that nothing but coercion would maintain order in Ireland.

No sooner had the Tories got into office, however, than their tune was changed. The new Irish Secretary, Mr. Balfour's brother, was as sweet and conciliatory towards the Irish as Mr. John Morley. Light railways and an amended land act were substituted for jails, and the Irish began to be consulted and complimented, and their amendments accepted. The climax was reached when Mr. Chamberlain, on getting over here, loudly advertised the ability of the much-abused "Tim" Healy. But there was one thing which it was thought they could not possibly do, and that was release the Irish dynamiters. They might pass acts which they had denounced as "immoral" and robbery when they were framed by the Gladstonians, but for the dynamiters there was no hope. When an application for their release was made to Mr. Asquith, and he firmly refused it, the applause was louder on the Tory benches than on the Liberal. It showed that there was still some decency left, it was said, among the Liberals—that Mr. Asquith was not as bad as the rest of them.

Well, having got into power, they have done this accursed thing themselves. The Irish dynamiters have been set free by the Tory Home Secretary. They were not set free, however, until Parliament was on the point of adjourning, when inquiry and explanation were impossible. When Sir Mathew White Ridley is privately asked the cause of this step, he says it is the result of a medical report on the health of the prisoners, but he does not publish the report. The newspapers of all parties have wondered and surmised over the matter for a fortnight, but no light has appeared for some time. It is extraordinary, unaccountable, says the Marquis of Londonderry, a firm supporter and admirer of the Government. He cannot understand it. The time at which it occurred was most mysterious. He delights in the Conservative Government, and did his best to bring it into power, but this is really too much, he says. Other influential members of the Tory party flout equally at Sir Mathew White Ridley's explanation. It is absurd.

According to the latest accounts, the murder is now out. Four notorious but very drunken Irish dynamiters, including Tynan, or "No. 1," have been arrested with a full line of bombs, explosives, infernal machines, and incriminating documents. They explained their plans openly in the various hotels where they stopped, when they were "full"—and they were generally "full," their expenditure on alcoholic drinks in one place being not

less than $10 per day. Their plan was to hire a house opposite St. James's and Buckingham Palaces and dig a tunnel under the street; then, when the Czar and Czarina of Russia were there on a visit, to blow up these two sovereigns, together with the Queen and all the royal family. They were just about to begin their hellish labors when they were arrested. Their plan was either "a gigantic plot" or "a foul mission." It was instigated partly by the Clan-na-Gael, partly by the Anarchists, and partly by the Nihilists.

We now see why the Irish dynamiters were released. It has been alleged, for want of any better reason, that they have been liberated because one of them had given information which led to the arrest of Tynan and the others; and in order not to "give him away," by releasing him alone, the other three were allowed to go out with him. This unfortunately leaves us in some bewilderment as to the management of the prison in which the dynamiters were confined. These worthies were convicted in 1883, and under published rules are kept in close confinement, and can receive and write only letters which are read by the wardens. They might tell the jail authorities what kind of man Tynan and his associates are, but they could have known that he was going to blow up the royal family and the Czar and Czarina of Russia, about this time, only by means of frequent communication with him. So that if they have been able to give the information that led to his arrest, they must have heard from him recently. If all this be correct, it is a curious revelation about the state of prison discipline. Who knows but Mr. Asquith was keeping hold of the dynamiters to supply him with news about Tynan, and that Tynan was warned not to blow up any palace till the Tories got into power?

ENGLAND AND RUSSIA.

THERE seems to be a general agreement in England that the chief reason why the Powers refuse to join in action against the Porte, is jealousy of Great Britain, probably stimulated by her occupation of Egypt. Russia appears more than any other Power to be an obstacle to any sort of union, but Germany is not far behind. Her reluctance to move is probably a tradition of Bismarck's policy in 1877, when he said he was not willing to risk a single Pomeranian grenadier on behalf of the Bulgarians. The whole situation is so clearly a consequence of past British policy that it might almost form the subject of a course of college lectures. For sixty years—in fact, one might almost say, ever since the battle of Waterloo—Russia has been treated as the one historic enemy of Great Britain. She took the place of France, almost immediately after the peace of 1815, as the Power whom true-born Britons were bound to hate and suspect, and down to the Crimean war and the Indian mutiny the British press teemed with exposures of her designs on British India.

Men like Sir Henry Rawlinson made a specialty of this subject, and hundreds of maps showed the way in which she was to pass the mountains and rouse the Hindus. As she advanced in the East, the alarm gradually grew greater, and reached its maximum after her subjugation of the Central Asian principalities. This subjugation was really a very marked gain for British India, for it is always a gain for any community to have civilized instead of barbarous neighbors. But, strange to say, so far was the British public from taking this view that, almost ever since 1820, the time and money which should, one would think, have been spent in making friends with Russia, and seeing that, if she ever did become a neighbor, she should be a good one, have been spent in bullying or cajoling Afghanistan so as to make her hostile to Russia, and thus interpose what is called a "buffer" between the two great Powers. The Afghan war of 1839-42 was undoubtedly undertaken for this purpose, and so was the still more discreditable one set on foot by Beaconsfield and Salisbury in 1878. The Crimean war was, in like manner, fought to make Turkey a "buffer." In fact, during the greater part of this century, nearly all the arts of war and peace have been employed to make and keep Russia an enemy of England, and her immense services to civilization in extending her frontier to the east have been constantly held up to odium, as advances towards India for the purpose of invasion and conquest—an idea the preposterousness of which is only now beginning to be faintly recognized.

At the present moment we are witnessing one of the results of half a century of carefully cultivated hatred and distrust. The proposal of the late Emperor Nicholas, in 1852, to treat Turkey as "a sick man," and take charge of his effects by agreement with England—one of the sanest state papers of this century—would, as we now see, have been an incalculable benefit to mankind. It was peremptorily rejected, and treated as a proof of Nicholas's depravity, and an alliance against him was promptly entered into with one of the paltriest of adventurers. A hundred thousand lives were sacrificed in the Crimean war, a thousand million dollars spent in behalf of the monstrous and inhuman despotism called the Porte. In twenty years not a vestige of its results remained, and the Porte had gone steadily down hill in the interval. Once more, in 1878, England armed to save Turkey, and Lord Salisbury brought back from Berlin a bundle of lies and deceptions as to what he and Disraeli had done to secure reform in Turkey. He has confessed within a year that the whole thing was an elaborate delusion; that not only have no reforms been made in Turkey, but that the Sultan may massacre all Christian subjects for anything Great Britain can do to prevent him.

Is it wonderful that, after this, Russia refuses to join England in disciplining her former protégé? She can well say: "Forty years ago I saw what Turkey was, as well as you now see it. I asked you in a friendly spirit to join me peaceably in removing this terrible stain on our civilization against which Europe had vainly fought for four centuries. You refused me with vituperation, made war on me, destroyed my fleet and arsenals, and removed me from one of my own seas. Twenty years ago the Sultan began massacring again. You discovered the horrors in Bulgaria, but you did nothing to stop them but write newspaper articles. I interfered. I fought the Turk and brought him to his knees, and my bugles were heard in his palace. You again interfered, not to fight him, but to fight me. You brought troops from India, and allowed your Jewish adventurer to fill the air with blatherskite about both me and Turkey. You are now roused by the Sultan's massacres again, and want me to help you to stop them. I shall not do so. I have had enough of your coöperation. You have posed for half a century as the great friend of the Turkish Christians. Now work out the problem yourselves."

If the Czar uses this language when he is in England, no one will venture to say that facts do not justify him. To ask him to help now to make Turkey humane and establish peace within its borders, requires more assurance than any British diplomatist has shown within the present century. We must only hope that personal intercourse with the Queen and with British statesmen and Christians may help to soften his heart and make him forgive the past. If any professor or lecturer wishes to point the moral of Washington's solemn warning against cultivating any international hates, and against allowing our own selfish interests to dominate our foreign policy, he will find nothing better than the history of the relations of England and Russia during the past seventy years.

THE AMHERST ECLIPSE EXPEDITION IN JAPAN.—III.

ESASHI, KITAMI, HOKKAIDO,
August 10, 1896.

THE quiet sound of rhythmic surf from the Sea of Okhotsk, beating upon the sand and rocks of Kitami coast, comes this evening through the little sliding window beside me, where a semicircle of faces is gathered against the dark background of the street. The faces, always indicative of interest and curiosity, but unfailingly amiable and friendly, are quite as much a part of this remote region as the surf itself, and no more intrusive. Ever since the arrival of the expedition, the kindly inhabitants of the town have done everything in their power to facilitate the work of setting up instruments and establishing the station as conveniently as possible,

The "chief officer" immediately placed the school-house—just vacated for a new one—at the disposal of Prof. Todd and his assistants; and one of the leading citizens, who spends half the year here as his summer resort from Hakodate, lent a large piece of land adjoining for the tents and portable house covering the apparatus. Other favors from officials of the region followed rapidly, and when the less scientific members of the *Coronet* party caught the expedition, after a curious and interesting journey along the Yezo coast, it was found to be in fine condition for the eclipse, and with a fair prospect for clear skies on the eventful 9th of August.

From July 10 until August 5 there had been ten perfectly clear afternoons and four only partially shaded. The Hokkaido, in its northern portions, offers a better chance for cloudless skies than the main island, but along its southern coast fogs prevail almost constantly. Reference has been made before to the excellent pamphlet issued by the Central Meteorological Observatory, giving the observations at this season for three years past at all available eclipse locations. From a careful summing up of all results, Esashi, on the northern coast, showed a larger proportion of clear skies than any other, and accordingly Prof. Todd selected it, as did also the French expedition and that sent by the Imperial University at Tokyo; while the Lick Observatory party, under Prof. Schaeberle, and the English expedition, in charge of the Astronomer Royal, Mr. W. H. M. Christie, with his assistants, Prof. Turner and Capt. Hills, R. E., chose Akkeshi, on the southeastern coast, as their location. There were thus five fully equipped expeditions in the Hokkaido, awaiting the moon's shadow to reveal glories and scientific truths perhaps hitherto unknown.

Prof. Terao, in charge of the Tokyo mission, the official party of the Japanese Government, established his camp about half a mile south of the little town and back a short distance from the beach, where the wreck of a small steamer lying in the sand gives a picturesque accent to the scenery. He was well prepared to accomplish excellent photographic work, among his instruments being an especially fine photographic doublet of eight inches aperture, by the well known optician Brashear of Allegheny. It was constructed for this eclipse, and arrived only a few days before, having been delayed by the difficulty in obtaining the finest quality of glass from Germany needed for the lenses.

The French party, under Prof. Deslandres of the Paris Observatory, was established near the western end of the town, in a large open square of land, where the various tents and houses, the brick piers and large instruments, made almost a little village in themselves. The outfit was very elaborate, and was intended quite exclusively for work in spectroscopy, the specialty of this celebrated astronomical physicist, who has added to the fame of the already famous Paris Observatory by his successful and brilliant work in physical research, in photographing the solar prominences without an eclipse (the same line of work as that pursued by Prof. Hale of Chicago), and by his discovery of the rotation of the corona with the sun at the Senegal eclipse of April 16, 1893. Assisting Prof. Deslandres are the brothers F. and J. Mittau and M. Millochau. The French man-of-war *Alger* brought these gentlemen to Esashi from Yokohama, and very valuable coöperation was given by its officers, Capt. Boutet, commanding, Capt. Le Bouleur de Courlou (who had charge of the six-inch telescope, and also of observing the four contacts), Capt. Hurbin and Midshipman Dumas in charge of the photometers and thermo-electric instruments. These gentlemen were assisted by a detachment of sailors from the *Alger*, and their presence quite revolutionized life in the quiet little town. Prof. Deslandres's outfit is probably the most elaborate and complete battery of spectroscopic instruments ever brought to bear on an eclipse by any single expedition Also, appliances were not omitted for pictorial photography of the corona.

The preparation of the Amherst expedition has been already alluded to, with its automatic arrangements whereby electricity is made to do the work of many observers, in exposing and covering plates, removing them fro n the photographic field, and inserting fresh ones, thus extending almost indefinitely the precious two or three minutes of totality, rich with its tantalizing stores of coronal wealth. Fastened upon one great central axis, made to follow the sun by an ingenious glycerine clock, were the Lyman twelve-inch reflector from the Amherst observatory, the Draper fifteen-inch reflector from Harvard, an Edgecomb eight-and-one-half-inch reflector, numerous object glasses by Alvan Clark & Sons, the largest of which are a ten-inch lens lent by Harvard and one of seven and a quarter by Amherst, a six-inch objective made by Schroeder of Hamburg, and a great variety of photographic doublets. In addition were polariscopes arranged and lent by Dr. Wright of the Sloane Laboratory of Yale University, two spectroscopes from Harvard Observatory and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and a wheel photometer for measuring the variation of the intensity in the total light of the corona.

All this apparatus was individually connected with the electric commutator (invented by Prof. Todd and made for this eclipse), a slowly revolving copper cylinder full of pins, each of which represented a certain movement of one particular instrument at a given fraction of a second. The whole thing, most complicated to have invented and thought out in all its practical working, but absolutely simple in manipulation, was set up and adjusted in time, and its working was perfect: at a touch of the electric key, plates came into place, were exposed, covered, and passed out, and new ones brought up for exposure, all with the precision of a machine. Thus was demonstrated the practicability of applying an unlimited amount of apparatus, automatically, to the various and fertile problems of eclipse research. It is possible, with the arrangement now perfected, to take between four and five hundred pictures of the corona in two minutes and a half; and that without having to depend upon the fluctuations in the nervous systems of a crowd of observers, many of whom (it is to be hoped in justice to their sense of the sublime in nature) might frequently be so affected by the spectacular part of an eclipse that their routine work would be injured.

The chances for a clear sky in Esashi at this season were a little more than half, at Akkeshi slightly less, and the heavens were closely interrogated during all the weeks while the expedition prepared for the eclipse. As the day drew near, sunshine and rain alternated in ways to try the soul of any but the most calmly scientific human being. If one retired to rest remembering a just past gorgeous sunset, he would probably be awakened in the morning by a heavy shower on the shingled roof of the old school-house. That roof, however, is the usual promenade of the multitudinous crows of the region, who rise at unknown hours, and begin the day's exercise vigorously before dawn, so that always showers or crows were at hand to rouse the unwary. If the forenoon was thickly clouded, a radiant afternoon often followed; and sparkling early mornings often merged themselves into a thickening sky by the eclipse-hour, about two o'clock. Thus hope and despair alternately possessed the present onlooker, although the chief astronomer kept calmly at work, showing no sign that nature's moods were undermining his nerves. He had no time to study the state of the western horizon, and the vagaries of the wind, and the prevailing drift of cirrus or cumulus. And so the hours grew fewer before the 9th, and Friday and Saturday, the 7th and 8th, brought heavy rains; but the sunset of Saturday night was a superb rose and gold and salmon glory, and a group of the leading officers and citizens came in to congratulate us upon the fine prospect for the morrow. The fishermen of the town sent their compliments by these gentlemen, and their opinion that the eclipse would show in a clear sky. These interested and simple-hearted friends said they had refrained from calling during the two days' rain, as they so feared it might continue that they could not bear to see us and all the fine instruments, but now they gladly came under the present happy circumstances. One of them reported his visit to a shrine that day, to learn from the oracle the probable state of the coming day, and the reply was, "Be careful." This he interpreted to mean that the morning might be cloudy, and we, thinking observation hopeless, would not get all things ready. Then at the critical moment clear sky would appear, and we should be unprepared. Hence the warning to be on our guard.

Sunday morning saw an early shower, and a later clearing; another shower, and a clear blue western sky; a drifting gray scud from the south, and brief sunshine—altogether an unpromising sort of day, with possibilities of breaks through cloud all the time. The first contact could not be accurately observed, but, shortly after, the clouds became very thin, and with smoked glass the sun showed its bitten side distinctly, but ill defined through cloud. Most of the population of the town seemed to be congregated along the fence around our enclosure, looking with far more interest at us and the instruments than at the sun and the darkening landscape. Just before totality, which occurred about two minutes after three, local time, I went to my appointed station for drawing the corona, at the top of a small lighthouse standing in the grounds of a little temple just above the rocks of the shore—a most picturesque vantage-ground for a spectacle beyond anything that it has ever been my fortune to witness. The sea grew leaden in color, the sky desolately sombre. The crows pretended indifference, but soon succumbed and flew off to the thick pine forests on the mountain sides with heavy haste. The *Alger* grew dimmer and grayer, the sampans and junks became almost one mass of equal colorlessness, and the grass and verdure suddenly grew strangely, vividly yellow-green. It was a moment of appaling suspense: something was being waited for—the air was portentous. Then, with a leap, as it seemed, deep darkness came over the world, and with an indescribable outflashing at the same second the corona burst forth in a heavenly radiance. But dimly seen through thin

cloud, it was nevertheless beautiful beyond description, a celestial flame from an unimaginable heaven. Simultaneously the whole northwestern sky far up toward the zenith was instantly flooded with a lurid and startlingly brilliant orange, the clouds drifting across it slightly darker in shade, while the west and southwest gleamed in shining lemon yellow. It was not like a sunset; it was too sombre, too terrible. The sea was dark, the horizon indistinguishable.

One human being seemed so small, so helpless, so slight a part of all the mystery and weirdness! It was as if the hand of Deity were visibly laid upon space and worlds, and had allowed a momentary glimpse into the awfulness of creation. It might have been hours—time seemed annihilated—and yet when the tiniest possible globule of sunlight, like a drop or a pinhole, appeared, that fair corona and all the color in sky and cloud withdrew, the stormy twilight aspect of entire naturalness returned, and then the two minutes and a half in memory seemed but a few seconds.

All fine detail of the corona was necessarily lost in the thick sky. A few photographs were taken of a corona which must have been unusually brilliant to show so distinctly even through cloud, and it was noticeably flattened at the poles of the sun and extended at its equator, thus indicating to the scientific observer new and extended lines of research for the eclipse of the future. Just after totality a message came from Akkeshi: "Heavy fog. Nothing done." Nature knows how to be cruel—or is it simply indifference? But until man learns to circumvent clouds in his search after the unknown, I shall still feel that she keeps the advantage.

The sound of the surf has grown louder, the street noises less; the circle of faces has disappeared, and the man going about the town beating two sticks to announce his faithfulness on watch has just passed by. The eclipse is over; but the Ainu we still have with us—that mysterious nation retreating more and more into the remote interior, and constantly decreasing in numbers. The world is very interesting; and the heavens remain.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

THE ROMANS IN AFRICA.

PARIS, September 9, 1896.

M. GASTON BOISSIER, who has for a twelvemonth past held the important office of Perpetual Secretary of the French Academy, is considered our best Latinist. He has for many years devoted himself to the study of the Latin literature, and among his most important writings I will cite a volume on 'Cicero and his Friends,' two volumes on 'The Roman Religion from Augustus to the Antonines,' two volumes on 'The End of Paganism,' and a volume on 'The Opposition under the Cæsars.' M. Gaston Boissier never forgets his familiar subject, even when travelling; and he is to me particularly interesting when he travels and takes such notes as are found in his 'Archæological Rambles.' Rome and Pompeii have furnished him a most interesting field; he has followed the footsteps of Horace and Virgil in his 'New Archæological Rambles,' and recently he has gone as far afield as Algeria and Tunis, publishing on his return a volume, full of interest, on 'Roman Africa.' It is, I repeat, refreshing for me to travel with M. Gaston Boissier; I learn something from his works, while the sensational volumes of travel which are written now in such abundance are merely descriptions, in which the author generally contents himself with inundating his substantives with adjectives, as a landscape painter might dash color upon color. It is impossible for the writer to compete with the painter, or even with the photographer; this seems, however, the sole object of most of our modern writers.

M. Boissier's method is quite different. He does not pretend to give us sensations, he gives us ideas; he improves our knowledge while improving his own, and adds to the treasures of his memory what can be gained by direct contact with facts, even with ruins. It has seemed to him that, in order to judge aright of the possibilities of the future of our French Africa, it would not be unimportant to know accurately what the past of Roman Africa has to teach us.

"We are not," says he, "the first who came from the realms of the north to establish themselves; we have had, in this land, illustrious predecessors who conquered it, as we have done, and who governed it with glory for several centuries. They met nearly the same difficulties which we have met; they overcame the same resistance of nature, the same opposition of warlike races which occupied the ground and did not wish to share it with anybody."

When the Romans established themselves in Africa, they had chiefly to deal with their old enemies, the Carthaginians, just as the French, in the first period of their conquest, saw only Arabs everywhere. But in reality the Carthaginians were but a small part of the population of Africa; they lived in the great cities, in the seaports. Sallust is the first writer who mentions other peoples who had nothing in common with the Punic race. Cæsar had given to him the province of Numidia; his ethnography of Africa is probably derived from some Greek fables—it has no scientific value. We will note only how much he was struck with the diversity of races in his province. Nothing so much impressed M. Gaston Boissier as this same diversity, particularly one day in the great market of Souk-Ahras.

"In the great square of this little town, the natives were coming from all sides, some on foot, others on horseback, on donkeys, or on camels. It was a pleasure to see them looking for each other in this crowd, recognizing each other, shaking hands with each other, embracing each other with shrieks of joy. There were people of all sizes, all forms, all colors. From the jet black of the negroes of the Sudan to the dull white of the Arabs living in the great tents, you could see every shade which the human skin can show. What astonished me more than anything while I was looking at this crowd was to find under the *chechia* so many faces which I thought I recognized. I noticed at every step short men, with blue eyes, with fair or red hair, a broad face, a smiling mouth, which recalled to me the peasants of our villages. 'Take a djemâa of Kabyles,' says M. de la Blanchère in his 'Student's Journey in a Part of the Cæsarian Mauritania,' 'take off the burnous, put on all these men our blouses or coats, and you will have a municipal council composed of French peasants.'"

We thought for a long time after the conquest that the inhabitants all spoke the Arabic language, and it is the only language which our officers or functionaries still use in their dealings with them; but we found out that there is another, which the inhabitants use in their familiar dealings. It is not, as was at first supposed, a mixture of the local idioms of various provinces or races; it is a true language, with its proper rules. This language is used in Kabylia, and also in the villages of the Aurès, among the wild Touaregs and the tribes of Marocco. It is the universal speech throughout the Sahara, on the banks of the Niger, and as far as the Senegal. This very ancient people, having its peculiar language, known to the Romans under the name of Numidians, to the Arabs under the name of Berbers, divided into an immense number of jealous and often inimical tribes, is now what it was in the time of Jugurtha. The form of government is of the simplest kind. The djemâa of the Kabyles is the most elementary organization; it needs no tribunals, no police, no magistrates. The villages have an independent existence; few chieftains have been able to form powerful aggregations, and these have never had a long existence.

Towards the end of the war with Hannibal there were, however, two Berber kingdoms—the kingdom of Syphax, who had for his capital Cirta (now Constantine), and the kingdom of Gala. These two kings were rivals. Masinissa was the son of Gala, and Corneille's drama "Sophonisbe" has given a sort of immortality to the struggles of these two houses. Cirta changed its name under Constantine. Its situation is very striking: "There is the high, inaccessible mountain, which these little kings could choose in order to put their treasures and their lives in safety." The French troops, under the best of leaders, had to make great efforts in order to take Constantine; its assault was made the subject of one of those vivid pictures by Horace Vernet which are to be seen in the château of Versailles. The palace of Syphax was probably at the highest part of the city, called the Kasba; and there probably took place, when Masinissa gained possession of it, the scene which remained famous in antiquity (it is found on one of the few frescoes at Pompeii), and which has twice been put on the stage. At the gate of the palace of his enemy the Berber king found Sophonisba, daughter of Asdrubal, who had determined Syphax to side with Carthage against the Romans. She fell on her knees and begged Masinissa not to let her fall alive into the hands of the Romans. She was young and handsome, says Livy; at sight of her Masinissa felt something more than pity, and, in order to save her, he married her the same day, thinking that the Romans would not dare to lay their hands on his wife. He little knew them. Scipio ordered Masinissa to give up Sophonisba. Not daring to disobey, and unwilling to put her in the hands of the Romans, Masinissa sent her some poison, and the brave Numidian drank it. Masinissa was rewarded with the title of king; he was treated with the same honors as a consul; he was allowed to take all the territory he could seize from the Carthaginians. Boissier tells us that he freely used this permission, and for fifty years continued his incursions into the land of Carthage. "At the age of eighty-eight he still rode without a saddle, and made war, during the fine season, under the very walls of Carthage. The rest of the time he lived in his seraglio at Cirta, in the midst of a large family which trembled before him. He died at ninety, having never been ill."

The long reign of Masinissa was a period of great prosperity for Numidia; after him, the Romans were obliged to meddle more and more in the affairs of Africa. The history of their long war against Jugurtha has been told by Sallust. This great writer was more occupied with Rome than with Africa; he had his eyes fixed on the Forum and the Senate. He does not indulge in picturesque descriptions,

but his descriptions are absolutely exact. The army of Jugurtha reminds us of the army of Abd-el-Kader; he too had his regulars, and his contingents or *goums*, furnished by many tribes and vanishing after a defeat. The Roman army had to proceed very much as did the French army in our time.

Carthage was the work of the Phœnicians, who were foreigners of the Semitic race; like the Jews, addicted to commerce more than to agriculture. In what he says of the Phœnicians M. Boissier follows the writers who in our day have made us acquainted with the wonderful city, the Venice of the old world, which kept for some time the fortunes of Rome in the balance. He has traced in Tunis the remains of the city, which was twice completely destroyed. In the modern Tunis you find at every step fragments of marble which must have belonged to the ancient queen of the Mediterranean Sea. A map shows us what has been found of the ruins of old Carthage. King Louis Philippe had a little chapel built, by permission of the Bey of Tunis, in memory of St. Louis, on the rocky elevation called Byrsa, and it fortunately happens that the present almoner of the chapel, the Abbé Delattre, is an ardent archæologist, and is making new discoveries every day. M. Gaston Boissier goes somewhat out of his way to enter into a long analysis of the second book of the 'Æneid,' and in trying to discover Virgil's reasons for making his Dido and Æneas what they are in his immortal poem. I prefer what he has to say when he is on the solid ground of history, and tells us, for instance, how Carthage was taken by the younger Scipio.

M. Boissier touches almost on a modern subject in exhibiting the timid policy of Rome in Africa after the downfall of Carthage, the system of a restricted occupation and a mere protectorate giving way by degrees to the system of direct government and administration. The Romans at first thought it best to establish in their dependencies some king or chief belonging to an ancient race and to govern under his authority. They found out after a while that these dependent monarchies are useless when they are weak, and, if they become strong, they are tempted to make themselves independent. After a while they divided their African possessions into two parts, *Africa vetus*, which became an imperial province, and *Africa nova*, which received not legates, but mere intendants, who had only the command of auxiliary troops levied among the barbarous tribes.

The abundance of ruins in Africa proves what degree of prosperity the conquered provinces had attained. M. Boissier does not attempt to describe all the Roman cities which are known by their ruins. *Ab uno disce omnes;* he chooses Timgad, not on account of its importance, for it does not seem to have played any great part, but in order to show how the Romans took, so to speak, Rome everywhere, just as the English take all over the world their habits and their sports. Each town had its arch of triumph, its forum, its statues, its basilica, its altars, its curia, its tribune. M. Boissier carefully describes the architectural remains of Timgad, following a magnificent publication based upon the researches of a distinguished architect, M. Duthoit. Each Roman town had also its waterworks, its aqueducts, its theatre. M. Boissier describes further the great villas which were built in the country by the Romans; he has very interesting details on the villa of Pompeianus, its stables and baths. His volume will be found very instructive on the subject of the long occupation of Africa by Rome, as well as on the history of African Latin literature, which ends his excellent volume and deals chiefly with the works of Apuleius and Petronius.

Correspondence.

MR. BRYAN AT ASHEVILLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This charming little place is situated in the County of Buncombe and formerly used to be called Buncombe Town. The historical phrase of "talking for Buncombe" originated with a former member of Congress from this district, who, when advocating in a long, tedious speech for the benefit of his constituents some measure that had no chance of passing, and upon being urged by his colleagues to stop, answered: "Hush! I am not talking for this bill; I am talking for Buncombe."

However, whether this tradition be true or not, I found, upon my arrival here, a few days ago, posters all over town, and on roadways leading to it, that Mr. Bryan would address this constituency on the 16th, at 3 P. M.; and I found the excitement among the townspeople running pretty high in expectancy of this great event. The early morning hours yesterday already showed that the sturdy farmers and tar-gatherers of the surrounding country had caught the excitement. A forenoon walk showed all the shady places in the woods, in and surrounding the city, filled with farmers' teams, the mules and horses tethered to the wagons and given over to an unquestionably welcome lazy day of munching fodder and corn. Thus, both man and beast had, thanks to Mr. Bryan, a day of lark and festive enjoyment, not to forget the shopkeepers, who reaped a rich harvest. Yes, a lark it seemed to be. The Court House square and the few leading streets of the town were filled with a surging mass of country people of the plainest sort, well-behaved, good natured, good-spirited, kind, and sober. This is a silver town, though, as I understand, not a Tillman town, and Bryan buttons, Bryan flags, hacks and teams carrying the stars and stripes with Bryan devices, and bicyclers with their wheels encircled with the national colors, abounded.

Mr. Bryan arrived, according to programme, at two P. M., was escorted by the committee to the beautiful Battery Park Hotel, and, after dining and resting for a while, was taken to the stand prepared for him, in a carriage drawn by four white horses, preceded and followed by an extempore bodyguard of about a hundred citizens on horseback, caparisoned with bunting. Their advance guard made Mr. Bryan, and their followers made his followers, swallow the dust; Mr. Bryan's white cravat showing the worse for it when he ascended the stand.

The view of the crowd was picturesque in the extreme. The stand had been erected facing a green slope, on which the audience were seated on the grass in a wide hemicircle, giving to the whole an amphitheatric appearance, to which the gay colors worn by the listeners (over half of whom were of the non-voting sex, of all classes and conditions), the shifting lights and the green background, lent additional charm. Back of and at each side of the stand were several hundred vehicles, from the smart turn-out of the summer visitor down to the one-mule team of the cabin darky. Mr. Bryan managed to address them from all sides of the compass, though mainly facing the amphitheatre, as, when making a telling point, he wheeled completely around between commencement and ending of the sentence—a forensic trick which I have seen only Thomas H. Benton make in my young days.

I had never seen Bryan, and was much disappointed at his appearance and cast of features, so far as one reads character and intellect in them. He was dressed in conventional black with a white neck-tie, both considerably bedusted, and looked to me the typical Western country lawyer or preacher, such as I have seen in hundreds, with the heavy jaw, broad chin, and strong mouth. His forehead is good, but does not bespeak great intellectual qualities; his hair is bushy, black; his ears large. He looked not young, certainly older than his age; his complexion was sallow and his eyes dull. His voice, though carrying far, was husky and grating, and gave evident signs that his larynx was revolting against the abuse to which he was subjecting it. As he ascended the stand a countryman standing next to me said: "Why, he looks like a hard-shell Baptist minister."

Of his address little can be said. It seemed to me that I had read it all, *ad nauseam*, in the reports of his other railway-platform harangues. Only, the demagogue came to the surface stronger when heard speaking by mouth than when read in print. He confined his remarks exclusively to silver—not a word about anything else. This being a farming and not an industrial community, he left out the usual tirades against the rich and in behalf of the downtrodden who were forced, against their will, to accept good, sound gold for their labor and product. He denounced Mr. Carlisle in unmeasured and, in my judgment, improper and ungentlemanly terms. He pronounced this government to be one "of the syndicate, by the syndicate, and for the syndicate." He said that many poems had been written about silver and about gold, but that only one poem could be written about the Government syndicate, and that would be one in which the only possible rhyme to syndicate that he could think of was "hate." Such stuff he rolled off by the yard.

His delivery is good. He never falters for a word. His gestures are peculiar, and more adapted to the pulpit than to the forum. He throws out both arms parallel to each other, at right angles to the body, or above his head, rarely moving one hand singly, and, when coming to a climax, lifts himself up on his toes, and comes down with a thump at the last word of the sentence. His features do not speak, his eye is lustreless, but his delivery gives the impression of concentrated and sinister power. The genial smile of which newspapers speak was not to be seen; perhaps he was, as he looked, tired and worn out. Grace, ease, and dignity were wanting *in modo*, truthfulness, patriotism, erudition, and candor *in re*.

I cannot close this letter without again expressing satisfaction at the good behavior, the good nature, and, according to its lights, the intelligence of the audience, most of them farmers and rough tillers of the soil. There was great yelling and hurrahing as Mr. Bryan's points came out, most of it upon a signal from one of the three chairmen who occupied the stand with Mr. Bryan, and who applauded almost continuously; but the side remarks and loud interpellations were many and not bad. There was no drunkenness or impropriety of any sort. It is pleasant to feel that

these sturdy and honest people, open as they are to error to-day, will be just as open to truth when it assuredly will, sooner or later, dawn upon them. W. T.

Asheville, N. C.

GREENBACKS AND DEPRECIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to a statement in a little pamphlet entitled 'Points for Thinkers,' published by the Nonconformist Publishing Co., Indianapolis, as follows:

"The first greenbacks issued in 1862, to the amount of $60,000,000, never did depreciate a cent. They were always on a par with gold, and were receivable for interest on the public debt and duties on imports."

Will you kindly inform me through your paper, if space permits, giving facts concerning the issue referred to, and oblige

C. A. R.

Toledo, September 10.

[The statement quoted contains one half-truth and one whole falsehood. The "old demand notes," as the greenbacks referred to were habitually called, could not of course depreciate, as compared with other legal-tender notes, so long as the old notes were receivable for interest and public dues while the new notes were not. As compared with gold, however, they did depreciate. On February 29, 1862, gold sold at 102¼; the old demand notes at 100⅛. On May 12, the price of gold was 103½; of the demand notes, 100½. Later in 1862, the difference in premium between gold and the demand notes ranged from 4 to 7 per cent. In other words, they did from the first depreciate as compared with gold, and they were never at par with gold.—Ed. Nation.]

CONSERVATISM IN VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Upon a recent visit to a part of Virginia where I have spent my holidays, whenever possible, for half a century, I came upon a state of affairs well calculated to provoke belief in the announcement of the colored Richmond clergyman a few years ago that "the sun do move." Walking in the garden with my host, I was struck by the distinct enunciation of my name from the lips of a coal black negro boy who "bade me the time of day" as we passed where he was pulling up weeds. Suggesting that his improved power of pronunciation was due to attendance at the public school, I was told that it was, and, further, that the principal of the colored public school was a well-educated young negro man of excellent character, who was also superintendent of the colored Episcopal Sunday-school in the neighborhood. The location and condition of this Sunday-school were my discovery, and I will try to describe both.

At the edge of the village stands an Episcopal church, built some seventy years ago, upon nearly every one of whose stained glass windows are engraved names well known in the annals of colonial Virginia. Half a mile away, and separated by what was once a park filled with noble oaks and a broad expanse of green lawn, stands "The Hall," its solid walls and fluted columns showing white and still and strong under the burning August sun, as they have done for more than a century, without a symptom of decay, the fit emblem and abode of conservatism. Its builder a hundred years ago owned some ten square miles of land around it, much the larger part of which still belongs to his descendants, who constitute the greater part of the present congregation of the church, and to whom it came by inheritance and not by purchase.

The lands being fertile to a degree, and the race of people a sturdy one, natural subdivision, even assisted by destructive war, has failed to substitute for the old, refined society of gentle people a class nearer akin to the soil they cultivate. Under changed conditions, of course, and with many a ravelled edge to its garment and some wounds dangerously near its vital, "the neighborhood" stands up against time and change.

In a corner of the churchyard there has stood, for some forty years, a plain wooden chapel, wherein, before the war, a white Episcopal minister, whose salary was paid by the neighboring gentry, most of whom were relations of his wife if not of himself, taught and preached to the negroes of the neighboring plantations. When a boy, as a visitor at "The Hall," I have often seen the muster of the little negroes on their way to Sunday-school, and partaken of the ginger cakes provided for their reward. The negro Sunday-school of to-day is held in that chapel, and the hymn is given out and the prayer led by the colored teacher of the public school, but the singing is led by young ladies of the congregation bearing those historic names, one of whom humbly kneels at the head of each class while the superintendent prays.

The colored sexton of the parish church, whose snow-white head tells of a connection with "old times," does not submit to change so easily. He inveighs with frequency and bitterness against "shacks," as he designates the well to-do part of the population unable to "read their title clear" to descent from some colonial magnate, showing a feeling excusable to those who observe how persistently of late the sun has shone on the "shack" side of the hedge. To one of these, a young clergyman born in the county but outside of "the neighborhood," who, having been invited by the rector to fill his pulpit, appeared at the robing room door, surplice-case in hand, he vouchsafed the following rather chilly greeting: "Hi! *you* gwine to preach here? Don't you know dis congregation is quality?"

Truly, whether the sun stands still as in the days of Joshua, or goes backward as in the days of Hezekiah, or "do move" (presumably forward) in our progressive day, it never fails to illuminate with certain light the place where, under the legend "Noblesse oblige," people rise to the occasion whatever it may be. P. L. Burwell.

THE SCHOOLS AND POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While commenting on the present political aspect, and after referring to the dangers to our institutions which have been exposed by the money controversy during the last six months, a correspondent of the *Nation* finds a cause for existing conditions in the defects of our school system, or in the fact that the educational institutions of the country fail to furnish proper instruction in the principles of financial integrity and political honesty. He says: "Our system of general, if not universal, education, which has been held as the sufficient safeguard in a free country against the possibility of such conditions, seems not to have justified the hopes of its advocates."

While it is true that our present system of public instruction ignores the fundamental principles upon which a genuine republic rests, and while it is a debatable question whether the sum total of human happiness and prosperity is greatly augmented under the present educational régime, still I think it can scarcely be said that the "utter disregard" which is manifested "for every sound principle in the management of national, State, and municipal finances, and the flagrant and criminally reckless methods of corporate and individual business," are due to the fact that schoolboys receive no sound training in the principles of economics. It would seem that a truer statement of the case would be this, that the causes which underlie the at present dishonest and unwholesome commercial and political transactions are identical with those which are responsible for the apathy respecting the correct training of the youth; or, in other words, that commercial dishonesty and faulty and superficial educational methods are branches from the same root—a root which extends to the very foundation of our so-called republican institutions.

If it is a fact that our present educational system ignores the principles of financial integrity and commercial honesty; if the schoolboys of to-day are "taught nothing of the certain difficulty and probable danger of incurring debt, nothing of the sacredness of money obligations"—we should bear in mind that no ethical standard is demanded by those who support this system. We should remember that a great majority of those who give life and educational advantages to these boys, and who furnish them with examples for their guidance, have themselves no appreciation of the principles which should characterize the conduct of those who aspire to the benefits derived from a republican form of government.

Already in this country liberty has degenerated into license. Among the masses of the people the one object in life seems to be selfish gratification in one form or another; and the mad rush for money goes on with no thought for the methods employed in getting it. The effect of all this upon the youth is exactly what might be expected. Perhaps in no civilized land does one behold "precocious vice" and a determination among youths to procure self-gratification carried to such an alarming extent as in America. The lack of shame evinced by the young men and boys of this age as they indulge in vulgar and distasteful habits upon the streets and in other public places, shows plainly that, according to their own ideas, they are simply enjoying the "inalienable rights of American citizens." The fact that such encroachments upon the rights of others are in any way reprehensible has doubtless never occurred to them. Self-control and a proper regard for the rights of other people—the two fundamental principles necessary to the establishment of a genuine republic—are everywhere ignored, both by the young and the old.

Eliza Burt Gamble.

Detroit, Mich., September 17, 1896.

WHO HITCHED THE CART?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent who attempts un-

der this heading, in the *Nation* of September 10, to clear the President of the Johns Hopkins University from the charge of obscurantism on *a-priori* grounds—never more dangerously employed than here—does grave injustice to the Trustees of the University; for, as every one familiar with the one man organization of the Johns Hopkins knows, the Faculty is not admitted to the University stable-yard, and all harnessing, whether it be hitching the University wagon to a star, as in its early history, or the strange, crab-like progression of these latter days as concerns the most important educational movement of modern times, must be credited to the Trustees or to the President. Nor can the conservative environment be to blame, as your correspondent suggests, for both the location of the buildings of the University and the existence of the University itself as a great graduate school are a slap in the face of local prejudice.

It is an open secret, well known to the many women who have tried in vain to obtain admission to the University, and to the members of the Faculty who have interested themselves to obtain this admission for special women, that all such petitions have been for years pigeon-holed in the offices of administration. It is perhaps not so well known that the liberal and broad-minded original Trustees appointed by Johns Hopkins were, by a considerable majority, in favor of the admission of well-qualified women, as was proved by successive votes on the subject in the Board, and that the resignation of one of these original Trustees of less liberal views, still living, settled the question affirmatively as far as the Board was concerned. It was then that this Turkish policy of pigeon-holing began. It is also a matter of history that the President of the University was abroad when this same liberal majority accepted the $109,000 raised for the Medical School by the women's committees, and solemnly pledged themselves, as soon as the endowment of $500,000 should be completed, to open the medical school of the University to women on the same terms as to men; and that it was only after the President's return that a strong reactionist party was stirred up in the Board, who urged the Trustees to forswear their unanimous vote of two years before, and refuse Miss Garrett's offer of $306,977 to complete the endowment and enable the school to open immediately. Those who have come in contact with the mediæval lack of sympathy with women's desire for advanced study that streaks the (in many respects) luminous intelligence that guides the University, had little difficulty in explaining this change of heart in what fortunately proved to be a minority of the Board. I am furthermore informed by an eye-witness that, after Miss Garrett's gift was finally accepted, the Board was detained while an effort was made by a committee, owing its inspiration to the same source, to induce Miss Garrett to substitute the word "equal" for "the same" in the sentence, "open to women on the same terms as men," which conditioned her gift to the medical school. The above matters belong to ante-bellum days, and are recalled here only in justice to the Trustees of the Johns Hopkins University.—Yours very truly,

ONE WHO KNOWS.

BALTIMORE, September 11, 1896.

IMMERMANN'S "MERLIN."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit me to forestall the condemnation which is waiting for me at the hand of some future critic by making public confession of a bad slip committed in my recently published 'Social Forces in German Literature'? In a brief notice of Immermann's "Merlin" (p. 511) I speak of the hero of this drama as "that mysterious son of Satan and the Holy Virgin who," etc. Lest this sentence arouse what would be a very natural suspicion, that I had here confounded the *Candida* of the Merlin tragedy with the Virgin Mary, I wish to say that my mistake consisted in not rendering the German expression "heilige Jungfrau," which was in my mind, by "saintly virgin" instead of "holy virgin"—a mistake which was subsequently aggravated by the printer's capitalizing both words.

Let me add that Immermann's "Merlin" deserves a much fuller consideration than that which I could give it in my book. The scene where Satan obtains power over *Candida* is a piece of wonderful poetry, combining the fantastic fervor of Calderon's "Mágico Prodigioso" with the profound thought of Goethe's "Prolog im Himmel."—Respectfully,

KUNO FRANCKE.

CAMBRIDGE, September 17, 1896.

A SCOTT LEGEND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I notice in Miss Mary Anderson's 'Few Memories' the following passage on p. 131:

"At Kenilworth we stayed at the humble little cottage which had sheltered Walter Scott, who is said to have gone there to write his great novel under the shadow of the noble ruin. A villager told us how, as a child, he had seen Sir Walter standing on the knoll near Amy Robsart's window, and how his figure, wrapped in a long cloak, seemed to tower in the moonlight."

'Kenilworth' was published in November, 1820, and, the 'Abbot' having appeared in the preceding September, Scott must have worked at full speed to accomplish the Elizabethan novel; yet he was at this time much occupied with other business, both public and private. Lockhart makes no mention of any trip to England—Kenilworth is full three hundred miles from Edinburgh — in this interval, though he does record one immediately afterwards, in January, 1821. Of course, at this time, the authorship of the Waverley novels was still a secret, and though Scott was generally respected, his person would hardly be familiar to a "villager" of Warwickshire. It would seem, therefore, that, in sixty years, a "Scott legend" had grown up in the village which owed immortality to his novel, and that Miss Anderson, who undoubtedly put down just what she heard, was the victim of a fable.

It may be remarked in passing that her book suffers grievously from a want of revision in the spelling of proper names. "Merrivale," "Winklemann," etc., have an ungraceful look. W. E.

SEPTEMBER 14, 1896.

Notes.

EDWARD ARNOLD'S fall announcements embrace 'Through Unknown African Countries,' by A. Donaldson Smith, M.D.; 'In and Beyond the Himalayas,' by S. J. Stone; 'Fifty Years' Reminiscences of India,' by Lieut.-Col. W. Pollock; 'The Religions of India,' by Edward Washburn Hopkins, Ph.D.; 'Early Chartered Companies,' by George Cawston and A. H. Keane; 'Early English Furniture: An Account of the Famous English Cabinet-makers,' by Mrs. Warren Clouston; 'Old English Glasses,' *i. e.*, drinking-vessels, by Albert Hartshorne; 'A Treasury of Minor British Poetry,' selected and arranged by J. Churton Collins; 'Plant-lore and Garden-craft in Shakspere,' by Henry N. Ellacombe: 'Wagner's Heroines,' by Constance Maud; 'The Adventures of My Life,' by Henri Rochefort; 'The Chances of Death, and Other Studies in Evolution,' by Karl Pearson; 'Habit and Instinct: A Study in Heredity,' by C. Lloyd Morgan; and 'Fancy Dresses Described,' by Arden Holt.

Additional announcements by D. Appleton & Co. are 'Pioneers of Science in America,' edited by Dr. W. J. Youmans; 'The Story of the Mine,' by Charles Howard Shinn; 'The Story of Electricity,' by John Munro; 'The Story of Architecture,' by Charles T. Mathews; 'The Evolution of the Art of Music,' by C. Hubert H. Parry; 'The Music of the Modern World,' by Anton Seidl, assisted by Fanny Morris Smith; 'Oriental Ceramic Art,' the Walters Collection, with text by Dr. S. W. Bushell; 'A Reference Book of Practical Therapeutics,' by Dr. Frank P. Foster; 'The Beginning of a Nation,' by Dr. Edward Eggleston; 'General Sherman,' by Gen. Manning F. Force; 'The Rise and Growth of the English Nation,' in three volumes, by W. H. S. Aubrey; 'When William IV. Was King,' by John Ashton; 'Memoirs of Marshal Oudinot,' including the unpublished papers of his wife; 'The Forgotten Isles,' the Balearic, namely, by M. Vuillier; 'The Intellectual and Moral Development of the Child,' by Gabriel Compayré; 'Our Juvenile Offenders,' by W. Douglas Morrison; 'The Seven Seas,' verse by Rudyard Kipling; 'Rodney Stone,' by A. Conan Doyle, illustrated; 'The Statement of Stella Maberly,' by F. Anstey; 'The Little Regiment,' by Stephen Crane; 'A Galahad of the Creeks,' by S. Levett Yeats; 'The Complete Bachelor Manners for Men'; 'Driving for Pleasure,' by Francis T. Underhill; and 'Appletons' Natural History.'

G. P. Putnam's Sons promise 'The Nicaragua Canal and the Monroe Doctrine,' a political history, by Prof. Lindley M. Keasbey of Bryn Mawr; 'The Historical Development of Modern Europe,' by Prof. Charles M. Andrews of the same institution; 'The Country of Horace and Virgil,' from the French of Gaston Boissier by D. Havelock Fisher; 'Ancient Idols: A Study of Intellectual and Spiritual Growth,' by Henry Osborn Taylor; 'The Literary Movement in France during the Nineteenth Century,' from the French of Georges Pellissier by Anne G. Brinton; 'Essays in French History,' by J. E. Farmer; 'Studies in Interpretation: Clough—Keats—Matthew Arnold,' by Prof. Wm. Henry Judson of Leland Stanford Junior University; 'Little Journeys to the Homes of American Authors'; 'The Five Great Sceptical Dramas,' by the Rev. John Owen; 'Hopkins' Pond, and Other Sketches,' by Robert T. Morris, M.D.; 'Parakites: A Treatise on the Making and Flying of Tailless Kites,' by Gilbert T. Woglom; 'Lawns and Gardens,' by N. Jönsson Rose: 'The History of Economics,' by Henry Dunning Macleod: 'Songs without Answer,' by Irene Putnam; and 'In My Lady's Name: Poems of Love and Beauty,' compiled by Charles W. Moulton.

From J. B. Lippincott Co.'s list we select 'The True George Washington,' by Paul Lei-

cester Ford; 'Myths and Legends of Our Own Land,' by Charles M. Skinner; 'Songs of the South,' a collection by Jennie Thornley Clarke; 'Half-Hours of Travel at Home and Abroad,' by Charles Morris; 'Paris Days and Evenings,' by Stuart Henry; 'A Comic History of England,' a posthumous work of Bill Nye's; and 'Famous Violinists and Violins,' by Dr. T. L. Phipson.

In has been for some time an open secret that a "Library of the World's Best Literature" was in preparation, under the chief editorial control of Charles Dudley Warner, to be completed in thirty volumes, and sold either upon advance orders or by subscription. Its scheme resembles Humphry Ward's "English Poets" in combining with representative selections "critical essays" on the respective authors "by distinguished writers of the present day," together with biographical sketches. The publication has its headquarters at No. 91 Fifth Avenue, New York.

J. Selwin Tait & Sons have in the press 'Leo XIII. and Modern Civilization,' by J. Bleecker Miller.

Lemcke & Buechner have nearly ready the 'Tell el-Amarna Letters,' from the originals, by Hugo Winckler, being a complete transcription of these tablets, dating from 1500 B.C., with English translation, notes, index, and glossary.

'Totem Tales,' told and pictorially illustrated by W. A. Phillips, is in the press of the Star Publishing Co., Chicago.

Col. Fred C. Pierce, No. 160 Washington Street, Chicago, is at work upon a Genealogy of the Bacheller Family, and desires to communicate with persons of this name, however spelt.

Some time during the month of October there will occur at the University of Leipzig a very interesting celebration, in honor of the completion of twenty-five years of academic work by Professor Eduard Sievers. In memory of this event some friends and former pupils of his have united in publishing a memorial volume, the editors of which are Prof. Kaufmann of Kiel and Prof. John Meier of Halle. Twenty-three prominent philologists and literary historians have contributed articles. Among the foremost are Prof. O. Schrader of Jena, F. Holthausen of Gothenburg, and A. Litzmann, director of the Goethe and Schiller Archives in Weimar. The other contributors are scattered over Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Holland, Sweden, and America. Those from America are Prof. A. S. Cook of Yale, Prof. G. Hempl of Michigan University, E. E. Hale of Schenectady, and Prof. G. E. Karsten of the University of Indiana. The contributions cover a wide range of subjects in Germanic philology and literature. The book will contain about 800 octavo pages, and will cost $10. The publisher, Max Niemeyer of Halle, agrees to furnish the book free of transportation charges to all Americans who order it before the 1st of October.

An opportunity presents itself to purchase *en bloc* seventeen volumes containing the autograph of Martin Luther in several highly interesting forms, especially four church songs, including "Ein feste Burg" and "Vater unser im Himmelreich"—the latter transcribed in 1530, nine years before its first appearance in print. The collection was begun in 1682 and has been nursed to this day, when Luther autographs are so scarce and command so high a price. Particulars may be had of Jacques Rosenthal, No. 10 Karlstrasse, Munich, or through Lemcke & Buechner, 812 Broadway, New York.

Close upon the heels of the 'Bibliographie Française' comes the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual for 1896' (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*). There is no editorial foreword, and we can say no more than that this volume bulks about an inch less in thickness than last year's, and so puts off the inevitable day when the publishers' catalogues must be bound up in two or more volumes. The French and English examples of indexes cannot, we fear, soon be imitated.

The five original volumes of the 'Memoirs of Baron Thiébault,' which appeared in a straggling manner in 1893-95, and which revived the name of one of the less famous of Napoleon's commanders, have now been translated and judiciously condensed by Arthur John Butler in two compact and handsome volumes (Macmillan). Mr. Butler was also the translator of Marbot, and has therefore been all the better prepared to make an idiomatic and faithful version of this kindred work, which ranks among the most entertaining and impressive of the many produced in the recent Napoleonic revival. There is a fair index, but not analytical. What is one to do with 84 bare figure references under Napoleon?

Those interested in things German will read with pleasure and profit a little book entitled 'Betrachtungen eines in Deutschland reisenden Deutschen,' by P. D. Fischer (Berlin: Julius Springer). The author, who holds one of the higher positions in the imperial postal service, has had for many years exceptional opportunities for a thorough acquaintance with all parts of the empire, and, being a man of experience, culture, and good powers of observation, he has derived from his official journeys and investigations an unusual amount of information concerning the country and the people of to-day. A long-continued study of industrial and commercial questions has not deadened in his versatile mind the historical and poetic sense. He discusses the various modes of travel, not forgetting the "wheel," though unable to decide whether the bicyclist should be counted among "Reiter, Fahrer, or Fussgänger," since he is all three in one. He writes of the mountain-districts and the open country; of rivers, seas, and seaports; of forests, fields, cities; of noblemen's estates and peasants' and laborers' homes—always from the double point of view of general humanity and of modern civilization. Most of the material of the book had been published before in two articles in the *Rundschau* for January and May, 1894, but we find that the tasty little volume contains much additional matter and a few entirely new chapters. The style is faultless, almost classical, and the book deserves to be provided with some historical and geographical notes and a good map, for the use of American students.

The 'Bilder zur Mythologie und Geschichte der Griechen und Römer' (Berlin: Carl Graeser; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) has proceeded from the first number, of which we gave an account, to the fifth. That is to say, thirty permanent photographic prints from as many pieces of Greek and Roman statuary have now been made from approved plaster casts, with a view to mythology and biography. In the latter category are the well-known full-length Demosthenes of the Vatican and Sophocles of the Lateran, and busts of Herodotus, Thucydides, Socrates, Plato, Alexander, Cæsar; in the former, many a masterpiece from the Greek pantheon. It will be remembered that this series is expressly intended to further classical study in the schools, either by framing or hanging upon the walls, or by keeping in a portfolio for use as occasion arises. The plate sheets measure about 15x21 inches.

From a very full official report to the Minister of Public Instruction on courses of instruction for adolescents and adults, and on popular lectures, it appears that these movements have met with much encouragement from the public in most parts of France. The number of courses, averaging three hours per week for three months, has risen from 7,322 in 1894-95 to nearly 16,000 in 1895-96. Four hundred thousand persons registered for these courses, and nearly three-fourths of that number pursued them regularly and with profit, the majority being apprentices, peasants, clerks, and others whose earlier education had been necessarily deficient. Only about one-ninth of the courses were given for young women separately, and "mixed" courses were comparatively rare. Popular lectures have also grown in public favor, their number having increased nearly sixfold in one year. Of the 61,476 lectures given in 1895-96, about one-fourth were illustrated by lantern views. The Ligue de l'Enseignement alone distributed nearly five hundred lanterns and six thousand slides, while it lent as many as forty-eight thousand slides. Considerably more than this was done by the aggregate efforts of two other societies for the advancement of popular instruction, that of Havre and the National Society. Of course, the work has progressed less rapidly in some departments than in others, but it is evident that, on the whole, the movement is eminently practical and successful.

The addresses delivered in the French Senate by M. Alfred Rambaud, Minister of Public Instruction, and by M. Liard, in support of the new University bill, which has since become a law, are so replete with interesting historical and statistical details, otherwise not easily accessible, concerning higher education in France, that we cannot refrain from calling attention to them at this late hour. The addresses are published almost in full in the August number of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*. The same number contains a reply by a Swiss scholar, M. Zund, to Mr. Schofield's article on French and American universities recently noticed in these columns.

As the Corporation of Harvard University is about to set a memorial window in St. Saviour's Church, Southwark, where John Harvard was baptized in 1607, the interior of this edifice is appropriately shown in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September. The editor, Mr. Wm. R. Thayer, also pictures and describes the Queen's Head Inn, Southwark, closed only last year, after flourishing for five centuries, and probably kept by Harvard's mother, who bequeathed it to him, he in turn bequeathing to the college the proceeds of the sale of it; and Emmanuel College, Cambridge, from which Harvard graduated. Shakspere's brother is buried in St. Saviour's, along with Gower, Massinger, and Fletcher; and Mr. Thayer's conjecture that Shakspere frequented the inn in Harvard's youth is all the more plausible in view of the Stratford connection revealed by Mr. Waters. The magazine further contains Mr. Geo. S. Morison's suggestive Phi Beta Kappa oration; some curious vital statistics of college-bred men; and the usual miscellany. It seems a pity that the restoration of Bulfinch's fine college chapel in University Building to become the Faculty Room should not be as piously undertaken as was that of the legislative halls in the Old State

House in Boston. The communication on the choice of electives by freshmen deserves serious consideration.

Science was established in 1883 by Mr. A. Graham Bell, who, in conjunction with Mr. Gardiner G. Hubbard, spent more than $80,000 in sustaining it. The loss involved was so large and so continuous that the generous donors finally felt compelled to withdraw their aid, and publication was suspended in 1894. Later an arrangement for coöperation was made between *Science* and the American Association for the Advancement of Science, in accordance with which the Association agreed to appropriate $750 annually towards the support of the journal. But, in view of the fact that it has become necessary to take this money from the invested funds of the Association, it has seemed to friends of the journal and of the Association undesirable to continue this appropriation for the present. *Science* now, under able management, occupies a field which it would be discreditable to American science to leave unfilled, and we trust that its claims will be recognized by a renewed support in excess of the impending deficit.

The American resort of the past summer to the Bodleian Library has been very considerable—so considerable, indeed, that the hospitable authorities there desire to make known beforehand to intending readers one of the regulations governing the library which they are in no case at liberty to suspend. Intending readers must come provided with a personal introduction which they can surrender at the Bodleian. When once their introduction is on file, they are entitled to read at Bodley's Library as often as they may revisit Oxford, and as long as they live. The production of a circular-letter of introduction does not comply with the regulations above alluded to, and embarrassments have sometimes arisen the recurrence of which it is hoped the printing of this information may help to forestall for the future.

—The second series of the 'Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.' (Washington: Government Printing-Office) begins promptly with volume i., uniform with the first series, and exhausting the letter A in 828 quarto pages. It would be a mistake to suppose that the new series is confined chiefly to indexing magazines or works published since the first series was begun. On the contrary, we observe accessions of some sixteen imprints of the fifteenth century, the oldest being an Avicenna of 1482; and editions of Aristotle from 1500, of Vesalius from 1543, of Averrhoes from 1560, testify to the same careful filling up of the earlier gaps. The rubric Astrology furnishes other evidence, and even that of Apes and Monkeys extends from 1699 to 1898, the former date being attached to E. Tyson's 'Orang-utang sive homo sylvestris. Or the anatomy of a pigmie compared with that of a monkey, an ape, and a man. To which is added a philological essay concerning the pigmies, the cynocephali, the satyrs, and sphinges of the ancients. Wherein it will appear that they are all either apes or monkeys, and not men, as formerly pretended.' On the side of recent publications we may instance an article in an Odessa medical gazette on the disease of the late Emperor Alexander III. of Russia (Alexander the Great, Bonaparte and Cæsar being also similarly considered in other works in this Catalogue); Edward Atkinson on the 'Science of Nutrition'; and all the rapidly growing literature on Appendicitis, which mostly belongs to the present decade. Noteworthy are the twenty-four pages devoted to Army, by nationalities. Clearly this great work is going forward on the lines of its projector, Dr. Billings, whose name is succeeded in the preliminary report to the Surgeon-General by that of D. L. Huntington, Deputy Surgeon-General, and Lieut.-Col. U. S. A.

—The third volume of the calendar of the Dartmouth Papers (English Historical MSS. Commission) follows close upon the issue of the second, and includes many papers on America discovered after Mr. Stevens had performed his task. This later issue is necessary to complete the earlier, and has the advantage of printing the papers in full, while Mr. Stevens merely summarized the contents. There is much of interest in the private correspondence of the minister. Garbett of Birmingham complains in 1765 of the bad quality of iron goods made in that place, and adds: "America, the principal market for sale, has long complained of the quality of our nails, and will most unquestionably, if the imposition continues, endeavor to raise works of their own." In May, 1766, Lord Chesterfield urges Dartmouth to strive for an increase of his powers: "If we have no Secretary of State with full and undisputed powers for America, in a few years we may as well have no America." The next mention of America is in 1775, when hostilities had begun, and Rev. John Newton, a regular correspondent of Dartmouth, suggests a day of public humiliation "enjoined by authority," a weapon already used by Jefferson, though with no great confidence in its efficacy. John Wesley gives a dark picture of the industrial crisis in 1775 in England, due to the American troubles; and Granville Sharp writes in 1781 a very strong plea in favor of an immediate peace with America. Our extracts may fitly close with Lord North's brief announcement of defeat in March, 1782: "We are beat completely, and nothing but health and domestic comfort is left, that is worth thinking of. I suppose you know that, notwithstanding the method we took to elude a defeat, we lost the question by 19. General Conway, not contented with carrying the question, moved an address of the House to the King to be presented by the whole House, in order to make the measure as grievous and insulting as possible to his best benefactor."

—The University of Wisconsin has published in its Bulletin Series a monograph of Dr. Victor Coffin on "The Province of Quebec and the Early American Revolution." The author keeps in view two principal aspects of Canadian history during the time of Lord North's administration: first, the institutions devised by the home Government for the recently acquired New France, and, secondly, the part of the Canadians in the contest between Great Britain and her revolted colonies. Both lines of investigation converge to 1774, the year of the Quebec Act. Dr. Coffin enters a strong indictment against this measure, accusing it of exasperating the *habitants* at the moment by its insistence on the compulsory tithe, and of creating the greatest of Canada's present difficulties, the dual system. "I am strongly at variance with the hitherto prevailing opinions; being forced to conclude both that the provisions of the Quebec Act were neither occasioned nor appreciably affected by conditions in the other colonies, and that, far from being effective in keeping the mass of the Canadians loyal to the British connection, the measure had a strong influence in precisely the opposite direction." "No single step taken by the ministry of Lord North has been more politically disastrous than that which, besides increasing the colonial difficulties of the moment, is mainly responsible for the continued burdening of modern Canadian life with a steadily growing problem of national divergence." We doubt whether, in assuming these positions, Dr. Coffin is quite so paradoxical as he seems to think himself. The Quebec Act has certainly found its apologists, but at the present moment there are few Protestants in Ontario or Quebec who do not at least hold Dr. Coffin's view of the consequences. One would need to cast about a long while before he found a more notable instance of unsuccessful opportunism. Dr. Coffin does good service in exposing the mass of false conception upon which the Quebec Act rests, particularly "the incorrect ideas which Murray and Carleton had fostered with regard to the origin and character of the English already in the Province." His essay is conceived in a broad spirit, and is the fruit of faithful examination. Though somewhat controversial in tone, it handles the weapons of controversy fairly. One singular little slip should be rectified. It is stated on p. 539 that Lord Durham was sent out in 1839. He reached Canada in May, 1838.

—The Rev. Charles W. Mossell's 'Toussaint L'Ouverture' (Lockport, N. Y.: Ward & Cobb) has something to do with its avowed subject, and something to do with the present condition of Protestantism in the island of Hayti. The mixture of these two subjects gives the book a hybrid complexion, but, in view of Mr. Mossell's own experiences, it is not strange that the cause of evangelization should be close to his heart. Though a Roman Catholic, Toussaint L'Ouverture admitted the legal equality of all Christian bodies, and the Government of Hayti still leaves Protestant missionaries alone. The mass of the population, however, are not so considerate, and Mr. Mossell's lot while pastor of the African Methodist Episcopal Church at Port au Prince seems to have been very trying. We are told that on the 23d of September, 1883, he was "rudely and roughly forced into the streets with revolvers loaded and cocked drawn upon him, and with every circumstance of word and conduct shown by those who had him in this condition, calculated to demonstrate their fiendish purpose." Mr. Mossell's biographical sketch of Toussaint L'Ouverture possesses a certain value from the author's intimate knowledge of Hayti and its inhabitants. Otherwise its merit is slight. The narrative is based on Gragnon-Lacoste, and abounds in rejoinders to the depreciation of Saint-Rémy. Mr. Mossell makes small pretence to the graces of literary style, and the carelessness of the proof-reader is simply shocking. Yet the robustness, chivalry, and breadth of the great black's character make themselves felt through this jejune account of his struggle to emancipate his race. We cite a specimen of Mr. Mossell's prose: "If it were not that Catharine found herself in a strange land, so different from her native patrie, the remembrance of which strongly binds itself about the heart of the exile, l'ajoupa paternal,—if it were not that she had regrets caused by a cruel separation from the grand lakes, where the copious mongrove trees unite their branches in forming a thick grove,—a forest of sweetest perfume in which one's ears are constantly saluted by the chirping of birds, whose plu-

mage represents a hundred different colors exceedingly bright and beautiful,—we repeat, were it not for these sad recollections added to another, viz.: that while she was free, she was in the midst of her brothers and sisters bowed under the yoke of slavery; the young negress had almost no reason whatever to envy the whites."

—It is nearly seven years since we noticed, with the appreciation which it deserved, the first part of Prof. Paul Fredericq's 'Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Neerlandicæ,' embracing the documents concerning the persecution of heresy in the Low Countries from 1025 to 1520. We have waited somewhat impatiently for the continuation of the work, while recognizing the magnitude of the labor involved in collecting from all sources, printed and manuscript, the vast aggregate of material illustrating the vicissitudes of the Reformation in the Netherlands during the stormy reigns of Charles V. and his successors, and it is with some disappointment that we greet the second part (Ghent: J. Vuylsteke), which proves to be, not a continuation, but a supplement to the first part, consisting of some two hundred additional documents illustrating the earlier period which the industry of Prof. Fredericq and his students has discovered. Much, however, as we could have wished for the continuation, we recognize the soundness of the author's method in completing as far as possible the mediæval portion before grappling with the sixteenth-century movement and its momentous results, and we find this gleaning of his former harvest full of interest. Especially important are the contributions to the history of Lambert le Bègue and the Béguines, of the Flagellants, and of the Dancing Mania, although these form but a small portion of the varied contents of the four hundred pages of which the volume consists. While thankful, then, for this present instalment, our impatience is by no means diminished for the promised continuation, which, when executed with the same critical thoroughness, cannot fail to throw a new and striking light on one of the most complicated and important epochs of European history.

—The Vienna *Medicinische Wochenschrift* of July 18 contains an interesting article on the hygienic reforms and sanitary regulations introduced in Bosnia and Herzegovina by two female physicians during the past three years. In 1895 the Government appointed for this purpose two women, Dr. Krayevska and Dr. Keck, at a salary of 1,600 florins ($740) each, hoping thereby to promote the health of the Mohammedans, who constitute about 35 per cent. of the population. The aversion of Mohammedan women to medical treatment by men had hitherto been so strong as to render it almost impossible to apply remedies for their personal infirmities or to enforce sanatory ordinances in their dwellings. It is well known that the prevalence of anæmia among Mohammedan women is due in part to the lack of bodily exercise in the open air, and still more, perhaps, to the exceedingly imperfect ventilation of their houses. Also, the custom of nursing their children for several years is highly injurious to themselves and to their offspring. The patients numbered 1,258 in 1893, 1,382 in 1894, and 1,517 in 1895, and consisted chiefly of the wives and children of merchants, mechanics, peasants, and Government officials. By their tact and professional skill Drs. Krayevska and Keck have won the confidence of the Mohammedans and already succeeded in alleviating much unnecessary suffering and in reducing considerably the percentage of mortality. The inspection of the houses is now attended with no difficulty, and the general health of the inmates has been greatly improved. The poor are treated gratuitously, and regular reports embodying statements and suggestions are sent to the Government. The two physicians are liable at any time to be sent on sanitary missions to remote districts or assigned to duty in the hospitals. We may add that they were appointed as the result of a competitive examination, and that all candidates for such positions must submit to the same ordeal. Recently a female dentist, Emilie Edel of Vienna, has begun to practise her profession at Mostar, the capital of Herzegovina.

—The sight-seer in the English cathedrals has always found a unique exhibition in the famous circular world map of the thirteenth century which the verger at Hereford shows with such an air of self-gratulation. It hangs against an interior wall in one of the side aisles of that minster. It is a celebrated landmark in the broad field of early European cartography, and has for many years been cited as a significant object in the progress of geographical knowledge. After having been the subject of incidental treatment in the great works of Santarem, Lelewel, and Davezac, it was made the topic of monographic study by Beavan and Philott in a London publication in 1874, and a similar study of it by Dr. Konrad Miller constitutes the fourth part of his 'Ältesten Weltkarten,' now in course of publication at Stuttgart (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). A facsimile was first made of the original map in 1831 for the Royal Geographical Society, and a copy of this was made for the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris. Students of a later day have turned to the reproduction made by Jomard, in several sheets. Dr. Miller has based his facsimile, which is nearly half-size, on Jomard, correcting from the plate used by Beavan and from a lithograph published in 1872 by Stanford, which followed a photograph by Havergal. The original has been resorted to in doubtful cases where the legends are more or less obscure. There are fifteen or twenty other maps of these early periods of map-making, including the Ebstorf (of which Miller also gives us a reproduction), which are necessary to the study of the Hereford map, and Miller has collated its legends with the corresponding ones on such maps. There are nearly two-score early writers associated with this age of geography, and Miller's notes show that he has used them faithfully. One can little need hereafter to go beyond such careful work as this monograph presents.

AN INTRODUCTION TO JURISPRUDENCE.

A First Book of Jurisprudence. By Sir Frederick Pollock, Bart. Macmillan & Co. 1896.

"This book," writes Sir Frederick Pollock, "is addressed to readers who have laid the foundation of a liberal education and are beginning the special study of law." For this public it forms an almost perfect manual. Our object in reviewing it, however, is not so much to insist upon its merits, for these will, we may be certain, receive rapid and extensive recognition, as to take the book as the sign of a revolution which will gradually remodel the study of law in England. The revolution is nothing less than this, that law works are becoming a part of English literature. The 'First Book of Jurisprudence' is well adapted for the use of students of the common law; it is a manual which every one should read, but it is also, what few manuals are, and what very few English legal treatises have hitherto been, a book which every man of liberal education can read with pleasure. It is the work of a writer who is the master of his subject; it is the work of a trained thinker; it is the work of a man of letters.

That Sir Frederick Pollock has complete mastery of his topic is proved, if proof were needed, by the mass of useful and appropriate information with which his 300 and odd pages are filled. In this matter the 'First Book of Jurisprudence' resembles Prof. Freeman's admirable little work on the 'Growth of the English Constitution.' From either book a student may learn with ease more that is worth knowing about the elements of an important subject than can easily be gathered from lengthy and ponderous volumes. From Mr. Freeman's book, which could easily be read through in the course of a morning, one can learn what are the essential features of the English Constitution when surveyed by a man versed at once in English history and in English politics. From Prof. Pollock's manual, which also can be read through in a few hours, a student may gather not a mere analysis or outline of jurisprudence, but, what is far better, a substantial knowledge of the ideas which lie at the basis of every treatise of law. He may learn much about the nature of law and the different aspects in which it may be regarded; he may learn what is meant by justice according to law and what are its characteristics; he will, unless we are mistaken, rise from the reading of the work with a sense rarely derived from books, that legal terms and legal discussions have reference to real things, and are connected with the most interesting questions, both of a practical and of a speculative character, presented to us by the transactions of every-day life.

One example out of a score may show what we mean. Nothing in law appears to beginners more technical and conventional than the creation of those artificial persons known to English lawyers as corporations. A student with difficulty realizes that a corporate body is a different being from the members who compose it; and when he accustoms himself to the idea of artificial persons, he fancies that legal subtleties have led him far away from the realities of life. A perusal of Sir Frederick Pollock's chapter on persons, which consists of but fourteen short pages, altogether dispels this delusion. That corporations are in one sense the invention of lawyers is of course manifest; but what is more important (and not equally obvious) is that the creation of artificial persons corresponds to a natural tendency of the human mind—it meets a natural want. It is arguable, at any rate, that the corporate or quasi-corporate existence of the family or the state was recognised by mankind before they fully recognized the separate existence and claims of individual personality. However this may be, popular ways of thought create artificial persons more rapidly than does the invention of lawyers. States, nations, clubs, firms—even, to borrow an apt illustration of our author's, newspapers—are treated in ordinary discourse as personages; our readers, we have no doubt, praise or blame the politics of the *Nation* as freely as they bestow commendation or censure upon the conduct of President

Cleveland or Lord Salisbury. The truth is, that in England, at any rate, lawyers have found it difficult to recognize with sufficient rapidity the existence of artificial persons who are known to every man of business. In the world of trade a firm has long been a person; according to English law a firm is nothing but John Smith and Thomas Brown, who make up the firm. The creation of companies with limited liability is a tardy attempt to give personality to partnerships, and, even as it is, English rules of procedure are in parts rendered complex by the difficulty felt by lawyers in admitting that a firm is a person. To personify is in fact the tendency, it is even the weakness, of human nature; it is a profound remark of our author's, which might serve as the text for an essay, that the personification of nations has given rise to many dangerous fallacies or delusions.

Here we see that Sir Frederick Pollock is not only an excellent lawyer, but also a trained thinker. His book is suggestive of many ideas which he wisely, in order to keep within the proper limits of a manual, does not follow out. Everywhere we feel that he could say more about his topic than he does. Nothing gives a greater sense of a writer's power. There are excellent and instructive authors who illustrate their subject with appropriate examples, but who yet leave upon the mind an impression that they have said everything that they had to say; that in the facts which illustrate their statements we have in reality the measure of their knowledge. Something of this kind, for example, occurs to the reader of Dean Stanley's works. The Dean is a charming writer, his illustrations are apt and interesting, but his works leave on the minds of his readers no sense of reserved power. It would be unjust to say he is shallow, but it is not unjust to say that one touches sometimes the bottom of his knowledge. The truth is, that the Dean was an admirable writer, but he was in no sense an erudite author or a powerful thinker. With Prof. Pollock it is far otherwise. His last book is a manual for students, yet at every turn it arouses thoughts or speculations in the minds of readers who, in age at least, have no longer the right to number themselves among students.

As an illustration of this, let us take the one part of Prof. Pollock's speculations with which critics, with whom may be numbered the present writer, find it difficult to agree. His book does not contain any direct attack upon Austin. With his usual good sense, he has obviously felt that controversial matter ought as far as possible to be kept out of the pages of a manual. But it is perfectly clear to any one who reads the chapter on the nature and meaning of law, that Prof. Pollock does not agree with and does not value highly the Austinian definition of law, or, we conjecture, the system of analytical jurisprudence of which it is the result. What should be noted, however, is that the whole chapter on the nature and meaning of law, with which should be read the admirable disquisition on justice according to law, can be studied by the most ardent Austinian with the greatest profit. At every turn he will find suggestions well worth consideration, and he will, we suspect, come to the conclusion, not that there is no difference between Austin and his critics, but that there is no cause for internecine warfare between them. Austin forced upon a world which at first was unwilling to heed him, an aspect of law which as far as it went is important. Subsequent writers, belonging more or less to the historical school, have revealed to the world the extent to which rules or habits which are not, according to Austin's definition, in strictness laws, are in fact obeyed; they in their turn have done good service in calling attention to another aspect of law, namely, the way in which it is developed. The moment has nearly come, if it has not already arrived, when it will be seen that there is no opposition between the two different ways in which law may be regarded. This reconciliation will assuredly be aided by our author's thoughtful speculations. "Law, for the practical purposes of lawyers and citizens, means the sum of those rules of conduct which courts of justice enforce, the conditions on which they become applicable, and the manner and consequences of their application." This is a statement in which lawyers, whatever their speculative views, may agree. It is precisely one of those wise summaries of admitted facts which one finds in the writings, and only in the writings, of men who bring to the consideration of difficult and controverted questions habits of wide and systematic thought.

Our author writes essentially as a man of letters. Nowhere is this better seen than in the second part of his book, on legal authorities and their use. It may compare, and the comparison is in itself a high compliment, with Blackstone's introduction to the study of the law of England. Each writer has attempted to set before students the elementary facts (*e. g.*, the nature of the common law, the difference between common law and equity, the meaning of case law, the effect of precedents, and the like) which it behooves any man to master before he enters upon the study of the law of England. Each writer has, according to the knowledge of his day, done his work admirably; each has chosen interesting topics and expounded them in an interesting manner; each has realized that there ought to be no divorce between law and letters. That the two should ever have been separated should, to all lovers of the law of England, be a subject of great regret, but the existence of the separation is past a doubt. If we except Blackstone's Commentaries, hardly a single work which fifty, forty, or even thirty years ago was placed in the hands of law students could be called literature. Smith's 'Leading Cases,' White and Tudor, Smith 'On Contract,' the whole overgrown library produced by the industry, the knowledge, and the verbosity of the family or clan of Chitty, were in some respects excellent works, from which, by dogged industry, it was possible for a learner to derive much valuable information. But they were not literature; they had no more to do with the world of letters than have Bullen and Leake's 'Pleadings' or Daniel's 'Chancery Practice.' They had, indeed, far less of literary flavor than have large portions of the law reports. It is in the great judgments of eminent judges that you must look for such literary gifts as have been offered on the shrine of law. There have never been wanting English magistrates who could express in admirable English the principles of English justice. The judgments of the late Lord Bowen contain the latest judicial contributions to the literature of England, but Lord Bowen was only not among the first of Englishmen of letters because he was quite among the first of English judges. But, as we have said, the writers of legal text-books have, with the exception of Blackstone, till quite recently contributed nothing to literature. The permanent reputation of Sir Henry Maine will, it may be suspected, rest upon his having shown that supreme literary skill could be applied to the discussion or elucidation of legal problems. Whatever be the defects of his 'Ancient Law,' it is one of the most charming of books. The idea that literary talent could be applied to the service of law was, when Maine's 'Ancient Law' appeared, new and original. It has also been preëminently fruitful. A whole series of works have, since 1861, been produced by authors who, though marked by great differences, have all given to legal treatises the character of literary works. Sir James Stephen's 'History of the Criminal Law,' Anson's 'Law of Contract,' Markby's 'Elements of Jurisprudence,' Holland's 'Jurisprudence,' Pollock's 'Law of Torts,' Pollock and Maitland's 'History of English Law,' and other works which might be mentioned, are all results of the same movement. The writers in each case follow, as every good writer ought to do, the bent of their own genius; but they each and all clothe clear thought about law in the form of lucid expression. The 'First Book of Jurisprudence,' small though it be in size, is in reality no mean addition to the series of which it in truth forms a part; it is the latest, though it will not be the last, result of the effort to take up again the work of Blackstone, and to make the literature of English law a part of the English world of letters.

A WOMAN ASTRONOMER.

Maria Mitchell: Life, Letters and Journals. Compiled by Phebe Mitchell Kendall. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1896. Pp. 293.

THIS book presents a combination that one would not have expected beforehand to occur. It is the life of the first American woman who attained eminence in science, and it is also the perfect picture of the ideally happy life of the woman who devotes herself to scientific pursuits. Like the history of those nations which can be accounted happy, it is short, if one measures it by fulness of incident. The fortunate circumstance that Vassar College was founded within the active period of life of the one woman to whom a college professorship was due, secured for her the freedom from anxiety, together with the constant quickening of interest, that only a college professorship can give. With no unpleasant cares and responsibilities, with almost uninterrupted leisure for the prosecution of her work (for the number of students who chose to study astronomy was naturally never large), and with the inspiration that must have come from being the intellectual centre year after year of the cleverest of the college girls—what more favorable conditions can one imagine? Those who remember the expression of keen aliveness combined with perfect content of Miss Mitchell's later years, will easily believe that hers was one of the enviable existences of this poor world. How purely silly it is on the part of many unthinking reviewers to attribute the half-unhappiness (for it was no more than that) of Kovalevsky to the fact that she was a mathematician, and not to her fiery, unsatisfied Russian temperament, it is not worth the while to point out.

Maria Mitchell was born on the island of Nantucket in the year 1818, of a family which had been Quakers for many generations. Her ancestors had been obliged, on account of the intolerance of the early Puritans, to flee from Massachusetts and to settle upon this island, which belonged at that time to New York. Her father had been from his early youth an

enthusiastic student of astronomy, at a time when students of astronomy were few and far between. To the children, accustomed to seeing observing going on every pleasant evening, astronomy was the most important subject in the world. One by one, as they became old enough, they were drafted into the service of counting seconds by the chronometer; if any one had asked a little child in this family who was the greatest man that ever lived, the answer would have come promptly, "Herschel!" It was only in such an atmosphere that a girl could become a scientific woman in those days, but how much energy went still to the making of that rare creature is shown by the fact that of all the daughters of the scientific men of that day, this one alone devoted herself to her father's pursuits.

Another happy circumstance assisted in deciding her career, and gave her the recognition which is so indispensable an incentive to long-continued effort; before she was thirty, she had discovered a comet. Moreover, Frederick VI., King of Denmark, had offered a gold medal to the first discoverer of a telescopic comet; and although his son, who had now succeeded him, did not take the interest in science that his father had felt, he was nevertheless persuaded to carry out his father's design in this instance. There were difficulties, however, on account of certain formalities in regard to the announcement of the discovery not having been complied with, and as Miss Mitchell did nothing to urge her own claims, the whole thing would have fallen through had it not been for the energetic measures pursued by Edward Everett, who was at that time the President of Harvard College. Finally, the medal arrived, a year and a half after the discovery of the comet. She received letters of congratulation and friendly interest from many of the principal astronomers in Europe, and this sympathetic welcoming into the ranks of the real workers in her chosen subject was doubtless effective in fixing her interest in her career. No man can ever fully realize the feeling of isolation and repression which was the lot, up to thirty years ago, of those few active-minded women who were afflicted with an unnatural desire to aid in the accumulation of the world's store of exact knowledge.

At this same time (1848), Miss Mitchell was unanimously elected a member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences—the first and only woman who has ever received this distinction. The following year she was invited to act as computer for the American Nautical Almanac, and she retained this position for many years, in addition to her other duties. Six years of her life were devoted to the unremitting care of an invalid mother. After the mother's death, Maria and her father removed to Lynn, and from there she was called to fill the chair of astronomy at Vassar College upon its opening in 1865. This appointment, which the trustees of the college, with rare good sense, rendered effective by the construction of an admirably furnished observatory, gave astronomy a prominence at Vassar which it has had in but few of the colleges for men. Some years before, Miss Mitchell had been presented, through the exertions of Miss Elizabeth Peabody, with an equatorial telescope—the gift of the women of America.

A large part of the volume before us is occupied with the diary and letters concerning Miss Mitchell's first and second European tours. Both times she met and enjoyed friendly intercourse with the most important scientific men of the day. There is a great deal of interesting anecdote and comment upon character, but we have space to give only a taste of it. She was surprised to find that the important rooms in Leverrier's observatory were the reception-room and the ball-room; astronomy had to be made a feature in French social life in order that the Government might be induced to expend money upon it. There was much bitterness at this time between French and English astronomers on account of the rival claims of Adams and Leverrier to the discovery of Neptune, and Leverrier seems not to have needed this fillip to his natural moroseness. Lady Herschel said afterwards that he was one of the very few men whom she had ever asked for an autograph; he was her guest at the time and he refused. In view of the reputation of American children in Europe, it is interesting to know that his little boy of nine promenaded about the room with his hands in his pockets, and occasionally yelled and was ordered to keep quiet. In Rome Miss Mitchell was shown over the papal observatory, through intercession with Cardinal Antonelli (but she was not allowed to be accompanied by her maid). Mrs. Somerville had sought this privilege in vain. Father Secchi had no staff and no prescribed duties; in spite of the history of Galileo, which forms the background of Italian astronomy, "no bolder views emanate from any observatory than those which Secchi sends out." Miss Mitchell would gladly have waited until dark to see the nebulæ through the extraordinarily pure Italian atmosphere, but the father informed her that her permission did not extend beyond the daylight, and conducted her to the door, adding, "But we live in a civilized country." Alexander Humboldt (alone of the Europeans she met) showed a minute acquaintance with American affairs, and was deeply interested in the question, which was then up, of the admission of Kansas as a slave State.

"He said that we had gone backwards, morally, in America since he was there [what would he say now?]; that then there were strong men—Jefferson, Hamilton, Madison. The three months he spent in America were spent almost wholly with Jefferson. He urged me to go to see Argelander on my way to London; he followed me out, still urging me to do this, and at the same time assured me that Kansas would go all right [would that he could give us that assurance now!]."

Admiral Smyth (the English Astronomer Royal) assured her that no family was quite civilized unless it possessed an encyclopædia and a telescope. The English gentleman uses both for his amusement. Frequently he hires some young astronomer of talent who comes to his observatory and makes a name for him. Then the Queen confers the honor of knighthood, not upon the young man, but upon the owner of the telescope. But Miss Mitchell's most delightful visit was at the house of Sir John Herschel. She found him an old man, much bent, and with perfectly white hair standing out in every direction, but full of clever talk, and "a better listener than any man I have met in England." Lady Herschel was a noble-looking woman, and exceedingly fresh and fair for a woman of her age. They were surrounded by eight of their twelve children, all fine-looking and remarkably intelligent.

"Lady Herschel is the head of the house—so is Mrs. Airy; so, I suspect, is the wife in all well ordered households! I perceived that Sir John did not take a cup of tea until his wife said, 'You can have some, dear.' Mr. Airy waits and waits, and then says, 'My dear, I shall lose all my flesh if I don't have something to eat and drink.'"

Miss Mitchell was much shocked at hearing Prof. Sedgwick say, regarding Miss Herschel's marriage to a Gordon, "Such a great match for her!" "What match can be great," she asked, "for a daughter of the Herschels?" When dining with Whewell, she found him very severe upon American writers; Lowell's comic poems she found that he took as representing the ordinary language of the American people. Wishing to say that something in the way of sight-seeing would be done thoroughly, he turned to her and said, "We'll go the whole hog, Miss Mitchell, as you say in your country."

"I thought his severity regarding Americans reached really to discourtesy. I got a little chance to retort, by telling him that we had outgrown Mrs. Hemans in America, and that we now read Mrs. Browning more. He laughed, and said that Mrs. Browning's poetry was so coarse he could not tolerate it, and he was amused to hear that any people had got above Mrs. Hemans. He asked me if we had got above Homer; I replied that they were not similar cases. Altogether there was a tone of satire in Dr. Whewell's remarks that I did not think amiable. . . . Mrs. Airy said that Dr. Whewell and I *riled* each other!"

There are here and there remarks exhibiting Miss Mitchell's keen interest in psychological analysis which those who knew her were always struck with. Professor Bond (the elder) was showing her and his son the new planet Neptune, which he had already seen himself.

"It looked precisely like a small star, and George and I both asked, 'What made you think last night that it was the new planet?' Mr. Bond could only say, 'I don't know; it looked different from the others.' *It is always so—you cannot get a man of genius to explain steps, he leaps.*"

"When I was travelling with Miss S., who was near-sighted and kept her eyes constantly half-shut, it seemed to me that every other young lady I met had wide, staring eyes. Now, after two years' sitting by a person who never reasons, it strikes me that every other person whom I meet has been thinking hard, and his logic stands out a prominent characteristic."

It required no small measure of the grace of God to live for more than twenty years, as Miss Mitchell did, a Unitarian of the most liberal type, in an atmosphere where an orthodox belief was regarded as a matter of crucial importance—to be perfectly fearless and outspoken, and at the same time to preserve the unvarying affectionate regard of her colleagues. Towards the end of her diary she writes that she is "surprised to find how liberal Congregational preaching has become," not only theologically, but also as regards matters of practical aspect. "Dr. Lyman Abbott preached; he said he hoped and expected to see women at the bar and in the pulpit, although he believed that these would always be exceptional cases." This was indeed a change from that protest-arousing sermon to the graduates of a former president of the college, in which he characterized the duties which awaited them as duties of "the home, the church, and society," absolutely ignoring not only the other occupations which Vassar women were already taking up (including Miss Mitchell's own), but also the entire profession of teaching. It is a change as regards women which Miss Mitchell's life has probably done more to bring about than any other single event of the time. This she accomplished even more by what she was than by what she did. The secret of her power over those who knew her is justly described in the words of the present president of Vassar:

"But it would be vain for me to try to tell just what it was in Miss Mitchell that attract-

ed us who loved her. It was this combination of great strength and independence, of deep affection and tenderness, breathed through and through with the sentiment of a perfectly genuine life, which has made for us one of the pilgrim-shrines of life her study in the observatory of Vassar College, where we have known her at home, surrounded by the evidences of her honorable professional career. She has been an impressive figure in our time, and one whose influence will live."

Eliza Pinckney. By Harriet Horry Ravenel. With facsimile reproduction. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896. 8vo, pp. xi, 331.

It was a happy selection to make Eliza Pinckney the first representative from a Southern colony among the women of colonial and Revolutionary times. Not only does she belong to a very early period of Carolina's history, but she lived through the Revolution and was closely identified with the material development of the colony. While much of the interest in the book is of a social character, there is even more of an economic nature, which is unusual in the case of a woman. Left in charge of three plantations when she was sixteen years of age, she managed the complicated business as well as could any planter; and, possessing a spirit of initiative united to great perseverance, she was keen to undertake new cultures, and brought most of them to a successful issue through many disappointments.

The earliest glimpse caught of this practical farmer was about 1740, when she was settled seventeen miles by land from Charleston, in the midst of six neighbors, with whom she lived in great harmony, and in charge of her father's plantations. What society existed, and it must have been little, was "genteel"; but the poorer people she describes as the most indolent in the world and very wretched in their poverty. In the city it was better, and the occasional visit of a warship—for the troubles with Spain and pirates kept the colony in a state of suspense—added a pleasant feature of social activity. For this our young lady had little time, and her schedule of occupations points to the engrossing tasks intrusted to her charge. She studied music, French, shorthand, and law; neglected no detail of the plantation, taught her negroes to read, and maintained an extensive correspondence on social and business topics. But her great passion was gardening, and it is her engrossment in agriculture that gives a more than ordinary interest to her life. Through her care the cultivation of indigo was introduced into Carolina from the West Indies. After some years of experiment a little success was attained, and, according to the custom of the day, a bounty was asked of the Provincial Assembly, and a second bounty of Parliament. To spite the French, who were then supplying England with this product, a liberal bounty was granted, and the culture spread through the colonies, giving what had long been wanted, a staple for export to be raised on the highlands. Rice alone had given a large foreign trade, but now indigo rose to great importance. She also attempted to grow ginger, cotton, lucerne, and cassava, planted a fig orchard, having first reckoned her "expense and the prophets" to arise, and laid out a plantation of oaks.

In 1744 Miss Lucas married Charles Pinckney, called Chief Justice, though he never received a royal commission, who served as the colony's agent in England. Two sons, Charles Cotesworth and Thomas, were the issue of this marriage, and both attained to prominence in public life. After fourteen years of married life Eliza Pinckney became a widow, and, having returned to America, devoted herself to agriculture and the management of the Pinckney estate until her death in 1798. It was a long and useful life, and more could be made of it from the economic standpoint than Mrs. Ravenel has made of the social. One statement made by the biographer deserves attention. She pictures American slavery as a great and beautiful missionary enterprise: "Conscientious people did their best to transform the cargoes of savages brought to their doors into the decent, capable servants whom we remember. Of their wonderful success it is needless now to tell. In 1861 the men of the Confederacy left their women and houses in safety under the care of the Christian people whom they and their forefathers had rescued from a barbarous heathenism." And she returns to the subject on a subsequent page, dwelling upon the charge committed to Southern women:

"They had to train and teach a race of savages—a race which had never known even the rudiments of decency, civilization, or religion; a race which, despite the labors of colonists and missionaries, remains in Africa to-day as it was a thousand years ago; but a race which, influenced by these lives, taught by these Southern people for six generations, proved in the day of trial the most faithful, the most devoted of servants."

It is natural to ask why, if the slave-trade was "a rescue," the missionary enterprise was finally condemned and disowned even by South Carolina itself? But the more curious process is to compare Mrs. Ravenel's quiet delineation of "the decent, capable servants" produced by slavery with the severe denunciations heaped upon that very class by her kinsman, General Thomas Pinckney (son of the lady whose letters she is editing), in his 'Reflections,' issued in 1822; and to contrast her delineation of the "Christian people" whom it created with the frank statements of another kinsman, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, in his "Address before the Agricultural Society of South Carolina" in 1829. What if she had written, as he writes, "There needs no stronger illustration of the doctrine of human depravity than the state of morals on plantations in general"? Then, after describing the pernicious influences which surround the younger negroes, he adds: "Their advance in years is but a progression to the higher grades of iniquity." Is this the Christian people whom Mrs. Ravenel describes as the result of slavery, and is this the "wonderful success"?

What was thus said by prominent men of South Carolina was simply repeated from the other slave States. Bishop Meade, in 1834, urges the religious instruction of those in bondage on the ground that they are degraded and destitute. The Kentucky Union for the Improvement of the Colored Race in 1834 characterizes the colored population as "semi-heathen." The Rev. Charles C. Jones of Georgia, in his book on the 'Religious Instruction of the Negroes,' published in 1842, says: "Such a general corruption of morals as would blast the reputation of any white community is known to exist among them, and yet how unaffected are we by it! Indeed, the habit of our minds is to consider them in a state of moral degradation." The simple truth is, that no comparison can ever be made between what the negroes were in slavery and what they were, or might have become, in freedom, because the very existence of slavery, and especially that in this hemisphere, practically degraded all Africa. The general testimony of African travellers, from Mungo Park to Stanley, was that wherever an African tribe existed that had not been reached by the slave trade it was apt to be—as in case of the Yorubas—modest, honest, industrious, ingenious, even intelligent; but that where the slave trade had reached, it crushed out all these qualities and left what Mrs. Ravenel calls a race of savages. That many Southern women and some Southern men labored devotedly to ameliorate this state of things is conceded by all; and they had fortunately to deal with a peculiarly affectionate and trustful race with much natural religious or at least emotional tendency. But that the institution of slavery was in itself essentially demoralizing, both for black and white—this fact rests on too long a series of testimonies from slaveholders themselves to be now disregarded.

An Examination of the Nature of the State: A Study in Political Philosophy. By Westel Woodbury Willoughby. Macmillan. 1896.

Mr. Willoughby's work is based upon a course of lectures delivered at Johns Hopkins University. It is a systematic treatise in which the nature and "justification" of political authority are examined. The problem of the justification of the State or of human sovereignty is one of those questions, inherited from the middle ages, which have really lapsed into insignificance, though for every writer on government, especially those, like Mr. Willoughby, of a metaphysical turn of mind, it still has a good deal of fascination. The first 118 pages of the book are occupied with a careful examination of the various attempts made to justify the State; the work is very well done. The author shows that the State rests on no basis but its utility. Its remote historical origin we have no means of tracing; its divine origin is a mere assumption; the theory that it rests on consent or compact is contrary to fact. Moreover, when we ask what *right* has the State to infringe upon man's natural freedom, we are involved in the difficulty that there are no rights, in the strict sense of the term, antecedent to the State. All rights that we know anything about are either legal or moral. The right of the State to govern man cannot be derived from Law, for Law is a creature of the State. If it is a moral right, it must rest on the same basis on which all morality rests, and this must be either conscience, or divine revelation, or utility. Of course, consent has nothing to do with morality. Now, conscience will not do as a basis for the State, for conscience does not enlighten us further than to let us know that we ought to obey the State if it is right to do so; revelation answered only so long as a direct and miraculous connection was believed to exist between human and divine authority. This leaves nothing but utility as the basis for the moral right of the State to interfere with man's natural freedom.

The author's argument—the foregoing is our paraphrase of it—deserves careful study. The whole matter might perhaps be rendered clearer if the State were left out of view altogether, and the problem were stated in what are really its true terms. What justifies human authority of any kind over human beings? The State is only one constant and conspicuous form in which this authority is exercised. There are several others. To take

a very simple case—how do we justify the despotism of the captain of a ship on the high seas? It is by no means clear that all captains of all ships in all ages of the world have had this power. Travellers describing voyages on the Mediterranean and Adriatic to-day speak, we believe, of the want of authority in the captain as a noticeable fact. But the great maritime nations of modern times early introduced absolute despotism as the rule on the high seas, and the position of the captain is the same on the ship of a democratic country like the United States as on any other. Why? Simply because on no other plan can a ship be navigated with complete safety.

Civil authority rests on no other basis. By no other means except the knowledge that there is a reserve of human force at hand to put down disorder is order maintained. The sheriff and his posse, the police, the militia, the army and navy, are merely agencies for preserving order against either domestic or foreign foes. All this is perfectly clear when we rest government on a utilitarian basis. A hundred years ago the whole problem was still involved in the utmost obscurity, partly because speculation on such subjects was still in its metaphysical stage.

Mr. Willoughby does not seem to us to have altogether freed his mind from the influence of metaphysics. He continually personifies the State, and talks about its having a will of its own. This is metaphor; it is this sort of personification of the State as a human being which is at the root of much of the flimsiest Socialist speculation. A State is a person only in the same sense that the Erie Railroad, or the Mormon Church, or a city or county is a person. The State consists of the persons who carry it on, and consequently the question whether business which concerns the public had better be transferred to the State is not a merely abstract question, but also a practical one, depending on the conditions and nature of the business and the character of the persons who constitute the State. Should the United States take over the transportation business? is a question capable of discussion. But to determine whether an abstract State, produced in an abstract community, should take over an abstract railroad, is another matter. No doubt the *tendency* of the absorption of private business in general by the State is a matter which may be discussed with profit; we know from observation that the concentration of power in the hands of officials tends to produce certain results, that as a rule business is best managed if managed by those who are directly interested in it, etc.

Mr. Willoughby's examination of Austin's system (which he generally adopts), and incidentally of the question of the *location* of sovereignty, is interesting, though we cannot say he advances matters much. For ourselves we feel no logical difficulty in the view held by most lawyers that a State in this country is sovereign as to some *subjects* within the same territory in which the Federal Government is sovereign as to others. A more difficult question is, What do we mean when we say that any State is sovereign? Do we mean that sovereign power resides in its *government*, or in the electorate which produces the government? Austin says we mean the electorate. Mr. Willoughby would have us believe that sovereignty is exhibited whenever the "will of the State" is expressed. To us this seems pure personification. The will of the State is expressed by the sheriff whenever he levies an execution, but nobody would contend that the sheriff had sovereign power.

A History of Banking in All the Leading Nations. Vol. II. New York: The *Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.* 1896.

THE second volume of this great work contains three treatises. The first, on the History of Banking in Great Britain, is by Mr. H. D. Macleod, and the comparative importance of the subject makes it not unreasonable that it should occupy two-thirds of the volume. So far as the facts of English banking history are concerned, perhaps no more competent narrator than Mr. Macleod could have been employed, although we have not observed that he has brought anything of importance to light that had not previously been known. But those familiar with Mr. Macleod's works do not need to be told that he could not resist such an opportunity as this to display his peculiar theories of credit and value at inordinate lengths. As these theories are already accessible to the public in Mr. Macleod's other works, it seems injudicious on the part of the editor of this history to give so much space to their repetition. Fortunately, however, these theoretical discussions are assigned a place by themselves, so that the reader can study the facts of banking history without being obliged to deal at length with the Macleod theory of credit. Perhaps, however, we should say that this is by no means Mr. Macleod's opinion, and that he is nowhere chary of expressing it.

The second of these treatises, which is on Banking in Russia, is by Mr. Antoine E. Horn, late editor of the *Journal de St. Pétersbourg*. It is in agreeable contrast to Mr. Macleod's rambling dissertation, and is in every respect a model of financial history. We can only say of this brilliant essay that it records the results of the delusive theories of money and banking that have prevailed in Russia as everywhere else. There is literally nothing new in it; the absurd and disastrous and dishonest expedients that have been resorted to in Russia have been repeatedly tried, many of them in our own land. The demand of the Populists that money should be issued by the Government directly to the people on the security of land and personalty has been complied with, and with the results that might have been expected. The complaints and outcries of Mr. Bryan have been heard in Russia, and the adoption of the gold standard there has been opposed in language with which we are familiar. The course of the Government, however, in its dealings with foreign creditors has been on the whole honorable, in modern times even punctiliously so.

The third treatise, on the History of Savings Banks in the United States, by Mr. John P. Townsend, appears to us to be quite inadequate. Like Mr. Macleod, he indulges too much in theorizing and in moralizing, and his array of facts is not only meagre but ill arranged. While we cannot praise this essay as history, it is just to add that it contains a valuable collection of statistics and legal principles and requirements. The subject, however, deserves treatment by a writer possessed of more literary skill than Mr. Townsend displays.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Prof. G. B. Why Americans Dislike England. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus. 30c.
Andrews, Byron. McKinley and Hobart. F. T. Neely.
Anstey, F. The Statement of Stella Maberly. Appletons. $1.25.

Aabach, Julius. Römisches Kaisertum und Verfassung bis auf Traian. Cologne: Du Mont & Schauberg; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Barcus, J. S. The Boomerang; or, Bryan's Speech with the Wind Knocked Out. New York: J. S. Barcus & Co. 50c.
Bartow, Annie K. The Sign of the North Star. Whittaker.
Bates, Arlo. Talks on Writing English. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Becerra, Ricardo. Essayo Histórico Documentado de la Vida de Don Francisco de Miranda. Tomo I. Caracas: Imprenta Colón.
Benedict, Anne K. The Hathaways' Sister. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 75c.
Bible Illustrations: A Series of Plates illustrating Biblical Versions and Antiquities. Henry Frowde.
Biological Lectures Delivered at Wood's Holl. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.15.
Björnson, B. The Fisher Lass. Macmillan. $1.25.
Bloundelle-Burton, J. Denounced: A Romance. D. Appleton & Co.
Bonus, A. Collatio Codicis Lewisiani Rescripti Evangeliorum Sacrorum Syriacorum cum Codice Curetoniano. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Bourget, Paul. A Tragic Idyl. Scribners. $1.50.
Brookings, W. Du B., and Ringwalt, R. C. Briefs for Debate on Current Political, Economic, and Social Topics. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Bunner, H. C. Love in Old Cloathes, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
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Daudet, A. Recollections of a Literary Man. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Davenport, H. J. Outlines of Economic Theory. Macmillan. $2.
Dickinson, Emily. Poems. Third Series. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Englische Auswanderung. Nordamerikanische und Brasilianische Einwanderung. Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Field, Eugene. The Holy Cross, and Other Tales. Songs and Other Verses. Second Book of Tales. Scribners. Each $1.25.
Fischer, P. D. Betrachtungen eines in Deutschland reisenden Deutschen. 2d ed. Berlin: Julius Springer.
Forbes, Archibald. Camps, Quarters, and Casual Places. Macmillan. $1.75.
Fortnum, C. D. E. Maiolica: A Historical Treatise on the Glazed and Enamelled Earthenwares of Italy; also Some Notice of the Persian, Damascus, Rhodian, and Hispano-Moresque Wares. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 2 guineas.
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Greenough, Prof. J. B., and Kittredge, Prof. G. L. Select Orations of Cicero. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Grissom, Arthur. Beaux and Belles. Putnams. $1.
Harvey, C. M. Handbook of American Politics. St. Louis: I. Haas Publishing Co.
Henderson, Prof. C. R. The Development of Doctrine in the Epistles. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 50c.
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Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of Venice. Harper & Bros. $1.
Juraschek, Prof. Fr. von. Geographisch-Statistische Tabellen aller Länder. 1896. Frankfort: Heinrich Keller; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Knight, Prof. William. The Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. Vol. VI. Macmillan. $1.50.
Leibnitz, G. W. New Essays concerning Human Understanding. Macmillan. $3.25.
Locke, W. J. Some Women and a Man. F. T. Neely.
Lumholtz, Carl. Among Cannibals. Scribners. $2.50.
Lyall, Edna. The Autobiography of a Truth. Longmans, Green & Co. 30c.
Mach, Ernst. Popular Scientific Lectures. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. 35c.
Markoe, Ellis. My Lady's Heart: A Sketch. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Marryat, Florence. At Heart a Rake. Cassell Publishing Co. 50c.
Martin, Rev. W. P. A Cycle of Cathay; or, China, North and South. Fleming H. Revell Co. $2.
Mason, J. The Principles of Chess. 2d ed. London: Horace Cox.

Moulton, Prof. R. G. The Exodus. [Modern Reader's Bible.] Macmillan. 50c.
Mulchaney, Rev James. The Inspiration of History. Whittaker. $1.
Munroe, Kirk. Through Swamp and Glade. Scribners. $1 25.
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Nordau, Max. Soap Bubbles. F. T. Neely.
Pike, W. Through the Subarctic Forest. Edward Arnold.
Plehn, Prof. C. C. Introduction to Public Finance. Macmillan. $1.60.
Pollard, P. Cape of Storms: A Novel. Chicago and New York: The Echo.
Pope's Homer's Iliad. Books I., VI., XXII., and XXIV. American Book Co. 20c.
Practical Helps for Housewives. Rutherford, N. J.: Bergen Co. *Herald.*
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Sledd, Prof. B. F., and Gorrell, Prof. H. Madame de Lafayette's Princesse de Clèves. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70c.
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The Memoirs of Baron Thiébault. 2 vols. Macmillan.
The Publishers' Trade List Annual. 1896. New York: *The Publishers' Weekly.*
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Trowbridge, Prof. John. What is Electricity? Appletons.
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Waite, C A Silver Baron: A Novel. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 1, 1896.

The Week.

THE New York Life Insurance Company's canvass of the political situation in the several States, by means of 12,000 letters from its own agents and correspondents, is but the latest of many such extra-political attempts to read the signs of the times. Like all the others, it points to the undoubted and emphatic triumph of the honest-money forces. The reason for this unusual interest of business men in the campaign is on the surface. Not even the Presidential election of 1860 was felt to be so momentous for the business of the country as is that of this year. If business men, bankers, employers, investors, captains of industry —all men with a stake in the stability of the country in the shape of a piece of property—have been stirred into extraordinary activity in this political contest, it is only what the nature of the campaign has compelled them to. Their eagerness to forecast the result is only the eagerness of men who have to plan their business operations, their manufacture of goods, their purchase of raw materials, their loans, months ahead. The general picking up of business and industry since the Maine election, together with the accumulating evidence of the utter demoralization of the Democratic canvass, prophesy eloquently of the prosperity the country may hope to enjoy in case the Bryanite assaults on property and confidence are beaten back crushingly.

Senator Butler, chairman of the Populist national committee, admits that the supporters of Bryan have no hope that he will get any electoral votes from Maine to Ohio, and the most that he claims for Delaware and Maryland is that they are in the "probable" column; which is a virtual admission that he expects them to go for McKinley, as does every intelligent observer. It is thus clear, weeks before the election, that the Populist candidate for the Presidency stands no chance in all that part of the country between Canada on the east and north and the Alleghanies, and the Potomac River on the west and south. This region casts nearly one-third of all the electoral votes —128 out of 447—and every Democratic candidate for President since the Republican party was formed has received some of these votes, even the party collapse during the Greeley campaign leaving Maryland outside the wreck. Four years ago the Democratic candidate carried five of these eleven States, which cast 63 electoral votes out of his total of 277 in the whole country.

The way in which the silverites have hailed Bismarck's coming to their rescue shows how willing they are to forgive one of their deadliest enemies, even without a hint of repentance on his part. They are none too scrupulous about the version of his letter they have used, or about the interpretation they put upon it; but, supposing that they were beyond reproach in these respects, what have they to say of Bismarck's record as "a friend of silver"? Do they attach more weight to what a man says out of office than to what he does in office? Talk of our criminals of 1873, they are the veriest pigmies beside Bismarck. Our criminal demonetization of silver affected less than $10,000,000, while Bismarck, in the course of seven years, demonetized the gigantic sum of $270,000,000, of which he actually and brazenly melted down $160,000,000 and sold it as bullion. Moreover, as we have been so often told, he did this hand in glove with our own conspirators. It was all a part of the huge conspiracy of the money power throughout the world. Bismarck was chief conspirator. His wickedness and malignity have been exposed over and over again by silver-tongued orators. Yet they now greet him as a brother in the silver faith, never suspecting, as less simple-minded mortals would, that his present desire to see something done for silver is due to a thrifty wish to get a higher price for the $107,000,000 of the article his country still has on hand and for sale. Never was there such joy over one sinner that repenteth not.

The funniest part of all is the way in which Bismarck's allusions to the suffering "farmers," as compared with the "drones," are taken to fit our case exactly. Bismarck's farmers are the great monopolistic landowners, Count Kanitz and the other leaders of the Agrarian agitators. They are the men who have tried to get up a war with Russia in order to retain their agricultural monopoly, and have succeeded in getting up tariff wars with Russia and the United States as well. It is to their efforts that is due the despite done the American hog in Germany, of which our Western farmers have complained so bitterly. These monopolistic, anti-American princes, counts, herzogs, and obereonsistorialraths are the suddenly discovered friends and fellows of the downtrodden American farmer. And yet there are some serious and sad-eyed citizens who deny that there is anything comic in this campaign.

The irregularity of the "regular" Democrats of New York State makes it somewhat difficult to follow their movements. It is never safe to assume in the morning that they will have a candidate for Governor in the field in the afternoon. They nominated Thacher knowing perfectly well that he had spoken against silver a few months before. They say that they did so thinking he would recant and come out for silver. He first wrote a letter saying he would accept, but he could not recant, though he could vote for Bryan. This they declared would not do, whereupon he wrote a second letter saying he could not accept because he hated free silver so incurably. They say they were "buncoed" by Thacher's friends, and that Senator Hill was the chief of their deceivers. Their latest choice is Wilbur F. Porter, and it is asserted with much confidence that he stands squarely upon the Bryan platform and is in no danger of repudiating it. Mr. Hill is credited with the selection and Tammany is satisfied with it. There was some natural regret that Mr. Danforth was not chosen, for he seemed to have special qualifications for the place. He helped count the illegal election return which enabled the Hill machine to steal control of the State Senate. Hill would have been forced, by ordinary gratitude, to support his candidacy, and the possible peril of Hill's support of Mr. Griffin would thus have been warded off, while the Hill machine would have been held together for the grand smash-up which awaits it in November. It is now thought that Mr. Black's majority will range from 250,000 to 300,000.

Not least among the factors now at work to checkmate the free-coinage agitation is the advance in wheat. A movement of this kind, based on entirely natural causes, and not on a shortage of the crop in the United States, has long been recognized by expert judges as a political influence of the first importance. Especially is this true of the present political campaign. Senator Teller and his associates have for months been declaring to the farmers that, under the gold standard, the price of grain not only cannot rise, but is bound to fall continuously. Mr. Bryan has supplemented this declaration by his assurance to the farmers that the retirement of redundant currency into the Treasury, under the loan of February, is certain to depress still further the price of every product. What are these gentlemen to say, now that the price of wheat advances? Friday's market touched a price nearly 9 cents per bushel above this year's low level, and 8¾ cents above the ruling price of a year ago this week. It is true, the outlook for the crop in some of the wheat-producing States is less favorable than it was two months ago. But the deterioration nowhere reaches to actual disaster, and the advance in price is all the more signi-

ficant in that it comes at the very time when growing confidence in the defeat of the Chicago ticket has caused an unmistakable improvement in every branch of industry.

The intelligent farmer knows perfectly to-day that well-sustained credit in the trade community generally plays no small part in finding a profitable market for his wheat. If grain is thrown upon the market through the urgent necessities of sellers, it must go at a sacrifice. This happened, as every farmer knows, during the three months' panic of 1893, within which time the price of wheat dropped 13 cents per bushel. It happened during the panic of 1873, when wheat fell 20 cents or more within the same period; in 1857, when the price dropped 60 cents along with the collapse of credit. No one has ever questioned the connection between the break-down of business confidence in these periods and the forced sales of grain at heavy sacrifice. But if this is once admitted, it must equally be conceded that restoration of public confidence and credit to a normal basis means, all other things remaining equal, a recovery from such declines. Such a recovery has in fact been witnessed invariably, in a greater or less degree, when trade depression has found its remedy. That the overthrow of Mr. Bryan and his party would serve in this direction, cannot be reasonably doubted. Such an event will not correct the normal influence of increased or decreased supply—nothing can offset that. But it will certainly bring to the agricultural producer precisely the benefit which it brings to every industry throughout the country.

Added evidence that the farmers of the middle West differ not materially from their fellows in Maine and Vermont in their views on money obligations and national finances, is furnished in a unique poll conducted by a Chicago firm of farm-loan negotiators. It was unique in the fact that it was limited to farmers who are mortgageors—the class of voters to whom Bryan has looked most confidently for support, and for whose alleged benefit he would split the mortgage-paying dollar. The result is what might have been expected except by those who have been too ready to believe that the farmers, as a class, are willing to be dishonest by statute. On the books of the Chicago firm were the names of 4,000 farmers in Illinois, Minnesota, Nebraska, Iowa, and Missouri, who are borrowers of money secured by mortgages. Each was asked to indicate on a postal card how he intended to vote this fall, and, to make the poll a secret one, each was instructed not to place his name on the card. Of the 1,267 who have answered thus far, 979 will vote for McKinley, 186 for Bryan, 48 for Palmer, and 33 for the Prohibition nominee, 21 being undecided. Eighty out of each hundred of these mortgage-"afflicted" farmers declare for sound money. A much smaller ratio than this through the farming districts of the West would roll up a phenomenal majority against the Chicago repudiationist. Of the number declaring for McKinley, 49 write that four years ago they voted for Cleveland; the sound-money Democratic vote thus splitting about evenly between the Republican and the Indianapolis nominees.

In the *Journal* of Tuesday morning was a picture of Lord Russell and his wife sitting in a box listening to Mr. Black's speech at Carnegie Hall. Lord Russell was not there. The picture was an invention, a harmless one, perhaps, but still an invention. It is not too much to say that two-thirds of the newspaper pictures are of the same character—that is, lies about somebody or something. Most of these lies do not do direct injury to any one. They seldom represent anybody in a discreditable position. The way they are injurious is in leading people not to care whether anything they see in the papers is true or not—in diffusing, in fact, the general feeling that it makes no difference whether printed news matter ever describes what really happened. As this news matter is the chief reading of the people, the land is gradually getting covered with an atmosphere of unveracity which certainly must have some connection with our enormous number of business frauds and defalcations. Lying is at the bottom of nearly all, and a man who has read newspapers for some years must get into the way of thinking lying a small matter. How this matter progresses may be inferred from two things. Fifteen years ago the forgery of extracts from foreign prints would never have been dreamed of as a legitimate device by managers of political canvasses. During the last three Presidential campaigns it was freely used by the friends of a high tariff, and their committee rooms sent out great bundles of sayings of English newspapers which were manufactured on the spot. This year the Popocrats have gone into the business, and even Senator Teller gravely repeated on the stump a wholesale forgery of a passage in the report of the Royal Monetary Commission.

The Bryanites are still clinging to that London *Financial News* forgery, but their falsehoods about it are very clumsy. As originally put forth, the forgery purported to be an extract from the *Financial News* of March 10, 1896. When on August 13 that journal published an emphatic declaration that no such article had ever been printed by it, either on March 10 or at any other time, the Bryanites asserted that they would prove the genuineness of the extract, which had come to them "certified by a London clipping agency," by producing the copy of the paper from which it was clipped. A short time later they announced that all their efforts to obtain a copy had been fruitless, that "no newsdealer has it, and the publishers announce that it is out of print." The conclusion which they drew from this state of things was: "The *Financial News* claims a circulation of 1,500,000, which makes the sudden and complete disappearance of the issue of a certain date all the more mysterious and wonderful. The common mind immediately concludes the issue in question has been called in." We supposed that this settled the matter, but we are now in receipt of a broadside, sent out from the Bryan headquarters in Denver, in which it is asserted that the "Democratic headquarters has now in its possession a certified copy of the article in question, clipped from the London *Financial News* of April 30, 1894." No explanation is given of this sudden change of date, but as final "proof of the authenticity of the publication" it is added that "Senator Teller of Colorado states that more than a year ago he was shown and read a copy of the London *Financial News* of April 30, 1894, containing the identical editorial." It is not worth while to chase this forgery any further, for forgers who can shift their dates two or three years without offering any explanation can be trusted not to do much harm among intelligent people. The Bryanite broadside upon which we now find it, gives almost an entire page to the repeatedly exposed forgery of a letter from "J. Francis Forsythe, banker, of No. 11 Wall Street." There is no such banker in existence, and the letter is a stupid invention from beginning to end.

The demise of the daily newspaper which Croker established a few years ago in order to give himself and the other Tammany leaders the pleasure of seeing themselves spoken of in complimentary terms as statesmen and thinkers, ought to serve as a warning to other like adventurers into the field of journalism; but it will not. The *Mercury* began life as a Tammany organ and met its death as a silver organ, passing from public view in a perfect cloud of bad debts and bad language, everybody concerned accusing everybody else in any way connected with it of swindling and lying. What the total loss on the venture has been, from the beginning to its death, nobody will ever know, but it reaches many hundred thousands of dollars. Nobody was ever benefited a penny's worth by it, and a more foolish waste of money could not be imagined. Yet it is only one of an innumerable list of ventures of the same kind which have been made during the past half-century, and will continue doubtless to be made during the next half-century. There are several of them struggling with death at this moment, at great daily expense, in the hope of getting on a paying basis at least

for a sufficient time to be sold out to somebody who is rich enough and vain enough to wish to "control" a personal organ. The public cares nothing for them, save as a temporary amusement. If they have a fine page of "crime" each day, or some other sensational "feature" which is in its way more alluring than other papers have, they may keep up a struggling existence for a time; but unless there be a silver mine or some other equally inexhaustible fund behind them, their fate is certain. They must go down, as the *Mercury* has gone, leaving behind them a lot of unpaid bills, forcing a considerable number of old and new journalistic experts "on to the sidewalk," and sending some of their chief promoters to jail under charges of swindling and other offences.

The English press is rather angry with the American public for not taking the great dynamite conspiracy more seriously. But the trouble is that the conspirators do not seem to be serious people. The *Daily News* account says: "Tynan passed Saturday evening in the bar of the Hotel Folkestone discoursing on politics and drinking very freely. He offered to stand drinks to different persons who entered the bar, and it was remarked that he was spending money very lavishly. He retired to bed intoxicated about two in the morning." Now we would ask respectfully whether this is the way desperate conspirators, with awful secrets to keep and dreadful designs on foot, pass their time. Do they make themselves conspicuous and talk politics in hotel bars? Do they get drunk nightly and go to bed about two A. M.? This used not to be their custom. They used to be quiet and reticent, and to avoid observation. If they had a tunnel to make, as Tynan had, across one of the principal streets of London, in order to blow up a palace and two royal families, they kept as much as possible out of the way of the police, and avoided liquor like poison. The reason they avoided liquor was that persons in liquor blab their secrets, or, as our phrase is, give themselves away freely, and nobody knows this better than dynamiters. Drunkenness is speedy ruin for them. It is the readiness of Tynan and Bell to take too much and to exhibit themselves as important personages, which has spread doubts here as to their being as dangerous as our English friends would have us believe. It may be all as described, but if so they are a new variety of the assassin, and not a quarter as dreadful as the old one. Drunken conspirators, charged with extensive tunnel excavation for explosive purposes, would be something novel in the annals of crime.

The late Trades Union Congress at Edinburgh has attracted in other countries less attention than it deserves, but it has made a very important change in the workingman's movement. In the first place, it rigidly restricted the size and has sobered the character of the body, by admitting only 340 delegates who actually represented working unions. This has shut out mere orators or men mainly orators like John Burns, and collectivists like Tom Mann and Ben Tillet. In fact, hardly any of the old agitators made their appearance, and politics was kept strictly subordinated to business. The committee on Parliament reported against the Ministry on the subject of its insufficient conciliation bill, its timid amendments to the stewardship bill, the failure of its mining legislation. In fact, it intimated that it had not fulfilled its preëlection promises. As there is no chance of the Liberals coming in, however, for five or six years, there was not much use in comparing the parties. The President, Mr. Mallinson, an Edinburgh shoemaker, made a strongly anti-Socialist address. He said the Socialists were very good in pointing out evils, but did little to suggest remedies. The result was a decided change in the position of the body. In 1893 it voted by a good majority that no parliamentary candidates should receive support who were not collectivists, and at Norwich, later, that the land and money should be "nationalized"; and Keir Hardie carried an amendment that "all the instruments of production, of distribution, and of exchange" should be nationalized also. At Edinburgh this year, they refused to go further than the nationalization of the mines and railroads. The congress also refused to vote for the payment of the electoral expenses of labor candidates. It also demanded the democratic reform of public education, in the direction of "equality of opportunity" for everybody.

The poverty of the English clergy has lately been the subject of vast numbers of letters to the London newspapers, and of much public discussion. As to the fact of the serious cutting down of clerical livings, in consequence of the decline in the value of Church endowments, there can be no doubt. At the last Church congress it was stated by the Dean of Norwich that 400 beneficed clergymen of the Church of England receive less than $250 a year, 3,500 less than $500 a year, 7,000 less than $650 a year. Yet the standard of clerical education and style of life has not been lowered, nor can it be, apparently, in the Church of England, where every clergyman is still expected to live like a gentleman. His daughters, as some of them have sardonically remarked, are expected to marry only with the gentry, though provided with neither the means nor the opportunities to make such marriages at all common nowadays. No effective remedy emerges in the course of the discussion—the one most in favor being a large sustentation fund upon which the poorer clergy may draw. When asked why the parishioners themselves do not come to the rescue of their distressed rectors, as the dissenting churches support their ministers without any endowment whatever, the Church organs give a rather involved answer. Such methods will not do for the Church of England, it is intimated, which is bound to keep a clergyman even in remote and unprosperous districts, where little or no money for his salary would be forthcoming. This seems, however, only a roundabout way of saying that the poorer folk in England have not exactly that enthusiasm for the Church that they have for their chapels. Doubtless, too, the fact that they have never had to contribute to the support of the Church makes them a little slow about beginning. The suggestion is sometimes made that the enormous incomes of the higher clergy might well be cut down for the benefit of their poorer brethren; but this is based on a misunderstanding. The incidental expenses of the fatter bishoprics are so great that it often requires a private fortune in the incumbent to support the dignity of the position. It was Tait, we believe, who, after his elevation to Canterbury, said he was glad to meet the Queen, as she was the first person he had encountered since being enthroned who had not asked him for some money.

Sir Joseph Lister's presidential address at the opening meeting of the British Association on September 16 was entirely devoted to illustrations of "the interdependence of science and the healing art." Departing thus from the usual custom of giving a survey of the entire field of scientific investigation and discovery, he confined himself to his own specialty. Yet for that very reason his account of the way physical and biological research and chemical analysis had advanced hand in hand with surgery and medicine was all the more impressive. Beginning with the Röntgen rays, he expressed the opinion that as yet only a start had been made in the application of that remarkable discovery to the work of the surgeon and the physician. The labors of Pasteur and Koch and of Lister himself in the study of fermentation and infectious diseases and antiseptic treatment are an older story, yet their summing up in the address serves to mark in telling fashion the great gain to humanity which has resulted. Sir Joseph lent the weight of his authority to a hearty endorsement of the anti-toxine cure for diphtheria—that achievement of Behring and Kitasato which was one of the most masterly pieces of purely scientific work, without any accident about it, ever done. When we add the light thrown on the defensive apparatus of the human system against disease by the remarkable researches of the Russian Metchnikoff on the white corpuscles of the blood, we get a total borrowing of medicine from science which is striking enough when thus massed.

THE ORIGINAL CURRENCY-TINKERS.

It is not amiss to point out to that portion of the public which has been profiting by the "campaign of education," that although the subject of currency appears intricate, it is not really the subject, but the history of the subject, which makes it appear so; and its history is chiefly the history of the experiments made in currency by various governments. Governments have in all ages been trying to do something to currency, either because they thought they could make something by meddling with it, or because they thought they knew more about it than anybody else. In other words, they have been all trying to do every now and then the very thing which the Bryanites are trying to do. The Bryanites are simply engaged in what the monarchs have been engaged in since the earliest ages—seeing whether something could not be made for somebody, by either adulterating money or in some manner altering its value.

The monarchs saw that everybody wants money, that nothing can be done without money, that everybody either owes or is owed money, and it, of course, occurred to them at once that something might be made out of "handling" anything so generally necessary. They accordingly have always been doing what we call "monkeying" with it. Sometimes they clipped a little off of the coin. At another they put more alloy in it. At others they made the coin of different metal. At others they changed the name of the coin, or changed its value, or called it by a different name. At others, as in the case of Wood's Pence in Ireland, they sold somebody the privilege of making some kind of money to suit himself. They were able to do all this because they had the people "cornered" by the laws against counterfeiting. The counterfeiters were always dreadful fellows, and were hanged whenever caught, though they were only trying to do what the monarchs were doing themselves—that is, trying to make something by supplying people with a medium of exchange. As a general rule it is the account of these things which makes currency seem mysterious—how at one time so-and-so tried paper money, how so-and-so tried clipping and "sweating," how another tried adulterating, and so on, and what followed.

It is a melancholy chapter in human history, and we must not pretend that the people never fell in with the monarch's delusions, and that he always succeeded in "fooling" them, and that they did not join him in trying to fool somebody else. But for the most part tricks with the currency have been confined to the governments. If the matter were left to the plain people, currency would really, as far as gold and silver and copper are concerned, have hardly any history at all, because what is desired by the mass of plain people, who are honest and are trying to earn their bread by the sweat of their brow, is simply a standard of value, something with which to measure the exchangeable value of other things. If these people had always had their way, they would simply go from one metal to another, in search of stability, not in search of an advantage over somebody else. They would not say, "My case is a hard one; I am not so well off as I used to be. I had better cheat some one, and the easiest way to do it is to steal into the Government Office, and shorten the yard measure or diminish the quart pot." It is when men get power, not simply when they are hard up, that they think of these things.

Consequently what we are witnessing in this country is simply an attempt on the part of Democracy to do what monarchy used to do for its own benefit. Finding that monarchs had legal tender and made a good thing of it, it must have legal tender too. Finding that monarchs used to make money out of paper, or leather, or anything that came handy, Democracy must make money too. Finding that monarchs had given out that nothing could be money unless they put a stamp on it, and that whatever they stamped was money, no matter what it was called, Democracy declared that it must have the same powers and privileges. In fact, the Supreme Court put this into the heads of Democracy by the legal-tender decisions. The court said: These old kings always made money when they wanted it. They said it was all "shucks" to say that money was simply a measure of value, and that no one had any right to manufacture it for his own profit; what was the use of being a Government if you could not manufacture it? What was called "sovereignty" necessarily included the money-making power, and if you could not make money, where was the sovereignty?

The Bryanites have learned this lesson thoroughly. They want to be sovereigns and get hold of the sovereignty, not for the benefit of their health, but to make something to "square" things. The power, they say, has passed to the people, and the people are not going to spend it on "toys, or lust, or wine." They are going to use it to enable every man to grow rich. Poverty has lasted long enough, and so has the use of collateral in making loans. What the Government now calls money will be money, and the hateful custom of loans will disappear from the earth. Why borrow when you can make? When a citizen feels "short," far from going to a banker and cringing for "accommodation," he will go to a printing-office, and say what sum he needs. This would at once bring about that equality of conditions for which the world has been sighing for ages, and would abolish taxation as well as loans, and then every dealer could charge what he pleased for his wares. It would be all one to the consumer whether he paid fifty cents or one hundred dollars for a watermelon, or five cents or a million for a pair of trousers. The only monetary difficulty would be the difficulty of transportation; but even this could be got over by raising the denominations, and printing notes of one million or one billion.

THE FAILURE OF FUSION.

Five weeks before the election, the Populist candidate for Vice-President proclaims the failure of the fusion which was the sole hope of Bryan's success, and virtually gives up the fight. In a despatch to the *World* of Monday, Tom Watson, with that characteristic disregard of the conventionalities which makes him so entertaining a public character, admits the utter collapse of the campaign for free coinage, and shows why this result was the inevitable consequence of the course that has been pursued.

A new political organization can be built up to success only by its devotion to some principle which attracts men who had been adherents of other parties until it includes a majority of the voters. This was the way in which the Republican party grew into complete dominance. Its founders made opposition to the further extension of slavery its one great aim, and all who sympathized with that aim were impelled to support the Republican party as the only way of accomplishing the desired result. Watson evidently believes that this is the sole way of making a new idea prevail, and he is quite right about it—although, of course, not every new idea which is pushed in this legitimate manner will succeed. The other way of building up a new political organization is by trades with existing parties or sections of parties. This was what the Greenback managers attempted when their idea had secured a wide vogue, nearly twenty years ago. Watson thus describes the result:

> "The Greenback party represented substantially the same principles for which Populism now stands. Its growth was sudden and colossal; its death was swift and sure. Springing up as a protest against both the old parties, its power increased as long as it kept the straight middle course and compromised none of its principles. The moment it began to fuse with the old parties and to put faith in the pledges of its political foes, it fell, never to rise again."

The Populist candidate for Vice-President declares that "Populism was but a second attempt to throw off the evil domination of the two old parties"; that "its cardinal policy was the union between South and West"; and that "the one thing absolutely necessary to the completeness of this union was that Populists should steer clear of both the old parties." What has actually happened this year has been the very opposite of this policy. The Democrats at Chicago, according to Watson, "purloined our platform, and nominated for the first place on the ticket a brilliant young man whose record and creed were more Populist than Democratic," while for second place a

man was named of whom most of the delegates had not heard before, and of whom "the more they learned after getting home, the greater was their inclination softly to swear." Shrewd Democratic managers arranged a "deal" with certain Populist leaders of the West before the meeting of the Populist national convention, by which "the Populists were to have the local offices, and the Democrats the national vote." But the convention, by nominating a Populist for Vice-President in advance of the Presidential nomination, served "notice that, in the proposed partnership between Democracy and Populism, Populism intended to be one of the partners." Nevertheless, Chairman Jones of the Democratic national committee concealed Bryan's telegram that he would not accept a Populist nomination unless Sewall were also nominated, and permitted the nomination of Bryan and Watson without protest; the Populists believing that the Democrats would meet them on half-way ground, withdraw Sewall, and unite the silver forces of both parties by naming a representative of both on the national ticket.

Watson believes that, "if the Democratic managers had recognized the necessary conditions to complete political union and accepted the compromise we offered, the fight would now be won." But a very different policy was pursued:

"Instead of meeting the Populists half-way and making them feel a hearty interest in Democratic success, they did everything possible to dissatisfy, discourage, and arouse the suspicions of the very men whose votes were essential to victory. Intent upon destroying Populism at the South and absorbing it at the West, the Democratic managers made the mistake of supposing that any deal they could arrange with our 'leaders' would be cheerfully supported by the rank and file. Hence fusion has become a sort of craze, like the chewing-gum habit, and there has been such a swapping and trading around of votes and offices as was never seen before. From the county tickets clear on up to the Presidency, the science of politics has been reduced to the good old business rule of 'How much have you got?' and 'What will you take?'"

Watson describes the absurdities to which this policy has led, among them that "in one State of this great and glorious Union the fusion goes half the distance between Populists and Republicans, and the other half between Populists and Democrats." The results of all this sacrificing of principles and trading of expected offices are thus graphically stated:

"Fusions of this kind are enough to give the man in the moon the jumps. As a grave-digger for Populism, fusion with Sewall on the ticket may as well be recognized as a distinct success. If not disturbed in his work, the digger will have the hole ready by the time the funeral procession arrives.

"I respectfully warn Mr. Chairman Jones of the danger Mr. Bryan is in. The Populist voters are dissatisfied and suspicious. They feel instinctively that the fusion policy which compels them to vote for Sewall is the beginning of the end of the People's party. They feel that the principles they love are being used as political merchandise, and that the Populist vote is being auctioned off to the highest bidder. They suspect that Populism has been bought and paid for, and is now being delivered to those who bought it. Is the full Populist vote necessary to Mr. Bryan's election? If so, the sooner Mr. Jones realizes that it cannot be had under any arrangement which compels the Populists to make a humiliating surrender of their principles in voting for Sewall electors, the better it will be for our campaign. Under present conditions Mr. Bryan cannot get the full Populist vote.

"Populist voters are men who have educated themselves on political topics. They will not stultify themselves by voting against their convictions. They will not vote for a man who, if Mr. Bryan dies, will make us another President after the fashion of Grover Cleveland. They may not be able to break up the fusion deal, but they can stay at home."

Sewall will not get off the ticket. He took occasion to assure the Bryan Democrats in Boston on Friday night that he was "still on the ticket," and that "you will have a nominee for Vice-President during this campaign, and he will not decline." Sewall believes, as he declared a few days ago, that "there could be no surer way of making Bryan's defeat certain" than his withdrawal, and he is probably right. There would then be no pretence of Democracy about the so-called Democratic ticket, since Bryan's "record and creed," as Watson says, "were more Populist than Democratic"—although Sewall, the believer in high protection, is not much of a Democrat himself.

The fusionists thus approach election in a state of utter demoralization, from which recovery is impossible. Each of the parties which entered into the fusion is disgusted with the other, and hundreds of thousands whose votes were counted upon by the traders will stay away from the polls. The result will thus prove a deserved defeat of those who sacrificed principle in the delirium of a surrender to demagogism.

THE ENGLISH HUMILIATION.

THE BERLIN TREATY.

"The Sublime Porte undertakes to carry out, without further delay, the improvements and reforms demanded by local requirements in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and to guarantee their security against the Circassians and Kurds. It will periodically make known the steps taken to this effect to the Powers, who will superintend their application."

THE ANGLO-TURKISH CONVENTION.

"In return, his Imperial Majesty promises to England to introduce necessary reforms, to be agreed upon later between the two Powers, into the government and for the protection of the Christians and other subjects of the Porte in these territories; and, moreover, to enable England to make necessary provision for executing her engagements, his Imperial Majesty the Sultan further consents to assign the island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by England."

We place at the head of this article a section of the Treaty of Berlin, and one of the Anglo-Turkish Convention concluded between England and Turkey before the Treaty of Berlin. It will be seen that the Porte is, under the treaty, bound to all the signatory Powers to reform "without further delay," and to report periodically in detail what it is doing. Under the convention with England concluded by Disraeli and Lord Salisbury, the Sultan agrees separately with England to do the same thing, in return for protection promised him by England, and, to help England in preparing for this protection, assigns her the island of Cyprus. As one Englishman has remarked: "We have got the island of Cyprus, but the Armenians are mostly dead."

It will be seen from this that England has no more solemn engagement than her engagement to protect the Armenians and enforce reforms generally in the Turkish Empire. In fact, she has no engagement half so solemn. She put no ifs or buts into it. Mr. Gladstone underwent gross abuse at the hands of the Conservatives for making peace with the Boers after Majuba Hill, and for not rescuing Gordon; but if the worst construction that could be put on his conduct in these matters were true, his offences would be peccadilloes compared with the attitude now occupied by the Government with regard to the Christian population of Turkey. His very weakness was stronger than Lord Salisbury's strength. He fought two battles with the Boers, and tried to get to Khartum, merely for humanity and glory, but Lord Salisbury is allowing the greatest savage in Christendom to ridicule and violate under his nose the very agreement which he came home and told the English people was "peace with honor." There is peace, certainly, but, shades of Cromwell and Pitt! what about the honor?

The excitement in England, and in fact all over Europe, is growing every day. An immense meeting was addressed by Mr. Gladstone in Liverpool on Thursday, and his voice rang as clearly for justice as it did at the time of the Bulgarian massacres twenty years ago, when, too, the Conservatives were trying to poohpooh them. Part of the action he proposes to take against "the great assassin" is to withdraw the British Ambassador from Constantinople. Withdrawing an ambassador is the equivalent of "cutting" in private life; but any one who proposed simply to "cut" an assassin would be laughed at. The withdrawal of the British Ambassador, unless it were a preliminary to war, would probably delight the Sultan, as it would diminish the number of his critics, and he would go on killing with renewed vigor. It is just to Mr. Gladstone to say that he explicitly means it to be a preliminary to war.

From his own coreligionists the Sultan would meet with no disapproval. The only fault they probably find with his course is his tardiness. They think he ought to have killed all the Christians long ago. In fact, Europe, after fighting and praying against the Turk for four hundred years, is looking calmly on while he perpetrates horrors from which his predecessor, who captured Constantinople in 1453, would have recoiled and did recoil. We think with a shudder of the

massacre of St. Bartholomew—that is, the slaughter of his own subjects by a sovereign on account of their religion, three hundred years ago. We are witnessing to-day precisely the same thing, on a scale compared to which St. Bartholomew seems a mere street riot. Nothing like what is now going on in Turkey has happened since Tamerlane. It far outdoes the Greek horrors, for the Greeks resisted, arms in hand, and died fighting and killing their tyrants. The present victims fall like sheep and oxen, and nearly a thousand have fallen for every Greek who fell. It is something appalling when one thinks of it as occurring in the presence of Christian Europe, which has 5,000,000 of men under arms, and which could crush Turkey like an egg-shell.

What Lord Salisbury expects us to believe is, that the other Powers would go to war with him if he were to say that he made no pretence to possess and keep Constantinople or any portion of Turkey; that if he occupied any portion of it, it would be held in trust for united Europe and would be disposed of by general agreement, but that he could not stand by quietly in the presence of these horrors any longer; that he must stop wholesale massacre of unarmed men, women, and children; that monsters could not be permitted to go unchecked in the nineteenth century; that, come what might, Great Britain would stop wholesale murder. We do not believe it. But if any Power chose to go to war for such a reason, an English Minister ought to be able to answer, Let war come, and God defend the right. In a war like this man would, in the highest sense, die for man. In the long list of fratricidal contests in which our race has been engaged, there was not one which could be so boldly called a just war. A really great Minister, a man of firmness and courage, would not hesitate long in reaching such a decision. The foolish message of the Emperor of Germany to Paul Krüger seems a small matter, and yet it called out a fleet in battle array.

Mr. Gladstone does well to mention striking occasions on which the Powers acted alone against Turkey—Russia three times within the present century: once in 1828, once in 1853, and once in 1877, every time on behalf of oppressed Christians. France acted alone in 1840, when, for a similar purpose, she landed a force in Syria, and procured there most important reforms. England has interfered also with armed force twice within the century, but both times on behalf of the Turks. The battle of Navarino, fought in behalf of the Greeks in 1827, when the Turkish fleet was destroyed, was really a mistake wrought by the Admiral. The ministry at home condemned his action, as "an untoward event," though it had the good result of bringing the Greek war to an end. But the Crimean war and the demonstration of 1878 were both undertaken on behalf of Turkey—that is, for the purpose of perpetuating her domination in the Christian provinces; and this support of Turkey began when Russia began to push eastward. In other words, the Turkish misrule has been bolstered up in order to preserve India from an infinitely remote danger.

In 1878 Disraeli and Lord Salisbury had no hesitation whatever about acting alone. They never asked what France or Germany would do. They prepared to fight Russia on behalf of the Turk, and even brought troops from India for that purpose, and then they pretended they had agreed to defend Turkey against further attacks solely on condition that she would reform. She has never in twenty years since made the slightest attempt at reform, unless reforming people means cutting off their heads. She has in this way reformed nearly the entire Armenian nation. Lord Salisbury now says that this promise of Turkey's was illusory, that it cannot be enforced, and that the pledge of Cyprus was of no value, or was, in other words, simply a bit of Disraeli's charlatanry.

There can be little doubt that interference now is not a whit more dangerous than in 1878, or so dangerous. Russia is not armed and in the field as she was in 1878. She has three powerful States, Rumania, Servia, and Bulgaria, to say nothing of Greece, on her road, which would be unwilling to see her enter Constantinople. She has not now, as she had in 1877, an army flushed with victory and generals of proved ability and experience. In other words, she is much less ready for war on land than she was twenty years ago. Moreover, the English fleet is much larger and stronger than it was then. It is supposed to be a match for all the other navies in the world combined. The Turkish problem is mainly a naval one, and it is not at all sure that if England were evidently bent on solving it, she would not have the assistance of the Italian and American fleets.

The real trouble here is plainly the character of the Prime Minister. He is an accomplished writer and talker, a critic bred to say sharp things in the *Saturday Review*. But he is not the man "to face a lie in arms." He would far sooner let it run, and thank God he was well rid of a knave. He shrinks from action, but gives always a clever account of the reasons why he shrank. Not one bold or energetic measure has ever marked any of his administrations excepting the locking up of Irishmen. His reluctance to act, in fact, drew on him from Bismarck at Berlin the scathing remark that he was "a wooden lath painted to look like iron."

A NEW WRONG TO WRITERS.

AUTHORS have long and justly complained of the outrages which they have had to suffer at the hands of critics. Their list of grievances has been often recited. Of course, no review of a book can have the slightest effect upon its sale, or upon the reputation of its writer. That is agreed, to start with. Only, if the critics will go on deceiving themselves into thinking that they are informing and directing the public taste, why in the name of the nine muses will they not do their work better? Why do they not once in a while produce as good a review as the author himself could write with ease? Reviews are horribly dull as a rule. This is a serious injustice to writers, since the public infers that if their works have such a stupefying effect on a critic who has carefully read them, purchasers in search of something to keep an elderly gentleman awake in the bosom of his family had better look elsewhere. But that is just it—the critics do not carefully read the books they write about. "Settling Comte unread" is an old trick of theirs.

As we say, these are all old and well-known charges of the writing tribe against the reviewing tribe. Judge, then, the surprise of patient critics, anxious to please, at learning now that their greatest offence consists in writing readable reviews, filled with all manner of brilliant things culled from the book under notice. So they are informed by an aggrieved English author, who calls upon the Authors' Society to take the field against all critics who write interesting reviews starred with witty sayings from the writer they are considering. The reason is plain. "A review which picks out and publishes all the 'plums,' obviously makes it unnecessary for the reader to buy the book." Why should a man pay $2 for what he can get the quintessence of for 10 cents? Any review, in fact, which evinces a low desire to produce interesting "copy" is on its face suspicious. It is basely written (insinuates the injured author) wholly for the benefit of the paper in which it appears, and is cruelly indifferent to the well-being of either author or publisher. Is it not well known that "many brilliant people derive almost their entire knowledge of current literature from extracts in so-called reviews"? It needs no argument, then, to show that if there were no such extracts, and if reviews were decorously stupid, the sale of books would be much increased.

A literary outrage so novel as the one thus exposed naturally requires a considerable readjustment of the traditional ideas about writers and reviewers and their relation to each other. Are we, then, no longer to believe in the great comfort of being an unpopular author? We thought all true geniuses were ambitious to belong to such a "Society of Unsuccessful Authors" as Daudet, Zola, and the Goncourts made up. What delight they found in not being read! What a joke it was on their publishers to be unable to get rid of even a first edition of 800 copies! As for the critics, if they had

said a good word for any one of the society, the others would have disowned him and cut him dead. It was a trying moment for Daudet—that night when he had to confess that his last novel had gone into a second edition. The startled and pained glances of his fellow-artists for art's sake were hard to bear. What they would have done when even the reviewers began to praise, one can imagine if their own novels had not begun to catch favorable breezes about the same time.

Then there is also the contempt for critics which all rising authors feel; is there something hollow about that too? Brilliant people who derive their knowledge from writers themselves, know that nothing helps the sale of a book like a sound damning of it in the critical journals. If an author can only get the authorities to say that he is an ignorant young fool, an absurd creature, an imitator or plagiarist, his fortune is made. The critic's worst is the author's best. Non-committal book-notices, faint praise, indifference—these are all bad; but a hearty cuffing down stairs and a rousing kick into the streets fill the writer's cup to overflowing. So at least the brilliant people who repeat what writers tell them have been in the habit of saying. But what are we to think when the opinion is boldly advanced, within earshot of the Authors' Society, that if reviews are not very important in helping the sale of a book, they are "potent in hindering it"?

It is clear enough, however, that the duties of a reviewer under the new order of things will be arduous in the extreme. He will have to titillate the reader's appetite without gratifying it, excite his curiosity without satisfying it, be by turns provoking, alluring, suggestive, inflaming, and yet never by any chance reveal the first thing about the author's style, plot, or *Tendenz*. He must devise a lifeless review which will yet make people furious to buy the book he is writing about. Otherwise he will fail of his chief end in life, which is, of course, to write a criticism that will be satisfactory in all respects to the author criticised.

A critic's first moving about in such a world half realized must naturally be rather clumsy and blundering; and so indulgence will have to be asked for the early specimens of the new style of reviewing. The plunge must be made, however, and readers be accustomed to book-notices which will run something like the following:

"We congratulate Messrs. Shelf & Counter on the handsome form in which they have brought out 'Stranger than Truth.' The unique color-scheme of the binding we should take pleasure in describing did we not fear it might keep a single one of our readers from buying and seeing for himself. As for the novel itself, we stake our critical reputation on the assertion that the plot is one which it would be little short of criminal to betray by so much as a hint, that there is a situation on p. 117 which will make the sourest reader laugh in spite of himself, that two epigrams occur in one paragraph (p. 43) which would be enough to make the fame of a writer less distinguished than Mr. Airy Nothing, and that those who make a practice of avoiding the tenderest and most genuine pathos had better skip the whole of chapter xiii. With these citations we leave the book (price $1.75) to our readers' undisturbed enjoyment, and if our critical remarks upon it prove the means of carrying it into one home where it otherwise might not have gone, we shall ask no other or more grateful reward."

FOURTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF CRIMINAL ANTHROPOLOGY.

BRIEG, September 1, 1896.

THE "criminal anthropologists" met in Geneva August 25 to 29. The meeting was not very well attended. As usual with these congresses for criminology, it was largely made up of Italians and Frenchmen, for, as everybody now knows, the subject of criminal anthropology first came forward with a claim to recognition through the work of the Italian school; and the most vigorous rivals of the Italians—opponents and critics of their results—have been French. Indeed, it would be difficult to find men of standing in other countries, except, perhaps, Belgium and Switzerland, who would admit that there is, strictly speaking, a science of criminal anthropology at all. The earlier congresses, held in Rome, Paris, and Brussels, have indeed been largely occupied with controversies over the very claim of the topic to scientific place, and to the clearing up of a workable concept in the minds of its advocates.

The progress of the topic has been, however, it seems to the present writer, continuous from the time that Lombroso brought out his first books; and this progress has been due rather to the discussions of the concept of criminology and of the method of investigation than to the actual value of the works so far printed. There is to-day a series of clearly formulated problems, all dealing with the criminal, and the tendency and direction of this congress was to put them in clearer light. Lombroso himself, while showing that lamentable weakness known as hasty generalization, has also shown a great merit—scientific "accommodation." He has remained at the head of the school by incorporating into his books, which have appeared in startling succession, points of view which modified his own most essentially. He began with his theory of atavism; then accepted Ferri's classification of criminals, although it deprived the theory of atavism of perhaps more than half of its range of application; then proved equally hospitable to the theory of "degeneration"; and now, at the fourth congress, applauds the proposition of the men who are seeking to substitute a criminal and social psychology for the anthropology with which he (Lombroso) started out. We cannot agree with those who sneer at a man of such flexibility, though it is not a virtue of a very high order. There can be no doubt that the setting of the problem of the criminal in the more adequate form which brings its elements into relation to each other (the factors of heredity known as atavism and degenerescence, and with them the factors due to the social environment, as the newer researches are endeavoring to find them out), got its first start from the work of Lombroso. Nor can we doubt that the *Gebiet* now marked out, and covered perhaps more adequately by the word "criminology," is destined to be one day really scientifically and fruitfully worked.

The congress was presided over by M. Ladame of Geneva, and was opened by the President of the Swiss Republic with a sensible speech. The meetings were well arranged, not too crowded; and the discussions were extended, oratorical, and interesting. I shall cite a few of the more important papers, more to show what seems to be the way of progress in this field than actually, in the space I have, to make an adequate note of the proceedings.

Lombroso's account of the recent history of criminal anthropology will be found by readers of the "Proceedings" to show his receptivity to newer points of view of which I spoke above. The résumé which he had in the *Popular Science Monthly* last year might be looked up for an account of the earlier phases of the movement, and the part played in it by Lombroso. Signor Ferri, who speaks as a jurist (being a Roman Senator as well as an anthropologist), presented what he called an "invitation" to the congress to a new programme; *i. e.*, he urged the consideration of the relation of "temperament" to crime. His paper was an attempt to show that too much effort had been given to minute questions, such as physical "stigmates," mental aberrations, alcoholism, etc., etc, and that the criminal should be considered *as a whole*, from the point of view of his temperament. The character of the audience may be inferred from the fact that such vague and general sayings as this, presented in loud tones and with genuine southern eloquence, carried such applause and begot such enthusiasm as no others in all the sessions, except, perhaps, other speeches of Ferri's. It is, of course, precisely what would be subversive of all that has been done in the way of exact research into special topics, and open all the vials of scorn which the psychologists and jurists are just beginning to close up, thus to chase generalities like "temperament." If there is one topic which psychology has not made much clearer since Galen, it is that of temperament. And after getting some sort of theory of temperament from psychology, the further difficult proposition would have to be made out that the social sense and the moral sense vary in some regular way with temperament. Possibly, on the contrary, we shall have to wait for a doctrine of temperament until criminology makes out its classifications of men with reference to the development of their social and ethical sense. But, at any rate, Ferri, the Roman orator, was the hero of the congress, and, as I said above, if Lombroso were not so broad-minded in his attitude to his disciples, he might fear for the leadership of the school.

A much abler and very judicious, calm, and penetrating paper was that by M. Dalamagne of Brussels on "Degenerescence and Criminality." He aimed to determine the concept of degeneration from biological and social data, to decide what part its signs or "stigmates," of physical, mental, and social sorts, should play in the theory of it; then to do the same for the concept of criminality; and, finally, to bring the two concepts into relation to each other. The emphasis which he laid on the social, as over against the physical stigmates of the Italian school, makes his paper notable.

A lively discussion also followed the paper on "Anarchism" by Van Hamel of Amsterdam. The discussion was very conservative from a legal point of view, although the author classified the professed anarchist as a *criminel-né*. In the discussion the point was raised that such a classification of the anarchist tended to produce anarchists, since it removed the responsibility of such criminals, opened the door to the plea of determinism, and so paralyzed the arm of law. The Italians had no trouble in disposing of this criticism by citing the greater effectiveness and humanity which have followed in the treatment of the insane since the types of insanity were more clearly made out and the *aliéné-né*, so to speak, treated as such.

Apart from general topics, of which those cited above may be considered fair examples, this congress paid much attention to practical questions. Two forenoon sessions were devoted respectively to *Applications légales* and *Applications administratives*. In these practical matters the warmest discussion was excited by M. Legrain's paper on "Alcoholism and Degeneration." He has followed through four generations, in 215 families, the effects of drink; and if his statistics of various forms of "degeneration"—seen in convulsions, epilepsy, hysteria, meningitis, high infant mortality, together with idiots, imbeciles, and insane persons—are reliable, the paper will be a veritable prohibition campaign document, as well as a contribution to social statistics. In the discussion which followed, a strong party made itself heard in favor of absolute personal abstinence from all alcoholic beverages, and of stringent legal restrictions, led by the well-known psychologist Prof. Forel of Zurich and by M. Legrain. This topic got some of its interest, no doubt, from the recent congress devoted to it at Basle, which has been much talked of in the Swiss papers. The statistics of national drunkenness, which were so impressively urged at Basle, came up again in Geneva, and this time with the practical question whether the congress—in view of the connection long ago made out between alcoholism and crime—should not declare itself officially on the subject. Forel gave some new and startling figures bearing on this relation between drink and crime. The outcome was that the congress adopted unanimously, though in the closing session, which was not largely attended, a resolution declaring it to be the business of the congress to further restrictive legislation of a stringent kind in all countries.* In this connection it may be of interest to refer to some "curves of drink" exhibited in the department of "Science and Education" in the National Exposition at Geneva, showing the relative amount consumed per capita per annum of various beverages in a dozen civilized countries. France and Italy are the most vinous; and France is, on the whole, the most alcoholic country. As to beer, Belgium is first; England, second; Germany, third; and the United States, fourth—a position which we have reached by a rapid advance since 1840, when we were at the very bottom of the list.

The acute opposition which showed itself so many times between the Italian anthropologists and the party which may be called psychological, and which grew so wearisome in this as in the earlier congresses, came to a lively issue on the third day, when a Russian delegate read a paper on the relation of criminal anthropology and law, in which he declared there was no relation because there was no such thing as criminal anthropology. This precipitated, of course, all the wrath of the Italians, and their retorts were as direct as those of the opposition, of whom one declared that he had asked the opinion of one of the greatest German neurologists (giving the name) as to the value of the work of Lombroso, and had got the reply that Lombroso himself was undoubtedly a degenerate. Such remarks as this, and such personal controversy as a whole, made the gathering very ridiculous. But, on the other side, who can wonder at the scorn of the psychologists and neurologists when papers are read on the peculiar character of the criminal's cerebral texture and the meaning of the wrinkles in the palm of his hand?

This will, no doubt, suffice to give the reader a sufficiently good idea of what was the subject-matter of this fourth congress. As to its personnel, it is interesting to know that all the following countries had official delegations: Argentine, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Denmark, Great Britain, Hungary, Japan, Holland, Portugal, Rumania, Russia, Italy (city of Alessandria), Switzerland (city of Berne).

From the United States there were only two "adherents" on the list of members. The next congress is to be held at The Hague (on the invitation of the Dutch Government conveyed through the Department of Justice) in 1901—this rather than in Paris in connection with the Universal Exposition of 1900, which was the alternative proposition. Comparing the two congresses of this summer—that of Psychology and this of Criminal Anthropology—the former has abundant reason to congratulate itself. J. M. B.

* In effect, I was not at this meeting and so follow the newspaper reports.

A NEW CHAPTER IN GERMAN ROMANTICISM.

CAMBRIDGE, September 13, 1896.

PROF. ERWIN ROHDE, the distinguished classical philologist, has done a good service to students of German civilization by recently publishing, from manuscripts preserved in the Heidelberg University Library, the letters relating to one of the strangest and saddest episodes in the history of Romanticism—the love tragedy which ended in the suicide of Karoline von Günderode.

Karoline von Günderode was a worthy representative of that brilliant activity displayed by women in the higher concerns of life which gave to German culture of the beginning of the nineteenth century such a decidedly feminine tinge. If she lacked the vivacity of her friend Bettina Brentano, she also lacked her coquettishness and theatrical mannerism. If she did not have the keenness of analysis possessed by Rahel Varnhagen, she was also free from Rahel's bent for fantastic and hair-splitting speculation. And to both Bettina and Rahel she was superior in sincerity of feeling, depth of passion, and true womanly charm. She was a genuine poet, not so much in what she wrote for the public ear (although her poems were admired even by Goethe) as in her every-day thoughts, her letters to friends, her whole manner of life. It is not surprising that her refined beauty and aristocratic bearing should have attracted the best men of her time. Savigny, the great jurist, devoted to her years of chivalric friendship. Clemens Brentano, editor of the 'Wunderhorn,' went into raptures over her. No man, however, understood her so well or stirred her so deeply as the one who was to lead her to her own destruction, namely, Friedrich Creuzer, the famous author of the 'Symbolik.'

Creuzer, also, is a typical figure of the period preceding the national catastrophe of 1806, a period which was as devoid of moral vigor as it was rich in æsthetic cultivation. As we see him in his public activity, in his far-reaching studies on the religion of the ancient Greeks, in his petty quarrels with scientific opponents, he appears as both a pathfinder and a perverter of sound methods of historical investigation; as a strange mixture of noble inspirations and selfish conduct, of mystic intuition and scholastic pedantry; as a priest of humanity and at the same time as a vain professor. One must keep all these conflicting qualities of his in mind in order to understand how his relations to Karoline von Günderode came to be what they were.

When Creuzer, in the spring of 1804, entered upon his Heidelberg professorship, he was thirty-three years old; for half a decade he had been united in childless marriage to a widow, thirteen years his senior. Is it surprising that when, on a beautiful August day of the same year, on the terrace of Heidelberg castle, he met Karoline von Günderode for the first time, he should have experienced an inner revolution such as Werther underwent when he for the first time saw Lotte? He feels at once that from now on there are only two possibilities: "Heaven or death; there is no mean between the two." He flies into the solitude of the forests in order to read her letters, and when he looks up to the sky from her pages, it seems to him as though he were looking into the eyes of his beloved. He hides her poems on his shelves in order to enjoy them alone in the stillness of the night. And at last—two months after the first meeting—he informs his wife "that he can no longer consider her as his wife, in fact, has never considered her as such, but that he will for ever cherish grateful feelings towards her"; whereupon the wife, in a fit of sudden magnanimity, declares that she approves of his sentiment, renounces her claims on him, and desires to be in future nothing but an older sister to him. In short, it seems as though the whole affair were to end in happy romantic fashion: husband and wife will peacefully separate and another union be established. Or, to adopt Creuzer's own inimitable phraseology, the wife will stay in the house "as mother, as the manager of the household," while the loved one will bring "freedom and poetry" into the husband's life—exactly the same situation, by the way, which forms the basis of the tragic conflict in one of the most remarkable realistic dramas of our own time, Gerhart Hauptmann's "Einsame Menschen."

In Creuzer's and Karoline's case, as in the modern drama, the serenity of those paradisaic dreams soon gives way to gloomy forebodings. Sophie, the wife, retracts her resignation; she is ready to leave the house, but in despair only, not in good part; she is not willing to tolerate Karoline by her side. And Creuzer, impulsive as always, and, theoretically at least, of a chivalrous frame of mind, realizes at once that he must not force his wife's actions; he is unwilling, in his own words, "to demand a human sacrifice." Recognizing his duty towards his wife so clearly, one would think that he must see with equal clearness his duty towards Karoline: a speedy and complete rupture of their relations seems imperative. But, far from feeling this, Creuzer is now all the more eager to retain Karoline's love. He speaks with the utmost disdain of

the "abyss of *Bürgerlichkeit*" which forbids a married man to think of other women. He talks of dying with Karoline. He beseeches her not to abandon his "beautiful soul." "I am like one of those wooden Silenus figures in Plato's 'Symposium' which, mean in themselves, serve as cases for beautiful images of gods enclosed in them. The divine image encased in my poor body is my soul, which was capable of feeling your worth." He compares Karoline to Raphael's "Poesy"; he glorifies her as the Virgin Mary hovering in eternal youth and freedom above the clouds:

"I often appear to myself criminal in wishing to draw you down into this domestic world, when I see how you, a Virgin, hover gloriously in the splendor of the stars, untouched by the burdens of life. And yet, when I think how once it was your own will to descend into this world of mine, then I rejoice again in the consciousness of my courage to die with you."

The result of all this reckless playing with fire is another meeting of the lovers at Frankfort, Karoline's residence. And this meeting, of course, gives added violence to the flame of passion. Karoline appears from now on in Creuzer's letters mostly under symbolic names, "The Friend," "The Saint," "Poesy," while his wife, to denote the hopeless philistinism of her character, receives the nickname "The Good-Natured One"; and a separation from her, or rather lamentations over the impossibility of a separation from her, become again the burden of Creuzer's talk:

"Is it right, or is it cruel, that a woman who has lived through the natural course of her history in the love of her first husband, in children who adore her, in children's children whom she is looking forward to—that this woman should insist that a young man is to find the aim of his life in brightening and warming a little, like a wintry sun, the late autumn and November days of her existence? It is right! He might have known it in advance. Still, my heart, still! It is right! Oh, if she only could be a little large-minded—or thoroughly bad! But this agonizing good-nature!"

It is not quite clear what ripened in Sophie for a second time the decision to give way to her favored rival. Enough that, in September, 1805, she took this decision: she wrote to Karoline sanctioning her relation with Creuzer, and expressing the hope that he soon might be entirely hers. Creuzer on his part even goes so far as to address Karoline as his "beloved wife"; he speaks of the formal dissolution of his marriage as soon to be brought about; he reports a plan to accept a professorship at the University of Moscow so as to spare his young bride the difficulties of living with him in the old surroundings: all the clouds seem to be chased away, the happiness of the lovers seems assured. All of a sudden there is a change in the tone of Creuzer's letters. He begins to feel that Karoline is too good for him, that he does not deserve her; he mentions financial difficulties that stand in the way of a speedy marriage; he seems to think that Karoline has no natural taste for the duties of a housewife; he has heard a rumor that Karoline does not intend to live with him as a wife, but plans to accompany him to Russia in men's clothes as a student friend; he has talked with his friend Savigny about the matter, who has convinced him that a separation from Sophie would be a moral wrong. In brief, only two months after his wife has expressed her willingness to release him, he has practically broken off with Karoline; and it is Karoline, not Sophie, who sends him the following letter of resignation:

"My whole life remains for ever consecrated to thee, beloved sweet friend. Nor time nor circumstance shall step between us. The loss of thy love I should not be able to bear. Promise me never to leave me. O life of my life, do not leave my soul.—See, I feel freer and purer since I have renounced all earthly hope. Into hallowed melancholy has the violent grief been dissolved. Fate is conquered. Thou art mine, above all fate. Nothing can take thee from me, since I have won thee in such a manner.—Try to gain Sophie's confidence. Tell her that we have resigned. I, too, shall write her, in order that peace may be restored to the household and she not disturb our relation, which has no longer any danger for her."

It seems incredible that Creuzer's sense of honor should not have been sufficient to make him respect the obligations laid upon him by such an appeal as this. Instead of helping Karoline to live up to her noble renunciation, instead of silencing once for all his own unruly longings, he now more than ever relapses into his habitual wavering between sentimental lamentations and passionate protestations of love. On Christmas eve he feels in the midst of his family "like a pilgrim who, on his way to the Holy Land, has been captured by a people that worships other gods." In the Christmas vacation he goes on with his 'Symbolik' in constant thought of the fair friend to whom, he hopes, this book will be something of a compensation for all the pain he has given her. In the following April (1806) he visits her in Frankfort, and after his departure he revels in ecstatic memories of their meeting and in mournful complaints about his present loneliness: "Ah, nothing will ever satisfy me but this dear, palpable nearness, from which I now have been torn away. The present stares blankly at me: back into the joys of the past my spirit longs to turn. *O sanctissima virgo, tecum moriar libens.*" In June he is in Mannheim and is taken by a friend to the point where the Neckar River flows into the Rhine. "It is a beautiful place, and I saw with deep emotion how the two rivers embrace each other. The impatient longing with which they hasten towards one another was to me a symbol of our life. Ah, the fortunate ones, I thought, to attain thus to the goal of their desires! Sadly I went away." And when, after all these appeals to the emotion, Karoline indeed seems to lose her self-control and to respond in the same passionate vein, how does he receive this?

"For heaven's sake, Lina, do not abandon yourself to such storms of passion! I have burnt all that you wrote to-day, praying for your tranquillity of mind while the flames were consuming your pages.—Beloved, I owe you a large debt, a debt equal to the value of my own life; but quiet you owe to me, and you will give me quiet when you see that you owe it to yourself."

We hasten to the end. On June 29 or 30 a last meeting of the lovers took place. With what feelings they saw each other, in what a frame of mind they separated, we are unable to tell. Immediately after it Creuzer fell into a violent fever. During his sickness his friends prevailed upon him to make a solemn declaration that he would completely and irrevocably break off his relations with Karoline. One of these friends took it upon himself to inform Karoline of this decision. In order to break the cruel news to her in as gentle a manner as possible, the letter containing it was addressed to a friend of Karoline's with whom she was at the time sojourning. These measures of precaution were frustrated. Karoline, who for weeks had been waiting for a letter from Creuzer, hastened to meet the messenger, took the letter, opened it in her room, and read—her death-warrant. She soon came back from her room, apparently undisturbed, took leave of her friend for a short evening walk such as she was in the habit of taking, but did not return. On the next morning her body was found on the banks of the Rhine. She had stabbed herself with the dagger which for some time previous she had been carrying about her.

Two months after the death of Karoline von Günderode the battle of Jena was fought. Little as these events seem to have in common with each other, it is yet true that the battle of Jena exerted a profound influence on the whole moral and intellectual atmosphere which determined the tragic fate of the romantic poetess. In the national breakdown, in the utter ruin of its political existence, the German people recovered its sense of moral dignity and discipline which had been obscured by the flighty conceptions of an exclusively æsthetic culture; and the Creuzers and Günderodes were superseded by the Steins and the Fichtes. KUNO FRANCKE.

Correspondence.

ORIGIN OF THE NATIONAL DEMOCRACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It will be generally admitted that without the organization of the sound-money Democrats of Illinois, the National Democratic ticket would not now be in the political field. In this view, the origin of that organization is important politically, and perhaps historically. Like many other movements, its rise grew out of a trivial circumstance. The Wau-ban-see Club, an association of Democrats in one of the divisions of Chicago known as the North Side, was, in the winter of 1894-'95 and the spring of 1895, short of funds. It was proposed by Mr. H. S. Robbins at a meeting of the directors of that club to give a dinner, to be known as a sound-money banquet, as a means of raising money. The proposition met with favor, a meeting of the club was called, and many hours were spent in the discussion of the very issues which are the burning questions of the present campaign; and, as the result of that discussion, those inclined to the free-silver view were either converted or silenced, for the proposed sound-money banquet was unanimously approved, in February, 1895. The banquet was held, and Senator Palmer was the principal speaker; and, as a result, the Illinois Honest-Money League was formed, with branches throughout the State, the members of which declared themselves unalterably opposed to the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1.

Mr. H. S. Robbins was the president of this league, and continued the work thus begun at the Wau-ban-see Club. The influence of the organization was such that, in the spring of 1896, the Democratic machinery of the State, under the leadership of Gov. Altgeld, fearing an honest vote in Chicago, refused honest primaries, and instituted what are known as "brace primaries," in order to disfranchise the Democracy of Chicago. This done, the rest of the State was easily carried for free silver. But, instead of meekly bowing to intimidation and repudiation, as the Democracy of other States have done, the sound money Democracy of Chicago replied by putting in the field, two months before the Chicago convention, a full county ticket, and then and

there elected delegates to a State convention, although none had at that time been called.

Subsequent events have justified that action. The intention to place national honor and prosperity above party was the keynote of the movement from the Wau-ban-see Club banquet to the hour the Auditorium conference called upon the Democracy of the United States to meet at Indianapolis to summon a national convention. Without the organization thus effected, it is highly probable that Democratic opposition to the surrender of the party to the new Populist principles would have resulted in nothing more than individual protests, and the Chicago convention would then have marked the grave of the party of Thomas Jefferson. LYNDEN EVANS.

CHICAGO, September 19, 1896.

McKINLEY AND BRYAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: After McKinley's election—what? If times improve, protection will get all the credit, and that incubus will be fixed on us for another generation. If the millennium does *not* come, the reaction will make the silver craze stronger in 1900 than it is now. As I watch the elements that are gathering around McKinley, I doubt whether we have anything more than a choice of equal evils; or whether even the plunge with Bryan into free silver, and the sharp, decisive cure that would inevitably follow, would not be the shortest and best way out of the dilemma.

I have favored the single gold standard for forty years, and have been a subscriber to the *Nation* from its origin, but I am sorry to see my favorite paper copy the *Tribune* so closely in campaign methods and become blind to all the evils and absurdities on one side. For instance, you pay your respects to Bryan's canvassing tour, but I have not seen any characterization of the cheap-John tariff excursions to McKinley. But I hope that when political lunacy abates in November we shall have the old *Nation* again—clear, keen, merciless, but *fair*. WM. PITTENGER.

FALLBROOK, CAL., September 18, 1896.

[Nobody knows better than Mr. McKinley that his tariff talk in this campaign is pure buncombe, on which it would be a waste of breath to comment. If he were dumb on this topic, he would still remain the protectionist that we knew him to be on the day of his nomination, when we had to make up our minds to him as the saviour of society in the present crisis. There is doubtless a want of worldly wisdom in speaking out his views with a chance of offending Democratic supporters; but this is not, in our opinion, the feature of his utterances which justifies our correspondent in affirming "a choice of equal evils." It is rather that, at a time when men who have stolen a State Senate preside for Bryan in New York and at Buffalo, McKinley fulsomely praises to a Pennsylvania delegation Quay, who looted a State Treasury.—ED. NATION.]

GREENBACKS AND DEPRECIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of September 24, p. 230, you say of "demand notes," in an editorial comment, that "they were never at par with gold." This I cannot gainsay; but, as an illustration of how demand notes passed in New York among the community, in the lesser affairs of life, I give this bit of personal experience:

In July, 1862, I returned from the front disabled. Not knowing of the financial changes which had come, I went into a shop and asked the owner to give me "change for a dollar." He did so courteously, remarking, however, that while it was a pleasure to do this for a wounded officer just back from the front, he wouldn't do it for a citizen. I asked why not, and he informed me that specie was at a premium. I offered to pay the premium, but that he flatly refused to take from a wounded soldier. I was in uniform, one arm was in a sling, and disabled soldiers were then a novelty in New York. Not wishing to get "change" in this way, I went into an exchange office on Broadway, nearly opposite the Astor House, threw down a ten-dollar greenback, and said that I wished to buy fractional silver. The broker handed me ten dollars in silver. I asked, in some surprise, if he did not mean to charge me anything for silver; and he answered no, that I had given him a demand note, and that demand notes were as good as specie. This was the first time that I had heard of "demand notes," and until then I had not known that the Government had issued two kinds of greenbacks. In December, 1862, I was again in New York, and then found that people were paying their omnibus fares with postage stamps. Silver had entirely disappeared.

An article showing chronologically the monetary changes in every-day life which took place in 1861-2—the disappearance of silver, the use of postage stamps, the substitution of postal notes, the advent of Treasury fractional notes, and the changing prices of ordinary things stated in both gold and greenbacks—would be an interesting article at this time to the younger generation of your readers.

C. C. N.

WILLIAMSTOWN, MASS., September 25, 1896.

[Our correspondent is doubtless correct in his recollection of the use of old demand notes in ordinary exchanges. These notes were necessarily at some premium, as compared with legal-tenders which were not receivable for duties. But the "custom-house demand notes" were never at par with gold. We transcribe the following market quotations from the New York daily papers of the period:

1862.	Gold.	Old demand notes.
June 30.....	109 @109¼	104¾@105
July 15.....	116	107⅞
July 21.....	119¾	108
July 25.....	116⅝	106¾

—ED. NATION.]

BISMARCK AND SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Bryan appears to set great store by the letter which Gov. Culberson of Texas has received from Prince Bismarck. The "People's Friend" is willing to receive advice from the Man of Blood and Iron, and the "Champion of the American Farmer" listens to that famous friend of American agriculture who shut the German ports to American pork in 1884 and to American potatoes in 1885, who would gladly have united all central Europe in a customs league aimed directly against all American produce. Bismarck's rather diplomatic letter is taken by Mr. Bryan in his recent speeches to favor the free coinage of silver by the United States.

The devotion of Chancellor Bismarck to the cause of silver may be seen in the following historical fact, which appears to have escaped general notice: Under his guidance as Chancellor of the Empire and Minister of Commerce for Prussia, the equivalent of 1,080,000,000 marks (over $270,000,000) in silver was demonetized between the years 1874 and 1881, and over $160,000,000 worth of the bullion into which these were melted had been sold by 1879. In that year, finding that the price of silver was becoming demoralized, so that his remaining $109,000,000 was depreciating, he stopped sales by a decree issued in May, 1879. These points were frankly stated by his delegates to the International Monetary Conference of 1881, when Germany likewise offered to suspend sales for a time in order that the price might not be further depressed. With these assurances before the monetary powers, and with the decree of May, 1879, still in force, Bismarck saw an opportunity of dumping some German silver on the sly, and promptly proceeded to do so. In 1885 the Egyptian Government decided to change its coinage and invited bids for contracts to coin its silver piastres. The German mint secured the contract to make the coin, and incidentally furnished $2,189,600 of silver bullion to Egypt. The matter was kept very quiet or escaped general notice. Reference to it will be found, however, in the London *Economist* of December 4, 1886, which saw in it a proof of Bismarck's lack of faith in silver.

With all his faults, Bismarck is a sturdy patriot. To help the German distiller he was willing to see trichinæ in every American pig, and to protect the German farmer he smelt bugs on every American potato. Germany has to-day $107,000,000 worth of silver whose value is declining; if the United States could be induced to follow the example of Egypt, and give Germany a chance to do some more unloading, where is the harm, from the ex-Chancellor's point of view, in writing a letter of not entirely disinterested advice?

MORRIS LOEB.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, September 25.

VIRCHOW MISQUOTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While reading 'Evolution and Dogma,' a work recently published by the Rev. J. A. Zahm (Chicago: McBride & Co., 1896), I hit with great surprise on the following sentence (p. 210): "Virchow and others declared Evolution responsible not only for the attempts made by Hödel and Nobiling on the life of the Emperor of Germany, but also for all the miseries and horrors of the Paris Commune." There is no reference given. Having gone through most of Prof. Virchow's works, and not remembering any such utterance from the great German naturalist, I wrote to him, asking where the passage occurred, and if it occurred at all. Here is Prof. Virchow's answer:

"Was Sie mir als Aussage des R. F. Zahm schreiben, ist von Anfang bis zu Ende unwahr. Ich habe über die Verwerthung der Descendenztheorie durch die Socialisten nur einmal etwas gesagt. Es war das in der wahrscheinlich auch Ihnen bekannten Rede gegen Haeckel, die ich auf der Naturforscher-Versammlung zu München gehalten habe. Mit

dem, was der R. F. mich sagen lässt, nat es nicht die mindeste Aehnlichkeit."

Surely, popular writers ought to ascertain the facts before they attribute stupid and odious sayings to an illustrious scientist.

Yours truly, SALOMON REINACH.

SAINT-GERMAIN-EN-LAYE, September 11, 1896.

"PROFITABLE SCIENCE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent article under the above caption, you call attention to the clamor that is going up in England, the originator of so much that is great in science, for reorganization and extension of her schools of science. The cause of this agitation you point out—the appearance in English markets of a host of products bearing the legend "Made in Germany."

But what connection is there between science and "Made in Germany"? That you also point out. In her great universities, Germany has provided a home and breeding-ground for scholars and investigators, a place where they enjoy full and free scope for the exercise of their genius, secure of their footing and *daily bread*, and therefore little concerned whose "views"—prince's, Pope's, or pastor's—they may jostle. The universities train up and send out a never-ending procession of thinkers and investigators, many of whom bring their knowledge and skill to bear on problems of art, manufactures, and trade. Both in and out of the universities great discoveries have been made, and are being made, new processes invented, old ones improved; old industries have been revolutionized, new ones created. Hence it is that Germany is invading and capturing markets previously regarded as the perquisite of England. Thus it happens that the German scientist is doing what our bimetallists have longed to do but could not—bringing "England to her knees."

You very justly remark:

"Science is not merely a thing for spectacled professors to dabble in, but is profitable in mart and manufacture. It is the true transmuter of dross into gold. A near-sighted German professor works away in his laboratory for a few years, and comes out with an invention which has not only a fortune in it for himself, but a revolution in it for some great industry."

No one will begrudge the professor his good luck if, in the course of his work, he makes a discovery which has "a fortune in it for himself" and not alone for the other fellow. But it should not be forgotten that it is the chief glory of science in the German universities, as of true science everywhere, that it is not pursued primarily because it is profitable in the sense of there being a fortune in it. The most fruitful inventions and discoveries with which the "spectacled professors have come out" have rarely been *patentable* even, much less pecuniarily profitable, except in the long run and to mankind at large. Witness the great discoveries of Pasteur. Witness Kekulé's great invention, the Benzine Theory, given to the world in 1865. Of this latter it was said by one in the highest degree competent, both from a scientific and an industrial point of view, to pass judgment, "Mit Kekulé's genialer Theorie war auch für die Technik eine neue Zeit gekommen." It is known to your readers that the branch of chemistry called "aromatic," with its thousands of new compounds (including the coal-tar dyes and medicaments), is the outcome of that theory. It is also known to them that the manufacture of coal-tar dyes is worth to Germany alone many millions of dollars annually. Yet Kekulé, in all the long years of a laborious life devoted to science, gave no thought to the question of "profit." What he has said on that point has not, that I am aware, found its way into the newspapers; and even though it has, it is interesting, instructive, and "profitable," and therefore worth repeating.

In 1890 a great jubilee in his honor was held in Berlin. Delegates from all parts of Germany, from England, America, and other countries, assembled to pay him tribute. Among them were representatives of the coal-tar industries, who presented, along with their address, an oil portrait of the professor. In response to their congratulations, Kekulé said:

"I cannot deny that many of my investigations and also the benzine theory have been of benefit to the manufacture of the coal-tar dyes; but I can assure you that I have never worked for technology, but always for science only. I have ever had a great interest in technology, but have never drawn interest [income] from her. Precisely for that reason, I am doubly rejoiced and doubly thankful that the representatives of technology wish to recognize my small merit in behalf of technology."

Truly, science is *most* profitable when she is *least* profitable. J. M. PICKEL.

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA, September 21, 1896.

THE SCOTT KENILWORTH LEGEND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having this summer, during a short stay at Kenilworth, occupied the chamber at the "King's Arms" which is called "Sir Walter Scott's Room," I have been interested in the sceptical comments which your correspondent "W. E." makes upon a passage in Mrs. Navarro's 'Few Memories' (*Nation*, September 24, p. 231). The story at the inn is that Scott, coming there *incognito*, wrote there the first sketch of the novel. I will not defend a legend simply because I have seen its local habitation, especially when it appears to have two local habitations (for Mrs. Navarro speaks of "the humble little cottage which had sheltered Walter Scott," etc., and not of a conspicuous inn). It is also quite true that Lockhart mentions no such visit; and indeed none such took place in 1820. But it is perhaps worth while to point out that Scott did in fact visit Kenilworth not very long before he wrote the novel. In the 'Journal' (ii., 153), under date of 1828, he says: "We visited Kenilworth. . . . The last time I was here, in 1815, these trophies of time were," etc. Moreover, Charles Knight, in 1843, in his 'William Shakspere: A Biography' (p. 89), says, speaking of the castle: "Some twenty-five years ago a man of middle age, with a lofty forehead and a keen gray eye, slightly lame but withal active, entered its gatehouse, and, having looked upon the only bit of carving left to tell something of interior magnificence, passed into those ruins, and stood there silent for some two hours." His authority for the statement is cited in a footnote, thus:

"A few years ago there was a venerable and intelligent farmer, Mr. Bonington, living in the gatehouse at Kenilworth. He remembered Scott's visit, although he knew not at the time of the visit who he was; and the frank manners and keen inquiries of the great novelist left an impression upon him which he described to us. The old man is dead."

It seems, then, that Miss Anderson was not wholly victimized, even though legends have grown around the story. What Lockhart says respecting the genesis of 'Kenilworth,' though it cuts off the possibility that the first sketch was written in the Warwickshire village, still leaves it open to us to imagine that the first thought of writing a novel upon the familiar story of Amy Robsart came to Scott at the time of his visit in 1815.

J. F. JAMESON.

PROVIDENCE, September 28, 1896.

A NEWS CHRONICLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your paper of August 13, Mr. Henry T. Terry of Tokio, Japan, asks for a journal of contemporary history in a form adapted for binding, and suggests that the *Nation* undertake such an enterprise. Permit me to suggest that there is already a quarterly magazine which substantially covers the ground. It is called *Current History*, and is published by Garretson Cox & Co., Buffalo, N. Y., at $1.50 per annum, as a supplement to their 'Columbian Cyclopædia.' Of this latter publication, in thirty-two small volumes, I cannot speak too highly, having tested it for over two years; and the *Current History* bears marks of the same diligent research, careful composition, and honest purpose.

Truly yours,

ISABELLA BEECHER HOOKER.

HARTFORD, CONN., September 22, 1896.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly correct the statement which appeared in the *Nation* for September 3 that I made all the drawings in Mrs. Oliphant's 'Rome'? Even the title-page maintains that I did not.

And also may I be allowed, with all due deference to your critic, to state that none of the drawings were done from photographs, but that they were all made from nature in the city of Rome, whither I was sent by Messrs. Macmillan specially for the purpose?

Yours truly, JOSEPH PENNELL.

14 BUCKINGHAM STREET, STRAND, W. C., LONDON, September 18, 1896.

Notes.

HERBERT S. STONE & Co., Chicago, have in preparation 'Curious Punishments of Bygone Days,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle, with drawings by Frank Hazenplug; 'The Fatal Gift of Beauty,' short stories by C. E. Raimond; 'Miss Ayr of Virginia,' short stories by Miss Julia Magruder; 'What Maisie Knew,' a novelette by Henry James; 'In Buncombe County,' by Maria Louise Pool; a second series of 'Prose Fancies,' by Richard Le Gallienne; '*Chap-Book* Stories,' by Octave Thanet and others, and '*Chap-Book* Essays,' by T. W. Higginson and others—reprints from the magazine of that name; and 'The Land of the Castanet,' by H. C. Chatfield-Taylor.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will issue 'Audiences,' apparently ready-made judgments in art; and 'National Epics,' a condensation.

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, will soon bring out 'A Pilgrimage to Beethoven,' by Richard Wagner; 'Christianity and Patriotism,' by Count Tolstoi; 'Ancient India: Its Language and Religion,' by Prof. H. Oldenberg; a new translation of Lao-

Tsze's 'Tao-Teh-King'; Gustav Freytag's 'Luther'; and a 'History of English Secularism,' by George Jacob Holyoake.

Stone & Kimball announce 'Urban Dialogues,' by Louis E. Shipman, with illustrations by C. D. Gibson; and 'Grip,' by John Strange Winter.

Additional announcements by Charles Scribner's Sons are the Complete Works of George Meredith, in 34 volumes; 'Complete Poems,' by H. C. Bunner; 'The Out-of-Door Library,' angling articles from *Scribner's Magazine*, to be followed by a hunting volume, both illustrated; 'Periods of European Literature,' in 12 volumes, edited by Prof. George Saintsbury; a new edition of the Bryant-Gay 'History of the United States,' expanded from four into five volumes, and brought down to date by Noah Brooks, with 1,600 illustrations; a new edition of Dr. S. Wells Williams's 'History of China,' continued by his son, Frederick Wells Williams; 'The Near East,' by Henry Norman; 'Europe in the Middle Ages,' by Profs. Oliver J. Thacher and Ferdinand Schwill of the University of Chicago; Émile Bourgeois's 'France under Louis XIV.,' with profuse illustrations; 'My Village'—in rural France—by E. Boyd Smith, with the author's designs; 'An Illustrated Flora'—of the Northern United States and the British Possessions—by Prof. N. L. Britton and Addison Brown; 'How to Listen to Music,' by H. E. Krehbiel; 'Songs of Childhood,' by Eugene Field, set to music by Reginald de Koven and others; 'The Sprightly Romance of Marsac,' by Molly Elliot Seawell; 'That First Affair, and Other Sketches,' by J. A. Mitchell; 'Colonial Days in Old New York,' by Alice Morse Earle; 'The Sense of Beauty,' by George Santayana; 'John Gibson Lockhart,' by Andrew Lang; 'Jesus Christ before his Ministry,' by Prof. Edmond Stapfer; and an 'Introduction to Sociology,' by Arthur Fairbanks.

The Century Co. will issue directly 'The Metropolitans,' a satire of New York society, by Jeanie Drake; a romance of Louisiana, 'The Wonderful Wheel,' by Marie Tracy Earle; a Dutch-Indian novel, 'Gold,' by Annie Linden; 'Break o' Day,' by George Wharton Edwards; and 'A Shadow Show,' reversible color prints, by Peter S. Newell.

'Soap Bubbles,' ten stories by Max Nordau, and 'The Conspiracy of Carbonari,' by Louisa Mühlbach, translated by Mary J. Safford, are in the press of F. Tennyson Neely.

A popular 'Star Atlas,' by Prof. Winslow Upton of Brown University, is in the press of Ginn & Co.

Under the title of 'The Scot in America' (Raeburn Book Co.), Dr. Peter Ross has brought together, chiefly in the form of biographical sketches, a considerable amount of information regarding persons of Scotch descent who have attained more or less of prominence in this country. Some of the information is entertaining and some of it appears to be new; but although the author claims to have had access to "original sources," and has evidently been industrious, his book cannot be counted a very important contribution to the interesting subject of Scotch influence on American life. A plentiful use of slang fails to enliven Dr. Ross's style, while his fondness for moralizing on all sorts of themes, from the annexation of Canada to newspaper criticism of art, is at once irritating and wearisome. The index of names shows many omissions.

In his 'Studies in the Hegelian Dialectic' (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan), Mr. MacTaggart distinguishes himself among living philosophers as at once one of the most reverent of students, most ingenious of interpreters, and subtlest of defenders of Hegel. He sets out by expounding the "secret of Hegel," the real meaning of the Dialectic. According to him, it is the course of thought in restoring the concreteness from which the sciences have abstracted, and it is the experience of reality which constrains thought to do this. He next discusses, often with a subtlety worthy of the best days of scholasticism, the objections, ancient and modern, which have been brought against Hegel and all his works, and the Dialectic Method in particular. Hegel apparently emerges from this ordeal triumphant and unscathed. But the final chapters show that his disciple has been converted into a critic who proceeds to demonstrate, respectfully but firmly, that Hegel failed in the application of his own method, and to draw conclusions which, in spite of their Hegelian spirit, he has to admit are not Hegel's. The course of these last chapters sometimes raises doubts as to whether the interpretations "in the spirit of Hegel" do not depart dangerously far from his letter; whether the criticisms do not come inconveniently near to objections set aside before; and whether the further conclusions drawn do not follow more easily and naturally from philosophic principles quite other than Hegel's. But, for all this, there can be no doubt that Mr. MacTaggart's book deserves to be carefully studied by all who are concerned to make something more out of Hegel than a big catchword.

A remarkably vivid picture of the highest social life in France and Italy during the latter half of the seventeenth century is given in Lucien Perey's 'Une Princesse Romaine au XVII^{e} Siècle: Marie Mancini Colonna' (Paris: Lévy). Lucien Perey is the pseudonym of a lady already favorably known to the reading public as the author of 'Le Roman du Grand Roi,' in which the romantic love of the youthful monarch Louis XIV. for Marie Mancini, the beautiful and brilliant niece of Cardinal Mazarin, is described. This lady was eventually betrothed to Prince Colonna, High Constable of Naples, and married to him by proxy in the chapel of the Louvre, April 15, 1661. The marriage proved to be a comparatively happy one, but after a few years she left her home in Naples and led a rather itinerant and adventurous life. Her suspicion that her husband intended to poison her, which she gave as the reason of her secret flight, was first suggested by the intriguing Archbishop of Amasia, her husband's uncle; but the slander would never have taken root in her mind as a fixed idea, had it not been for an hereditary tendency to insanity in her family, which manifested itself still more strongly in her sister Hortense, Duchesse de Mazarin, of whose erratic career many curious details, derived from documents in the royal archives of Turin, are printed in the present volume. Marie Mancini Colonna died at Pisa in 1715 at the age of seventy-two.

'La Vie d'un Homme: Carl Vogt,' by William Vogt (Paris: Schleicher Frères; Stuttgart: Nägele) is valuable rather as a collection of biographical material chronologically arranged than as a complete and critical biography. It contains also two portraits of the celebrated naturalist by Otto Vautier.

The statistical and tabular survey of Italian libraries undertaken by the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce has just been completed by the issue of a third part. The first two dealt with Government libraries mainly; the third embraces such as belong to academies and high schools, seminaries, etc., circulating libraries (like the Franklíniana at Rome), and a few private (like our countryman Prof. Willard Fiske's splendid Petrarchan and Icelandic collection at Florence, numbering about 8,900 titles). Others which we may single out for mention are those of several Alpine Clubs, the Whist Society of Turin (dating back to 1841), the Liceo Filarmonico of Bologna (rescued by the French Republic in the year vii. from the break-up of the religious houses), the Dante house in Florence (the 864 volumes being nearly all modern), the École Française at Rome; and the Biblioteca Ferrari-Moreni, devoted exclusively to Modenese works. Perhaps by way of stimulus to better things, place is given to the Biblioteca Piccinni-Ricci at Maglie, though the twin bequests to the district have been neglected for two centuries, and lie in disordered and neglected heaps "in un gran salone della chiesa, di proprietà comunale." As in the preceding parts of this catalogue, the history of each library, its character, size, accessibility, etc., are set forth, and special pains are taken to record by title the chief incunabula. The work as a whole is an honor to the Government and invaluable to students in Italy.

The Consular Reports for August contain an account of the present condition of the pearl fisheries in all parts of the world, with especial reference to the prevailing scarcity of small pearls. This is attributed to various causes, the principal being an increased demand in India and Arabia, and the fact that many of the beds have been overworked. In some the fishing has ceased altogether in order to permit the oysters to grow. It will probably be five years before the Ceylon fishery is resumed. In the Red Sea the native fishermen say that the falling off is due to the want of rain (their belief being that "a pearl is formed from a drop of rain caught in the mouth of a pearl oyster") and to the increase of coasting steamers, which drive away the oysters by the disturbance of the water. Of the pearls sent to foreign markets, London practically takes two-thirds and Paris the remainder, the average annual value being about four and a half million dollars. There is also an exhaustive, but very pessimistic, report on Samoa and its future prospects, the result of a year's experience of Consul-General Mulligan. The character of its soil is such as to make agriculture, its sole resource, unprofitable in case of competition. The growing of coffee, for instance, has steadily declined, and the cultivation of cotton has been abandoned. Copra is practically the only article of export. The political outlook is equally discouraging. The evils which the Berlin treaty was to remedy still exist, and have in fact increased.

The principal article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for September is a sketch of Ashanti by one of the officers of the recent expedition into that country. From it we gather that Ashanti itself contains little natural wealth, agricultural or mineral, and that the advantages gained by its conquest are the abolition of human sacrifice and the opening up a valuable trade with the Hinterland.

The *Geographical Journal* for September opens with two very suggestive articles on the Hausa territories in the Central Sudan, by a missionary and the agent-general of the Royal Niger Company. From their joint testimony it is probable that this is the most promising region in tropical Africa, Uganda not except-

ed. The greater part of the natives, numbering some fifteen millions, are industrious, loving work for the work's sake. The average daily attendance in the market of their commercial capital is from 25,000 to 30,000, and Kano cloth, made from native-grown cotton, is to be bought throughout northern Africa from Lagos to Alexandria. The chief obstacles to the development of this country, rich in natural resources, are slave-raiding, the currency, and the want of roads, all of which are curiously related. The only recognized currency consists of cowries, of which the equivalent of two and a half dollars "weighs something like one hundred pounds." Consequently large sums, as the tribute of a chief to the king, are paid in slaves, who are obtained by raiding, not hostile tribes, but their own villages. Then, from the lack of roads, everything has to be carried on men's heads, and the porters are almost universally slaves. It is estimated that the "slave population numbers at least five millions, or, to put it in another way, that one out of every three hundred people now living in the world is a Hausa-speaking slave." The agent-general says that he travelled through a district, once very populous, for a distance of seventy miles and did not meet a single human being, in consequence of slave-raiding. In the conclusion of Dr. Donaldson Smith's account of his journey through Somaliland (remarkable for his extraordinary natural-history collection, in which were twenty-four new species of birds alone), it is interesting to note that he ascribes the hearty welcome given him by a tribe to the fact that "they had heard of the kindness shown by Mr. Astor Chanler" to fellow-tribesmen living eleven days' journey distant.

We have received from J. L. Smith, No. 27 South Sixth Street, Philadelphia, a colored map of Cuba on a scale of twenty-five miles to the inch. Side maps represent the city and province of Havana on a larger scale, and "manifest destiny" is implied in two hemispheres showing Spain's shrunken possessions in America at the present day compared with a century ago.

Amongst the appointments for the year to science-research scholarships in Great Britain, made (from the 1851 Exhibition Fund) by Royal Commissioners, on the recommendation of the respective colleges and universities, it is interesting to note that University College, Bristol, is represented by a woman, Miss Emily C. Fortey. These scholarships have an annual value of £150, and are ordinarily held for two years ("subject to a satisfactory report at end of first year") in any educational institution in Great Britain, or on the Continent, approved by the Commissioners. The holders devote their time to study or research in some branch of science the extension of which has industrial or commercial value. As further illustration of the substantial way in which good work by women is being accorded recognition, we note that the London School of Economics and Political Economy has recently awarded three, out of five, research scholarships to women, of whom one has been trained at Somerville Hall, Oxford, and two at Girton College, Cambridge.

The next meeting of the Central Division of the Modern Language Association of America will occur between Christmas and New Year at St. Louis, Mo. Those wishing to read papers are requested to address Prof. G. Karsten, Bloomington, Ind., as soon as possible. Membership is open to any one interested in the study of modern languages. Further details will be announced later.

—A pamphlet issued by the Royal Society of Canada on 'The Discovery of America by John Cabot in 1497' (Ottawa, 1896) indicates the Society's purpose to celebrate in the summer of 1897 the four-hundredth anniversary of that event. The brochure prints commendations of the movement by Sir Clements Markham, Mr. Winsor, and the historian Harvey of Newfoundland. It also gives a report of a committee of the Society, by which it appears that the commemorative exercises will be held at Halifax next June, with a subsequent excursion to Cape Breton for the purpose of dedicating a monument. The committee wish it understood that, in erecting the memorial at the entrance of the harbor of Sydney, they do not commit the Society to any theory as to the landfall, but simply select a commanding headland, on the eastern coast of the Dominion, facing the broad ocean over which Cabot voyaged for the momentous discovery. The exact spot whereon he reared the royal standard in token of possession for Henry VII. is not likely to be determined to the satisfaction of everybody. Indeed, both the place and date of the landfall are in dispute. The discussion of these questions turns on the credibility of the legends found on the well-known Cabot map. This document places the discovery on June 24, 1497, at the island of Cape Breton. Before the unearthing of this map in 1843, the general belief had been in favor of the Labrador coast. To this older theory Harrisse now adheres, almost alone, and he charges deceit in the matter of the map in placing the discovery at Cape Breton, for the purpose of supporting the English claim to that region against that of France, then recently emphasized by the discoveries of Cartier. The Newfoundland theory of the landfall has been mainly advocated by the writers of that island, notably of late by Judge Prowse. The supporters of the Cape Breton theory have generally favored the northernmost point of that island, against which the legend on the Cabot map is placed. A year or two ago Dr. Samuel E. Dawson of Ottawa advocated before the Royal Society a belief in the southeastern point of that island as the true landfall, being the original *Cape* Breton of the early maps. In the present tract the same writer reinforces this belief in a new essay, and controverts the ground of Judge Prowse's opinion that Cape Bonavista, on the outer coast of Newfoundland, has the better claim to recognition. Steps have already been taken to have, on the same day, a similar commemoration at Bristol, England, the port whence Cabot sailed, with reciprocal exchange of communications by cable. This movement is under the direction of the mayor of that city, a gentleman who has long had commercial connections with America. The American Consul at that port, Mr. Lorin Lothrop, is lending his assistance, and the project is likely to interest the great body of American residents in England.

—A most amiable Neapolitan "publiciste," as he styles himself in his preferred language, Prof. Gabriel de Rosa-Rullo, domiciled at No. 52 in the Street of the Holy Sepulchre, appears, from his autographic correspondence before us, to have a "pull" on the Académie Littéraire et Scientifique du Hainaut. Of this institution we cannot speak with confidence, since it goes unnoticed in *Minerva*. But our publicist signs himself *délégué général* of it, and, on his proposing, the Academy appears to be in the habit of conferring degrees on persons unknown alike to it and to the proponent. A president of one of our Western universities was surprised the other day by a polite note from Prof. Gabriel, informing him that by the above process he, the said president, had been appointed "Président d'honneur et Professeur Emérite" by the "Conseil Universitaire" of the Academy, and at the same time awarded "la Medaille de Mérite de première Classe." From an entire stranger this was very handsome and unexpected, but diploma and medal are to be forwarded only on acceptance—which indicates a flattering doubt of American greed for titular distinction. Meanwhile, however, as an accompanying *printed form* shows, Prof. Gabriel de Rosa-Rullo is not above suggesting a little *quid pro quo;* for he says he would accept in return, "avec gratitude et par relation amicale," a diploma of Professor Emeritus or Doctor Honoris Causa from the American university, in any one of the faculties (the modest man!) of Law, Philosophy and Letters, or Social and Political Science. The exchange is incomplete, we regret to say for the credit of American manners; but perhaps the Minister of Public Instruction in Italy would do well to keep an eye on Prof. Gabriel, whose letter-sheet proclaims him corresponding member of five academies, institutes, and unions, as well as "Avocat de Saint Pierre, Jurisconsulte du Collège de Saint Ive de la 'Sacra Romana Curia.'" Is there no law against gluttony in Italy?

—The German habit of introspection manifests itself in numberless newspaper articles on newspapers. To the average American editor there is something amusing in these solemn attempts to fathom the mysteries of the profession, to expound the mission of the newspaper, and to draw the boundary line between journalism and literature. The latest attempt to grapple with the subject is made by a writer in the September number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, who discusses "The Daily Press in its relations to Current Intellectual Life," without adding much that is new or valuable to previous expositions. It is, however, interesting to see him reinforce the charge that the newspaper stifles independent thinking, by the argument that too much prominence is given to the editorial article, which generally occupies the first place in a German daily, and thus provides the reader with a ready-made opinion before he has heard of the event on which the article is based. The news proper, which the American reader craves above and before everything, is relegated by the German newspaper to the inside pages. That the habit of newspaper reading interferes with book reading, and thus with the acquisition of exact knowledge, is as true of Germany as it is of this country; but probably few thoughtful newspaper readers on this side of the ocean will agree with the *Rundschau* writer that the daily press consumes an "appalling amount of talent" (*erschrecklich viel Talente*). It ought to be said, perhaps, that the writer of the article, Dr. Emil Löbl, is a Viennese, and doubtless had the *Neue Freie Presse* in mind in this passage: "He who knows what a large sum total of knowledge and experience, of wit and wisdom, is being dealt out daily, in small coin, in the columns of the press, cannot doubt that out of such a fund of intellectual power might be created most valuable and lasting works in literature and science, provided that power could be concentrated."

—On the other hand, American (and English) newspapers of the better class are not open to

the charge, so often brought against German newspapers, of corrupting the language in which they are written. German custom has never exacted from the newspaper writer strict adherence to classic canons. Nor, as Herr Löbl remarks, are loose stylistic practices confined to the newspapers. "Every reader whose sense of language is highly developed will admit that the number of correctly written books is constantly lessening, while those whose style may be called perfect have at all times been very few indeed." The problem of how to educate the educators of public opinion is touched upon but not solved by the writer. There will always be those who maintain that the true journalist is born and not made; to those who demand that "he who wields so pointed an instrument as the press should know how to use it," Herr Löbl commends the example of the Bulgarian Sobranye, which recently decreed that no one could become a journalist who had not at least passed through all the classes of a gymnasium. The journalists themselves evidently incline to the former view, for when the question of a special preparation for their calling was brought before the International Congress of Journalists at Antwerp, that body refused to discuss the matter. Nevertheless, an attempt to supply a few finishing touches to native genius, through the establishment of "professorships of journalism," has been made in Europe as in this country, the University of Lille having instituted a course of three lectures introductory to journalism—one on "the great English publicists," one on "press laws," and one on "duties and practice of journalism" (the last by M. Tavernier, editor of the Paris *Univers*).

—Prof. Shorey would not thank us for attempting a résumé of his study on 'The Idea of Good in Plato's Republic,' which is to appear among the "Studies in Classical Philology" of the University of Chicago. His essay might better be expanded into a volume than condensed into a paragraph. It is a very remarkable piece of work, evincing the scholarship, the wide grasp of speculative philosophy, and the literary taste which seem a necessary equipment for the interpreter of Plato. It really sheds light on the whole purpose of the 'Republic.' Plato's Idea of Good was criticised by Aristotle as a transcendental notion, the contemplation of which could benefit neither cobbler nor carpenter; and the rigid literal spirit of this criticism has been generally followed by later commentators down to Dr. Jowett, who regards Plato's ideal as a mystical, nebulous abstraction, that appears nowhere in the Dialogues outside of the 'Republic.' Dr. Shorey shows that in reality it is a conception which the minor ethical dialogues are intended to illustrate and define, sometimes negatively, sometimes by tentative approaches. It is, in one aspect, an ultimate rule or standard of life, embodied in the social ideals of the Republic, to be evolved, applied, and transmitted by the guardians of the State—the philosopher-statesmen. The virtues are "goods" in so far as they conform to this ideal of good; it is, in fact, the final canon by which the virtues must be tried and classified in the ethical science of Plato. For him and for his State the ideal represents the same sort of ultimate test which the will of God represented for Calvin, the greatest happiness of the greatest number for Bentham, the survival of the species for Spencer and Leslie Stephen. While the citizens of the Republic will practise the virtues "in unthinking conformity with the ethical type which the rulers impose," the rulers themselves "must know the idea of good"—that is, they must have before their minds that ideal of health, harmony, and happiness for the individual and the State which is embodied in the social organization. To these choicest spirits, moulded by a long and severe discipline, by softening and refining influences, by experience in practical affairs, is intrusted the vision of the good; they are the moulders and guardians of the social ideal. The final touch was to be given to their intellectual training by the mastery of the severest and most advanced science of their day—the study of geometry, of mathematics, and of mathematical astronomy. Perhaps, in the present day, Prof. Shorey remarks, Mr. Huxley or Mr. Spencer would substitute a training in Biology for this training in mathematics. "But in what sense," he asks, "is this doctrine less definite or precise than the teaching of modern evolutionist ethics?" Mr. Herbert Spencer virtually follows Plato in postulating an ideal social organism as the ultimate test and type of ethical truth. Leslie Stephen defines virtue as "conformity to the type defined by the healthy condition of the social organization." This is only a return to the doctrine of Plato, save that his idea of good appeals to a higher and nobler order of emotions than the evolutionist's "survival of the species." It is quite clear that Dr. Shorey owes the world a book on the Platonic philosophy; it is equally clear that if such essays, written in such a style, are often repeated, the University of Chicago will be unable to disclaim the imputation of culture which it officially frowns on.

A BAND OF SINGERS.

Story of the Hutchinsons (Tribe of Jesse). By John Wallace Hutchinson. Compiled and edited by Charles E. Mann. With an introduction by Frederick Douglass. 2 vols. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1896.

THOSE who can recall the Hutchinson family in the beginning of their "concerting" are now passing off the stage. The name, however, is still a household word over the greater part of the North, and even on the Pacific Coast, for the "Tribe of Jesse," represented solely now by the author of these memoirs, has subdivided into the Tribe of John, of Asa, and of Judson, and bids fair to interest another generation with its rich gift of song. What can never return is the reformatory epoch in which the Hutchinson brothers and their sister Abby, "from the Old Granite State," "dared," in Frederick Douglass's words, "to sing for a cause first and for cash afterwards." The emotional side of the anti-slavery cause in particular they fostered as hardly any other instrumentality could, heightening the effect of the poetry of Whittier, and even capping the eloquence of Wendell Phillips.

"Phillips," reports N. P. Rogers (the scene is Faneuil Hall, Boston; the date, January, 1843), "had been speaking in his happiest vein. It was towards night. The old hall was sombre in the *glooming*. It was thronged to its vast extremities. Phillips closed his speech at the highest pitch of his fine genius, and retired from the platform, when the four brothers rushed to his place and took up the argument where he had left it, on the very heights of poetic declamation, and carried it off heavenwards on one of their boldest flights. Jesse had framed a series of stanzas on the spot, while Phillips was speaking, embodying the leading arguments, and enforcing them as mere oratory cannot, as music and poetry only can, and they poured them forth with amazing spirit, in one of the maddening Second Advent tunes. The vast multitude sprang to their feet as one man, and at the close of the first strain gave vent to their enthusiasm in a thunder of unrestrained cheering."

That conjunction can no more be revived than slavery. Phillips himself outlived the hardihood of any improvisatore seeking to gild the refined gold of his "poetic declamation," while "Brother John" has fallen upon times when not every cause is as singable as abolition. In 1867, on taking the field in behalf of woman's rights, he says (p. 438)—

"I had been requested to sing as many suffrage songs as possible in the coming campaign [in Kansas], but found on examination that the national hymnology was surprisingly deficient in that class of poetry. I therefore wrote to a large number of our American song-writers, asking contributions to the cause. The responses were not numerous, and so I decided that I must depend largely on my own resources."

Or, as the editor of the Ottumwa *Home Journal* presently put it (i., 454), "they [the Hutchinsons] were apparently hard driven to find poetry the sentiment of which could be made to sustain a proposition so hostile to poetic feeling as is female suffrage, and so their songs upon this subject were original." How successful, may be inferred from the opening lines of John's lyric—

"Who votes for woman suffrage now
Will add new laurels to his brow."

though it was doubtless carried off by his melodeon and voice. And this qualification is not to be despised. Among the Hutchinson fraternity, Jesse was preëminently the song-writer, and while his verse was almost incredibly mediocre, it could be sung. Rogers went so far as to call him, in 1844, "the most gifted song-writer of the times," who "writes to sing rather than to read," and (since he "writes under the influence of song") whose poetry "*sings* so much better than Pierpont's, or Burleigh's, or Lowell's, or Whittier's, or any of the bards." There was the "Lynn Bard," for instance, Alonzo Lewis, a prominent figure in those fermenting times, and neighbor of the Hutchinsons after (following Jesse's lead) they had clustered about High Rock. "He composed several songs for us," says John (i., 320), "but they lacked the singable quality we desired, and none of them were ever given in public." Whittier, on the other hand, strange to say for the Quaker in him, could be sung, and, before the war, is said to have asked John at Amesbury, "Do you want to know the one desire I have above all others? It is this, that I may so write my verses that they may be sung" (i., 397-8).

He was, in fact, not a little indebted to the Hutchinsons for the popularization of his poetry, and it was his adaptation to the music of "Ein Feste Burg,"

"We wait beneath the furnace blast
The pangs of transformation,"

one of the most stirring lyrics of the war, that the Hutchinsons sang to the Army of the Potomac in January, 1862, under a general permission from Secretary Cameron, till General McClellan ordered them out of the camp almost under the shadow of the Capitol.

"What breaks the oath
Of the men of the South?
What whets the knife
For the Union's life?
Hark to the answer: *Slavery!*"

This was unpalatable truth to a political Democratic general, but it was, we must ad-

mit, a truth which the North as a whole was still dodging, Lincoln among the rest; nor must we overlook the fact in gauging our censure of McClellan. The incident was promptly noticed in Congress, but the Hutchinsons went no more among the camps, where they might have contributed powerfully to that unity of feeling which was the strength of the Confederate armies.

There is no other episode in these memoirs of like national importance or resonance, but more space is given to the *faux-pas* of our anti-slavery songsters (on the prompting of the impulsive Jesse) in knocking together a song to Henry Clay, "Brave Harry of the West," and seeking him out in a New York hotel to sing it to him, in February, 1848. What consternation this caused in abolition circles may be imagined, and one must praise Brother John for his candor and want of bitterness in the narrative of the censure and ultimate condonation, as well as for gathering in an appendix the contemporary documents in fine print. By this means, too, he distinctly enhances the value of his work as a contribution to the history of the anti-slavery cause—that cause of which Brother Joshua wrote in the name of the family, addressing its present biographer, "as having done more for *us* than we possibly could have done for *it*." But the woman-suffrage cause, as we have seen, and the temperance cause in the earlier and in the later years also find here a chronicler of their machinery, at least, worth the having; and the multitude of details which make the volumes in too large a measure unreadable give them a real value for reference, so many eminent personages on both sides of the Atlantic (for there was a famous trip to England, commemorated by Harriet Martineau in her best manner, and by Mary Howitt in a memoir) enter in. Nor can the history of music in America omit this highly original, rough-gifted band, whose particular genius, Judson, "while an infant upon the floor, was heard to hum distinctly the melody of old Greenville, 'Gently, Lord, O gently lead us.'" Finally, the Yankee character may be here studied to advantage in the annals of a large family, all farmers, who periodically abandon the plough to make a concert tour, then return to their rude occupation; who combine moral zeal and earnestness with the prankishness of boys; who are affected by all the passing speculations and aspirations and manifestations of the age, so that Jesse and Judson nearly lose their mental balance through spiritualism, though Jesse, failing to tunnel down to the pirates' cave in High Rock, is truly guided by a clairvoyant to a living spring. John has for many years made it his "motto to live in one world at a time," but also for years (since 1888) has seen "the good time coming" in Bellamy's Nationalist movement, and has "worked and talked, sung and voted with these reformers." The droll Judson would use the intervals of singing by the quartet to expatiate to his audiences on the evils of tobacco and pork and the virtues of brown bread. The chapter in the second volume which takes up the family in detail, is, in connection with the abundant likenesses of all, most readable and instructive for its types of character frankly delineated. In the appendix will be found some charming examples of Abby's (Mrs. Patton's) private letters, and Harriet Martineau cites a sonnet of Hartley Coleridge "To Alfred Tennyson" after hearing Abby sing the "May Queen." In all the travelling required for John's eleven thousand concerts, adventures were numerous and often most amusing, and the anecdotes scattered up and down these pages relieve many arid extracts from the diaries which form the substantial basis of John Hutchinson's reminiscences. There is some good character-sketching, but none more discriminating than this of Maria Weston Chapman (ii., 137):

"She was the handsomest, most faithful, and active woman who espoused the cause of the slave. I can see her beaming countenance now as she would sit in a prominent place at the conventions. We would go home, and, recalling her presence, the many committees she was placed upon, and her general air of activity, would say, 'Well, Maria Chapman did speak, didn't she?' As a matter of fact, she never spoke."

We cannot close without commending to Southern readers Frederick Douglass's Introduction, and the remarkable letter from George Latimer, who died in Lynn but a short time ago, completely forgotten as a fugitive slave of Union-wide notoriety in 1842, and who asked to use his ransomed freedom only in honestly and modestly earning his daily bread as a paper-hanger in Lynn, till his days in Virginia became "like a dream" to him. The lives of these two men—unequal in intellectual capacity, but alike useful and self-respecting citizens—point on our side of Mason and Dixon's line a moral against the system which made chattels of them, but on the other side will be used to justify the bondage from which they escaped, as a most efficient Christianizing and civilizing agency. *Come va 'l mondo!*

ELIAS BOUDINOT.

The Life, Public Services, Addresses, and Letters of Elias Boudinot, LL.D., President of the Continental Congress. Edited by J. J. Boudinot. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. xvii, 419; vii, 415. Portraits.

In two handsome volumes Miss Jane J. Boudinot has collected what she could gather of the papers of Elias Boudinot. A lawyer by profession, Commissary-General of Prisoners in the Revolution, Member and, for a time, President of the Continental Congress, serving in three Congresses under the Constitution, Director of the Mint, Boudinot was prominent, but never great. He was a sturdy descendant of Huguenots, very philanthropic, doing his duty with attention and ability in whatever line of action he served. His name is connected with no measure of public policy, but he must be counted among those who lent dignity and substance to the early years of the new Government. He was deeply religious, and in the votes cast for two Deists—Jefferson and Burr—and for Dr. Priestley, for chaplain of the House, he saw "substantial evidence of our degenerating from the zeal of our forefathers, who first settled this wilderness," and in consequence felt great alarm.

Such a career becomes interesting in the sidelights it throws upon Revolutionary and political history. Boudinot's letters, few in number, are very simple and natural expressions of facts, and the work has been swelled by the inclusion of his speeches in Congress and letters from William Bradford, who married Boudinot's daughter, and Samuel Bayard, who married his niece. From this correspondence, which consists almost entirely of family letters, little of public interest can be gathered. The basis of the first volume is a manuscript record, now in the John Carter Brown library, quoted as "Reminiscences of Elias Boudinot." This record must have been compiled after 1801, for it mentions Arnold's death. Many little statements, which could be examined critically, tend to prove that Boudinot's memory misled him, as was natural; and there is ever present a kind of detail that makes a "good story" rather than a record of fact. Take his account of the siege of Yorktown. After the French admiral had announced his intention to depart, Washington saw the necessity of storming the British works. Boudinot says that to avoid that necessity Washington sent Hamilton and other officers, with a flag of truce and "something to eat and drink," to meet British officers, and to tell them out of kindly consideration to them how much he disliked to storm and shed blood. The result of this courtesy was the capitulation. Boudinot entirely passes over the fact that the enemy's works were stormed, Hamilton distinguishing himself; besides failing to account for the sending of Hamilton, a lieutenant colonel and unconnected with the General's family, upon such a delicate mission. So, in the sketch of Arnold's treason, Washington is made to ride up to Arnold's door, call out his (Arnold's) aid, and, "drawing his pistol from his holster, solemnly declare he would blow his brains out if he did not instantly tell him where Arnold was." Such an incident would not have been overlooked in the many narrations of Arnold's flight. The whole account of the treason reads like an attempt to record impressions already fading into indefiniteness.

This indefiniteness colors the "Reminiscences," leaving an incomplete and doubting impression. However readable and interesting they may seem, some further proof of details is wanted. Boudinot tells much of a Frenchman who deliberately poisoned numbers of American prisoners in New York, receiving a reward from the British General. The same Frenchman confessed to poisoning the wells used by the Continental "Flying Camp," leading to the great mortality among the men in 1776. The subsequent career of this scoundrel is related, even his death in London. This is a circumstantial story, but leaves the reader unsatisfied. Such monstrous cruelty would have left a deep and lasting impression upon the mind of any American. Why, then, is not the name of this Frenchman given? Why assert the reward of his act by the British commander, something inconceivable? Why attribute the mortality in the Flying Camp to such an act when it could be more easily explained by intelligible causes? The medical service of the army was known to be poor and corrupt; and so notorious did it become that a removal of the head physician was made, leading, among other results, to Rush's joining in the cabal of 1777-'78 against Washington.

It was in his capacity as Commissary General of Prisoners that Boudinot would record his most valuable recollections, but even there one is surprised not to find more. He was in charge of the "intelligence" from New York, a dangerous duty and one that should be full of incident. He tells us of an attempt to deceive with false information (i., 68, 69) and of two handsome offers, from the British, for his defection (i., 103, 125). The account of Lee's return to camp has before been printed; but the account of the sufferings of the American prisoners in New York is new, and may be accepted as historical, for Boudinot was the only person to whom the privilege of visiting them would be accorded.

As he was connected with headquarters, he

must have enjoyed many opportunities of knowing the hidden motives of action, such as the visit of a committee of Congress to Washington in 1777, to urge upon him the "political" necessity of gaining a victory; but he gives few results of those opportunities, and is tantalizing where he might be expected to have a full knowledge from a personal connection with the event described. He was, for example, one of the commissioners appointed by Washington in March, 1778 (not, as Boudinot says, the "winter of 1778"), to frame a cartel with the British for a general exchange of prisoners. A committee of Congress, then in camp, wished to avoid an exchange of prisoners at the opening of the campaign, and advised that the negotiations "should be merely ostensible, for the purpose of satisfying the army & throwing the blame on the British." Washington promptly resented such a scheme, and in something of a huff the committee returned to Congress, and induced that body to pass resolutions censuring the Commander-in Chief—a censure which, Boudinot states, was afterwards expunged from the minutes. Meanwhile the commissioners repaired to Germantown, declared to be neutral territory during the sessions, and, after exchanging powers, began a performance more interesting than dignified. Grayson was selected to outdrink the British, which he did. Then the British objected to the powers of the Americans, but consented to submit a draft of a cartel. On the third day the English wanted to attend a ball in Philadelphia, and asked that business be suspended. The next day, on returning from the ball, the Americans were informed that the neutrality of Germantown ceased after the sessions of the commissioners, and a reasonable time was allowed "for us to return to our army"—a matter of sixteen miles. Charges of bad faith followed, and the English invited themselves to dine with the Americans. "We immediately perceived their Drift was to keep us engaged until it was too late to go or by drinking freely prevent us. We were on our guard & set Coll. Grayson to manage them. They accordingly sat after dinner with Grayson while we were preparing to go off, till they could scarcely sit upright." Upon a subsequent meeting at Newtown, O'Hara confidentially told the Americans that Howe was playing with them, that he had no authority to enter into a cartel, and intended to break off negotiations when every excuse for prolonging them had been exhausted. So both sides prepared a formal report and separated, but not till "the stores were exhausted." Something in this explanation needs explanation. It is now known that Howe was bound, by orders from Germain, not to effect an exchange of prisoners in such a way as to recognize the Americans in any other rôle than that of rebels. Would it have been decent for O'Hara to tell the American commissioners that his superior officer was insincere? Boudinot must have written his later impressions of the incident.

It is regrettable to find so many errrors in proof-reading and possibly in transcribing the letters. With the many sources of information available it was inexcusable to permit so many blunders to remain unnoticed. It required time to unravel the words "Dr. Gasper Jove Lanosabbe Guavia" into Don Gaspar José Llanos (& ?) Abbe Gavarra (i., 397). General Freidrell (i., 131) is probably intended for Reidesel, sufficiently prominent in history to be identified. Major Montorieff (i., 174) must be Montcrieff, and the martyred Col. Hayne is with difficulty found in Hamis (i., 243). Congress actually did direct Greene to retaliate for Hayne, but the General wrote that he held no prisoner of sufficient rank. Duguesin (i., 315) is more likely to be Duquesne. United States is printed "number states" in a letter to Carleton (not Carlton, as printed); and Wharton gives the word "enquiries" where our editor notes "(*torn*)" (i., 347-8). The second volume, being made up of speeches, contains few errors. The French names on pp. 93 and 96 have fared hard, and the Bishop of Llandaff is changed into Landall on p. 96. The letter to Madison (p. 155) is either misdated or printed out of its regular order. The editor frequently refers to "MSS. Archives." There is also some peculiarity in selecting letters for publication. In matter the two letters printed in vol i., pp. 281 and 283, are identical; but the important letter to the Ministers at Paris, of July 15, 1783, is omitted. Two letters of Boudinot printed in the 'Correspondence of Samuel B. Webb' are not noticed, though one of them is of high interest. The letter of Washington to Boudinot, April 1, 1777, offering him the office of Commissary-General of Prisoners and defining its duties, is only mentioned, though personal and pertinent to the story.

The Theory of the Divine Right of Kings. By J. Neville Figgis. [Cambridge Historical Essays. No. IX.] Macmillan. 1896.

Mr. Figgis's book is an expanded and rewritten prize dissertation. It is an attempt, on which great labor has been spent, to trace the natural history of the theory of the divine right of kings to its causes. Stated in a few words, what he wishes to show is, that the theory was originally a popular theory, set up at the close of the middle ages in opposition to the divine right of the Pope; that it contributed to the great revolution by which the supremacy of the church was subverted, and modern civil allegiance (and hence the modern state itself) rendered possible. He distinguishes between the causes which produced the theory and the reasons by which it was supported, the latter being to modern ideas confessedly absurd. The part of the essay which maintains this thesis is interesting and ingenious, but the conclusions with regard to the part played by divine right in the seventeenth century are startling. These seem to be that the doctrine was essentially anti-clerical, because it had been anti-papal; that a deep sense of the majesty of the law and of the duty of obedience is "the priceless legacy" bequeathed to our own day "by the believers in the divine right of kings"; that "the main tendency of the doctrine was beneficial." Holding these views, the author is inevitably led to the conclusion that the theory of an original compact (through its influence upon Rousseau) has been "infinitely more pernicious in practice than the notions of Indefeasible Right and Passive Obedience."

The essay comes before the public with the approval of the University, and is a curiosity as an illustration of the influences at work there. It is really a political pamphlet, written by a student under Sir John Seeley who has caught his master's manner to perfection. The reason why he desires to bolster up the reputation of Filmer and other royalist writers is evidently because he believes that the Home Rule bill and the London County Council are results of the compact theory, in the same way that many people think that Rousseau caused the French Revolution. But, as he himself says, the causes of beliefs should not be confounded with the reasons given for them, and so, too, it must be remembered that great political changes, though they may be advanced and defended by theory, are produced by facts. And if we wish to know why the divine-right theory, after doing its work in bolstering up king against pope, became so important in the seventeenth century in England, it is in the facts of English history that the explanation must be sought. If it was not a recrudescence of theocracy in the interest of reactionary kings against Parliament and free institutions, then history will have to be rewritten. The reader will look in vain through this book for facts showing that the theory of the divine right of kings performed any useful function in England in the development of the art of government after the Tudor period. The theory, which embraced divine hereditary right, non-resistance, and passive obedience, was an old weapon which the royalists furbished up and employed against their antagonists; but it was even then essentially outworn, and, as the author very naïvely admits, when James II. ran away, ceased to be of any use.

The superiority of the compact theory over the theological theory of government lay in the fact that, though founded on a false historical assumption, it marked a distinct advance in human thought; it recognized the necessity of accounting for the existence of government by natural causes. Although historical investigation has not confirmed the theory as an explanation of the past, experience has demonstrated the possibility of government as a result of compact, and the idea is realized in every government deriving its powers in theory of law from a paramount written constitution adopted by a self-governing community. Such a government rests, as governments always have rested, on force, but the force is exerted under the compact. It may be overturned by a conspirator or a mob, but a new compact is immediately resorted to to ratify the change through the suffrage. It is extraordinary to us that a great university should print arguments, however ingenious, which serve mainly to show a tendency in it toward perverted views of history. If the universities are to come to the rescue of the Crown, well and good; but this object will not be accomplished by trying to persuade us that the royalist writers of the seventeenth century were inspired publicists, full of ideas in advance of their time.

The Sonnet in England, and Other Essays. By J. Ashcroft Noble. London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams.

It is clearly a misfortune, growing out of the profuse literary activity of London and of the ease with which mediocre books get themselves printed there, that the world receives from that quarter a steady stream of critical booklets, containing small studies, often of smaller authors; these studies having previously done duty, at any time within twenty years, in some magazine or newspaper. Thus the present volume opens with a study of the English sonnet, made and first printed sixteen years ago. Since that date, a series of compilations and monographs have appeared upon the subject, wholly superseding and often directly disproving much of what is here said. Some of Rossetti's best sonnets have been, moreover, published within the time elapsed; and all the author's discussion of this poet, both in

the opening essay and in that called "A Pre-Raphaelite Magazine," is rendered almost valueless by the flood of light since thrown upon the whole Rossetti family by themselves and others.

Again, in discussing Coleridge's sonnets and simply ranking them as inferior, on the whole, to Wordsworth's, the critic wholly ignores the extraordinary fact, to which attention has only been called within a few years, that when Coleridge's poems were published in 1797, with those of Lamb and Lloyd, he repudiated every conceivable standard of sonnet-writing, saying that, "respecting the metre of a sonnet, the writer should consult his own convenience—rhymes many or few or no rhymes at all"; and put this strange theory in practice by publishing a rambling poem of sixteen lines and calling it a sonnet. This is the poem which appears in later editions as "Lines composed while climbing the left ascent of Brockley-Comb." In various ways this first essay by Mr. Noble strikes the careful reader as something well enough in its way but superseded; suggesting Heine's description of the Cid's horse Babieca, to which steed no objection could fairly be made except the incidental fact that he was dead.

The subjects of the other essays in the book are respectively Leigh Hunt, Robert Buchanan, Hawker of Morwenstow (a "poet-priest"), and "The Poetry of Common Sense," namely, that of Pope. Several of these are more recent, yet in the essay on Hunt (dated in 1886), while giving many pages to refute a variety of "calumnies" against his author, Mr. Noble makes no sign of having even read the charges which are on the whole the most serious of all yet urged against him; those, namely, of selfishness and almost treachery, contained in the letters of Mrs. Shelley. Here, therefore, as elsewhere, appears the evil of a too tardy reprinting of what is practically superseded.

We have given more space to this volume than it perhaps deserves, because it represents a class, though of these it is among the least deserving. Le Gallienne and Alice Meynell—even Symonds, Gosse, and Lang—often send across the Atlantic matter which is trivial enough; but in their cases the work reprinted is usually more nearly contemporary, and offers themes that are important if the treatment is not. Yet much which they too offer is simply journalism decanted into volumes; collected, not selected; exhibiting anew the vast profuseness of London, yet lowering the average of its product. Many books of the same class are published in this country, but they fortunately seldom reach England, while the prevailing literary trade-wind brings many such hither from the other side, so that we waste our time in picking up the smaller book-gossip of that country, perhaps fifteen or twenty years old. To those for whom the dregs of yesterday's wine-glass bring pleasure, this book may perhaps be recommended.

Materials for the Study of Variation, Treated with especial regard to Discontinuity in the Origin of Species. By William Bateson, M.A. Macmillan & Co. Large 8vo, pp. xv, 598, illustrated.

THE variations to which the term discontinuous is here applied are those commonly designated as "sports." In these a new and transmissible character has suddenly appeared, causing them to differ from their parents and others of their race, and, by establishing a new point of departure, to make a real step forward in the evolution of a new species. This was the position of Galton, in 1892. No intermediates exist to graduate the differences between the sport and its parents, hence the discontinuity. By gathering a great number of data and studying them for what they yield, the author effectually discredits the practice of starting with a theory and searching for facts to support it, and his conclusions seriously impair opinions, more or less generally accepted, built in that fashion upon theories of adaptation, utility, and especially of natural selection. Species are discontinuous, and, if proved to originate in discontinuous variations (be the causes what they may), the continuous, minute, beneficial variations, so called, lose the great importance heretofore ascribed to them; and further, in view of the possible origin and establishment of a species without competition, the necessity of proof of the presence and effect of natural selection in every instance, just as in the case of any other factor, becomes sufficiently evident. If, in a particular species, an individual possessing an additional segment in the body or an extra joint in the leg transmits its peculiarity to its progeny, a new species is established, though the time when it will be called upon to compete for selection may be beyond calculation in the future.

As if timid, or not wishing to rouse opponents, the author disclaims any intent of attacking the Darwinism of Darwin, but the disclaimer avails little in presence of what he has gathered here. We commend the volume to all interested in the variation and origin of species. Its value will be more appreciated and its influence more felt in time to come, as it makes a good foundation for subsequent study in its line. The author's industry is noteworthy; his classification is simple and convenient; in the main his work is of good quality. For many of his data he of necessity relies upon facts reported by others, and here and there among the references a need of close revision and thorough verification is apparent. A paragraph concerning the two-tailed gold-fishes, on page 453, will illustrate: "Pouchet states that the evidence goes to show that this anomalous race is not maintained in China by any rigid selection. He quotes a Chinese encyclopædia to the effect that the double-tailed gold-fish is found in running streams, and gives the evidence of Kleyn, a missionary in China during the eighteenth century, who states that 'In fluvio Sleyn Cyprini sunt qui caudam habent trifurcam et a piscatoribus Leid-brassen vocantur, quasi diceres aliorum Cyprinorum conductores.'" Of the last sentence it may be said that the name of the man is incorrect, that he was not a missionary, was not in China, and was not writing of that country, that the statement was not his, and is not correctly given, that the name of the river was not (as appears) Sleyn, and the stream was not in China, and that the remarks were not applied to the gold-fish. Traced to its source, the citation refers to the naturalist J. T. Klein (Secr. Civ. Gedan. Soc. Reg. Lond. et Acad. Scient. Bonon. Sodalis) who, in his 'Historiæ piscium naturalis promovendæ,' Missus V., 1749, p. 62, quotes the following from Schonevelde, 1624, Ichthyologia, p. 33: "In Sleia Cyprini lati sunt, caudam incurvatam vel sinuatam gerentes, ac si ea bis fracta fuisset, Piscatores vocant Leidbrassen, quasi reliquorum duces, quibus conspectis fœlici omine amplam capturam sibi pollicentur." Under its modern titles, Schlei, Schleswiger Fiord, etc., the stream flows into the western Baltic a short distance north of Kiel, in Gottorp, Sleswick. The fish of which Schonevelde wrote was not the Chinese gold-fish, *Carassius auratus*, but the European bream, *Abramis brama*.

The Pith of Astronomy (without Mathematics): The Latest Facts and Figures as Developed by the Giant Telescopes. By Samuel G. Bayne. Harper & Bros.

THE qualification, "without mathematics," of the title will take with the public, but this little work would have been stronger, in the estimation of those who do care for them, if a little attention had been paid to the mathematics, and the author would have been spared such slips of the pencil as that which makes him assert that the mean distances of the outer planets from the earth are each ninety-three million miles less than the corresponding mean distances from the sun. This is a minor matter, and does not affect the principal intention of the book, which is to present facts selected from many different authorities. The good points of the volume are, that it brings together in compact form those facts and figures in astronomy which are of popular interest; that the information has been gathered in the main from reliable sources; that the selection of matter is judicious; and that the arrangement is convenient, while the literary style is reasonably good. The criticisms which may be urged against it are, that the author occasionally confuses hypothesis with fact, that once in a while he perpetuates the vagary of some reporter, like that which informs us that Mr. Lowell "has lately devoted his life and his fortune to the observation of Mars," and that once in a while he misses the most popular feature of the story, as when he neglects to mention the meteor streams travelling in the same orbit as Biela's comet, or that Keeler proves the meteoric nature of Saturn's rings by showing, by means of the spectroscope, that the motion of the particles is different in different parts of the rings. In the interest of accurate statement one must condemn the bit of sensationalism which announces on the title-page that the facts and figures in the book have been "developed by the giant telescopes." The work in which these telescopes are engaged does not appeal to those who are likely to be Mr. Bayne's readers, so that hardly one of his facts (excepting, perhaps, that Jupiter has a fifth moon) appears in support of his claim.

The volume is very neat in appearance, and contains a number of excellent illustrations.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ade, George. Artie: A Story of the Streets and Town. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Alger, Horatio, jr. Frank Hunter's Peril. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
A Prophetic Romance: Mars to the Earth. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Bibliographica. Part X. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners.
Boardman, Emery. Winning Whist. Scribners. $1
Britton, Prof. N. L., and Brown, Addison. An Illustrated Flora of the Northern United States, Canada, and the British Possessions. Vol. I. Ophioglossaceæ to Alsinaceæ. Scribners.
Bulwer-Lytton, Sir E. Harold. University Publishing Co.
Byers, S. H. M. The March to the Sea: A Poem. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Cherry and Violet: A Tale of the Great Plague. London: Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $2 25.
Cowdrick, J. C. Will Milton's Will. New York: National Temperance Society. 50c.
Curtis, G. T. Constitutional History of the United States. Vol. II. Harpers. $3.
Delpit, Édouard. Cœur Déçu. Paris: Lévy; New York: Brentano's. $1.
Geddie, John. The Bailadists. [Famous Scots Series.] Scribners. 75c.
Godkin, E. L. Problems of Modern Democracy: Political and Economic Essays. Scribners. $2.
Guerber, H. A. Legends of the Middle Ages. American Book Co. $1.50.
Guerber, H. A. The Story of Greece. American Book Co. 60c.
Hodgdon, Josephine E. Lowell Leaflets: Poems and Prose Passages. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40c.

Hole, Dean S. R. A Little Tour in Ireland. With Illustrations by John Leech. Edward Arnold.
Jacobs, Joseph. Literary Studies. New and enlarged edition. Scribners. $1.25.
Johnston, W. D., and Jean B. English Historical Reprints. I. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Sheehan & Co.
Judd, Prof. J. W. The Student's Lyell: A Manual of Elementary Geology. Harpers. $2.25.
Kinross, Albert. The Fearsome Island. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Lothrop, T. K. William Henry Seward. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Macdonald, George A. How Successful Lawyers were Educated. New York: Banks & Bros. $1.
Magruder, Julia. The Violet. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Munroe, Kirk. Rick Dale: A Story of the Northwest Coast. Harpers. $1.25.
Pitman, Isaac. Complete Phonographic Instructor. Revised ed. New York: Isaac Pitman & Sons. $1.50.
Prince, L. B. The Money Problem; or, Bimetallism vs. a Single Gold Standard. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c.
Roberts, Baron von. Lou. New York: American Publishers Corporation.
Rothwell, R. P. Universal Bimetallism and an International Monetary Clearing House. Scientific Publishing Co. 50c.
Spinner, Alice. A Reluctant Evangelist, and Other Stories. Edward Arnold.
Sterrett, J. D. The Power of Thought. Scribners. $1.75.
Stevenson, R. L. Fables. Scribners. $1.
Stevenson, R. L. In the South Seas. Scribners. $1.50.
Syms, L. C. Second Year in French. American Book Co. $1.
Thompson, Basil. A Court Intrigue. Appletons. $1.50.
Vartooguian, A. P. Armenia's Ordeal. New York: The Author. $1.
Villari, Prof. Pasquale. Life and Times of Girolamo Savonarola. Popular edition. Scribners. $2.50.
Waugh, Arthur. Johnson's Lives of the Poets. Vol V. Scribners. $2.50.
Way, A. S. The Tragedies of Euripides in English Verse. Vol. II. Macmillan. $2.
Wentworth, G. A. A Practical Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Wigram, Rev. S. R. The Cartulary of the Monastery of St. Frideswide at Oxford. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Wyatt, A. J., and Low, W. H. Intermediate Text-Book of English Literature. Vol. I. London: W. B. Clive; New York: Hinds & Noble. 80c.
Young, Virginia D. A Tower in the Desert. Boston: Areana Publishing Co. $1.25.

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The Week.

MR. BRYAN favors the *Journal* by telegraph with his personal forecast of next month's election. In one sentence, among his reasons for expecting victory, he says; "The gold standard makes a dearer dollar, a dearer dollar means falling prices, and falling prices mean hard times." These catchwords are designed as usual to influence the farmer, and so they perhaps would have done five or six months ago, when grain prices were falling under the promise of especially large crops the world over. But they must ring curiously in the ears of a Kansas or Nebraska farmer, when the wheat market is bidding him, for immediate delivery, 12 to 13 cents more than it bid two months ago, with nearly as great a rise in the price of contracts for later months. Mr. Bryan may not have heard of this advance in wheat. We venture, however, our prediction that many a Bryanite orator, repeating Bryan's words on the Western stump this fall, will hear from his audience the ominous interpolation: "What about wheat and corn?" The orator will not say the truth by answering that the chief cause of the rise is shortage in the foreign crops, because, if he answers thus, he is well aware that the "dearer dollar" sophistry must cease. In short, since the advance in grain, the free-coinage orator, even on the farms, must devote his energies to explanations and apologies—precisely the kind of argument which now makes up the substance of his speeches elsewhere. The rise in grain is undoubtedly a final blow at the frail structure of the Bryan canvass.

Our own views about the political situation at the present time and the outlook for the election do not need to be restated. We regard the situation to-day as most encouraging for the advocates of sound money, and the prospect for the 3d of November as altogether hopeful. The defeat of Bryan by an overwhelming majority seems to us as well assured as any future event ever can be. We reach this conclusion, not on the basis of "claims" by politicians who support McKinley, or of "canvasses" by Republican committees, but on the basis of great and, in our opinion, absolutely irresistible forces which are working against the Populistic candidate. No man has ever yet been elected President of the United States who was not supported by a large proportion of the character, ability, and statesmanship of the nation; Bryan has in the whole country hardly one advocate who commands the confidence of the people, while his most prominent supporters are such discredited politicians as Tillman, Altgeld, and Weaver. No man has ever yet been elected President whom the business interests of the country—including in that term the great mass of bankers, merchants, manufacturers (on a small scale as well as a large), storekeepers—distrusted and opposed as unsafe; these interests in the controlling states are substantially unanimous against Bryan. No man has ever yet been elected President, since the growth of the anti-slavery sentiment gave the Republicans their victory in 1860, when he represented a cause which enabled the moral issue to be raised against him; the proposal of the free-coinage men to repudiate half of all debts, public and private, makes Bryan the representative of the cause of dishonesty.

A striking proof of the extent to which the intelligence of the country is arrayed against free coinage is furnished by a canvass of college and university presidents in the South and West made by the Philadelphia *Press*. Every one of the fifteen heard from is opposed to Bryan's election. Most of them will vote for McKinley, although more than one has been a Cleveland Democrat; but the Chancellor of Central University at Richmond, Ky., and the head of Trinity University at Tehuacana, Tex., support Palmer. Every member of the faculty in these last two institutions will vote the same way as their heads, and the reports show a near approach to unanimity against Bryan everywhere. Such a showing as this in States of the West and South where free-silver sentiment has been very strong, is far more significant than similar unanimity of sentiment among the faculties of educational institutions in the northeastern part of the country. The truth is that there has never been a campaign in which the educated men of the nation were so overwhelmingly for one side as they are for sound money this year. It is also true that there has never been a campaign in which one party received so little support from the press as the Bryan fusion gets this year, a large proportion of the ablest Democratic newspapers openly opposing it, while the perfunctory support given it by many party journals in the South is so contemptuous as to be little better than open opposition—the Mobile *Register*, for example, saying that it knows the policy which Bryan advocates would ruin the country, but that it does not believe he would carry the policy out if he should be elected! Equally striking is the absence of any support of the Populistic cause on the stump from Democratic speakers of character and standing; nothing like it has ever been seen. The success of a movement which finds so little favor with the intelligence of the nation would set at defiance all the laws that have governed elections.

The results of the Connecticut town elections on Monday are no less significant of the drift of public opinion than those of the State elections in Vermont and Maine last month. While local issues have their influence upon these contests, experience has shown that, taking the 163 towns together, the Republicans carry an unusually large proportion in the October of a year when that party is to sweep the country in November, while the Democratic proportion is swollen when the country is preparing to render a verdict in favor of that party. Thus in October, 1892, the Democrats carried 51 towns to 73 Republican and 40 divided, and in November Cleveland carried the State by 5,367 over Harrison; while in October, 1894, with 30 towns divided, the Democrats carried only 32 against 102 for the Republicans, and the latter party the next month elected its candidate for Governor by 17,688 plurality. This was supposed to be high-water mark for the Republicans, but they made a still better showing on Monday, and the indications now are that McKinley will have anywhere from 20,000 to 30,000 more votes than Bryan next month in a State which, since the Democratic split of 1860, has gone Democratic in half of the eight Presidential elections, and which gave Grant only 4,758 plurality in 1872, when Democracy collapsed under the Greeley candidacy.

Minnesota is one of those Western States which ought to go for Bryan if there is anything in the Populist alliance, for in 1892 a combination of the Democratic and Populist parties would have left Harrison more than 8,000 short of a majority, and, even with the "tidal wave" setting toward the Republicans so strongly in 1894, they would have had less than 6,000 majority if their opponents had successfully "fused." But even the chairman of the Bryan Democratic State committee can say nothing more encouraging to the New York *Journal* than that "at best, under present conditions, we can only consider it doubtful"—which is virtually an admission that McKinley will carry it. The reasons for this distrust on the part of the Bryanites are to be found in a canvass of the State that is being made by the St. Paul *Globe*, which shows that sound-money sentiment is very strong among those voters of foreign birth and parentage who constitute about three-fourths of the whole number. Nearly half of this foreign element is Scandinavian, and almost half of the remainder German.

BRYANITE UNTEACHABLENESS.

Any one who heard Bryan speak at Tammany Hall on Tuesday week must feel that both he and his followers are now beyond the reach of discussion. In a democracy it is a serious matter to have any large portion of the community in this condition, because the Government is carried on by discussion, and Government by discussion implies that those who know most of any subject shall at least have a hearing, and that their arguments shall be answered. If it should prove that Bryan's supporters are a large body, the opening of their minds, not so much to our views as to all views from which they differ, should be the work of reformers for the next ten years. All democracies or quasi-democracies which have had any measure of success, have owed it to the custom of giving attention to employing their ablest men, and treating each question through those who have most familiarity with it. In fact, politics succeeds, just as business succeeds, by the use of the greatest knowledge and the best talent. Nobody expects a weak man, ignorant of the business, to make a fortune in shoes or dry goods. If a man were to tell us he was going to make a fortune in either because he was poor or could make a good speech, we should laugh at him. It is so in all other occupations. Knowledge and ability carry the day. The man who thinks he knows when he does not know, and thinks he is able when he is not able, and will not listen to what any one says to him, goes to the wall; that is, speedily makes an assignment or absconds.

In all previous campaigns there was a question which had two sides, and both sides were listened to, and as a general rule the facts were agreed on. The existence of slavery, the prospects of the war, the continuance of the army at the South, the desirableness of greenbacks, the necessity of a high tariff, were all controversies fought out on the stump and at the polls on acknowledged facts. The peculiarity of this campaign is that the Bryanites have a set of facts of their own, of which their opponents know nothing, and they will not listen to anybody who does not admit these facts to be true. Bryan, for instance, gave at Tammany Hall an account of the causes for the flow of gold to and from this country, not one word of which would be admitted by anybody who had the slightest familiarity with the operations of trade or commerce or exchange; and yet if a merchant or a banker were to have got up, immediately after Bryan, to present his side of the subject, he would not have been listened to. He would have been howled down as an interested person, as a "gold-bug," who was himself engaged in "cornering" or "draining away" the gold. Bryan also made the statement that "bankers" run or rule this country; but if a banker had risen to ask for details, or to show that this could not be true, he would not have been listened to, for the simple reason that he was a banker. In other words, his competency to discuss the subject through knowledge would to Bryanites have proved his incompetency.

If, as we have said, the Bryanites should prove to be a large body of voters, this would be a very serious matter. Their very existence would be a standing menace to the Government, because it would indicate that a large proportion of our population not only are ignorant, but are unwilling to be taught. Ignorance which knows itself to be ignorant and is willing to be taught, is not a very dangerous thing. English, French, German, and Italian ignorance is all of this character. The ignorant in those countries acknowledge their ignorance, and, when they have to deal with public matters of importance, simply designate by their votes the persons to whom they wish to confide them, and, in making this designation, assume, in a general way, that these persons have some special knowledge. In all civilized countries bankers are consulted about public finance, engineers are consulted about roads and tunnels, soldiers are consulted about war, lawyers about law, and electricians about electricity. This is the only way, in fact, in which government in our day can be carried on. The knowledge required for the administration of a great state is now so varied and so complicated that it is only by taking the opinions of specialists that civilization can be maintained. The Bryanites have started the theory, however, that all you need in order to be a political philosopher is to be short of money and to honor silver. Not only this, but every man who is not poor, and looks on silver as on iron or copper, as a metal, is excluded from all authority on public affairs. But no matter what the rights and wrongs of any public question may be, no state can remain civilized and progressive which makes no use of learning and experience.

We have seen from the beginning in Bryanism the consequences of the folly, or neglect, or rash utterances of people who are now very much alarmed by Bryanism, and wish it could be got rid of. In listening to the Bryanites, therefore, about foreign exchange and the need of a purely "American" system of finance, made up of paper or cheap metal, we cannot help believing that their wild notions are largely due to the protectionist teaching of thirty years, with the accompanying aspirations for a Chinese wall around the United States, and deep-seated hatred of foreigners. Only in 1890 Republican orators of repute were on the stump preaching that one of McKinley's strongest claims to fame and confidence rested on the assumed fact that foreigners hated him. In fact, we were told that foreign hatred was the American statesman's glory. We had to sell more than we bought and get our price in gold. The departure of gold was a public misfortune. Foreign commerce was apparently an inevitable calamity. In fact, nearly all the doctrines about foreign exchange which were deemed necessary to uphold the tariff led naturally to Bryanism, after being thrown promiscuously for a few years into the minds of ignorant men, pressed by misfortune.

THE BYGONE OPINIONS OF PUBLIC MEN.

The Hartford *Courant* says:

"What Major McKinley thought and wrote half-a-dozen years ago is a matter of not the slightest present consequence. He stands squarely upon the St. Louis platform. His speeches on the money question leave nothing to be desired. He is avowedly and unequivocally for the maintenance of the gold standard."

This is pushing the doctrine a good deal too far. We have agreed to consider what Mr. McKinley said six or eight years ago as of small or no consequence compared to what Bryan is saying now, but we have not agreed to consider what Mr. McKinley has been saying about silver for the last eight years of no consequence at all. The persistent utterances of any public man on any great public question ought to be of great consequence, and must be, as long as utterances are expressions of character and thought. Any man who talks about finance for eight years, and promulgates decided opinions about it, is supposed to have thought and read about it. In other words, his utterances are in every country something in the nature of public instruction. He who has studied the subject is supposed to communicate the result of his investigations to people who have not had time to do so. If he has not studied it, does not understand it, and has no fixed convictions about it, he commits a fraud on the people. This is what makes it of consequence what a public man said six years ago publicly about anything, unless he was at that time a very young man. If he believed what he said then, and what he said then is totally different from what he says now, and he has no explanation to offer of the change, something must be wrong with his mental or moral apparatus. Of course a public man, like any other man, may change his mind. But when he does, he owes it to the world to say he has changed it, and explain why, as Sir Robert Peel did with regard to the tariff, or Mr. Gladstone with regard to Irish home rule. If the *Courant's* doctrine were generally accepted by the public, it would strike a terrible blow at public morality, for it would release every politician from all responsibility for his utterances. Anybody might say anything he pleased about anything, knowing that he might the next week say something entirely different, and not suffer for it. We, then, might as well pick up young men in the street and make statesmen of them on the sole condition that they were glib. What would soon become of a government carried on in this way?

To our minds the Bryan performances are not by any means the only serious thing in this crisis. The things he is able to quote from McKinley, Sherman, Reed, Lodge, and nearly every Republican public man are full as serious. They have all been saying by fits and starts for twenty years very much what he is saying now, knowing they could say something else, as they are now doing, whenever the occasion called for it. This is one of the sorrows of our position. Nearly all our champions have long been supplying the enemy with ammunition, and only left him when he took the field against us. We could reconcile ourselves to this better if they would now come out honestly and retract and explain, say they have changed their minds, seeing where their doctrines would lead us and what arrant nonsense they were conniving at. We do not mean to say that all were equally guilty. Some told lies knowing well they were lying, and meaning to tell another story by and by. Some, on the other hand, told untruths from mere stupidity and ignorance. The mixture of protection and free coinage of which Mr. McKinley was guilty in 1890, and his determination to "honor" silver, were the consequence simply of having no clear knowledge of what he was talking about. He did not know that money was a measure of value; he thought it was simply an American product that badly needed protection. He is not to be blamed, we admit, if the turn of events has converted him into an advocate of sound money and the gold standard. He has always said to "the party," "I think what you think about everything under the sun, only, for heaven's sake, don't change your mind too often."

The best thing to be said for Mr. McKinley is that he was not much worse than the others. Even Mr. Reed, who managed to keep so discreetly silent about finance for six months before the nomination, produced in June, 1894, in the *Fortnightly Review*, a scheme for union among the bimetallic nations, to persecute the gold-standard nations, or, in other words, to fix on "such a scale of high tariffs against those nations which reject the monetary agreement as will go far to insure us a favorable balance of trade." He got this crazy scheme apparently from Senator Lodge, or Lodge got it from him; but no one who reads it can help asking why is Bryan considered such a silly fool, for Mr. Reed is now one of our best gold-standard champions.

We, for our part, cannot help hoping, nay believing, that the fright Bryan has given these reeds shaken in the wind by showing them in black and white the results of twenty years of demagogy and insincerity and false teaching, will have a salutary effect. It will do something to impress on them the necessity either of keeping silent about things they do not understand, or of speaking their honest thought. We see now what compromising, placating, and deceiving lead to. On no subject is it more dangerous or mischievous than finance, for finance is largely arithmetic. The only way to meet a lie is, as Lowell says, to meet it "in arms." It will not do to say that it is a pleasing lie, or only a lie sometimes, or an inopportune lie, or a people's lie, or a good lie to tell to foreigners. A lie is a lie wherever met, and humbug is humbug.

SILVER COIN AND BULLION IN COMMERCE.

Some attention has been called to the export figures of silver, and a curious and very misleading conclusion drawn from them. The domestic exports of silver in 1895 were $40,073,222, and in 1896, $52,518,575. Therefore, say the silver men, "Our silver is demanded abroad, and a silver dollar moves as freely outside of the country as within it. Were it otherwise, no American silver coin would be exported. Yet look at the amount sent abroad!" Like other of their assertions, this statement contains a mustard-seed of truth and a large tree of misapplication. The export of bullion is confused with the export of coin. The Treasury figures throw some light upon the fallacy involved in the confusion.

In 1895 the exports of American silver coin were $40,009, and in 1896 $393,611. All such coin is returned by collectors at its face value. A dollar is a dollar, and a half a dollar, fifty cents. This is the general rule for valuing all domestic exports. To the custom-house the silver is worth what the stamp of coin announces; to that point a gold and a silver dollar are worth the same in our domestic exchanges. The silverites claim that this parity continues beyond the borders, and that the American silver dollar will pass at 100 cents in the country to which it is exported, and therefore is nowhere "discredited."

Of the $393,611 in coin exported in 1896, the greater share—$241,441—was sent to Canada. Now, the Dominion Government will not receive American silver coin, any more than our own Government would receive Canadian pieces—except at their bullion value. The geographical distribution of the exports shows that $9,813 was sent to British Columbia, and $231,628 to that immense border territory which includes Ontario, Manitoba, Rupert Land, and the Northwest Territory. It is safe to assume that those regions are in a temporary want of circulating coins, and, marketing their produce in the United States, are willing to receive in payment American silver—only temporarily to receive it, for it is in part reëxported to the United States. The movement is thus based upon a twofold motive. The one is a local need for currency, and the other is the settlement of exchanges. An American merchant having a debt due in Manitoba pays it in silver dollars, and the Canadian bank accepts the coin, knowing that it can return the coin to the United States in payment of a debt due to an American merchant. To assume, as the silverites do, that the coins circulate in Canada at their face value in any quantity is directly opposed to the fact. In truth, the Canadian Government seeks to discourage the introduction of American coins. Not only has it placed the circulation of them under ban, but it levies a customs duty of 25 per cent. on them as a manufacture of silver. The result is shown in the trade returns. In the twelve months ending June 30, 1895, our export figures gave $35,133 in silver coin of the United States sent to Canada. The Canadian returns reported for the same period an import of $1 in American coin, on which a duty of 25 cents was paid!

What applies to the Canadian import of American silver coins applies with equal force to similar trade transactions in other directions. Our pieces are sent to countries having no, or very imperfect, coinage systems of their own, and are received in precisely the same manner as are the Mexican dollars, as coins of convenience and commercial usefulness. Reverting to the exports in 1896, we give the destination of the coins, and also the amount in American silver coins returned to the United States:

To or from	Exports.	Imports.
Germany	$ 00	$2,359
Mexico	13,370	7,495
West Indies British	500	5,568
West Indies, Haiti	22,000	
Ecuador	10,000	111
Hawaiian Islands	17,500	

Imports were also made from France, $1,870; United Kingdom, $7,441; Danish West Indies, $3,180; Colombia, $30,659; and Samoa, $975.

A mere glance at this compilation of countries establishes the fact that this export and import of coin is a movement comparatively unimportant, and based upon intelligible commercial or financial reasons in nowise connected with the 16-to-1 propaganda. No one can draw from it the conclusion that the silver dollar passes current outside of the United States, and that its free coinage would bring it into such favor as to make its circulation abroad larger than it now is. Wherever it is taken, it is because of the want of local currency, or in the ordinary settlement of a trade balance. Wherever it is received, it is liable to be sent back to the United States on the first opportunity. Wherever it passes at its face value, it is on sufferance, and this toleration is subject to recall at any time—as recently in Canada. To confuse the export of coin with the exports of silver bullion is to commit a serious blunder. The export movement of domestic bullion in 1896 was $52,124,964, of which $41,578,367 went to the United Kingdom, $3,377,126 to France, $3,009,983 to Japan, and $3,283,710 to China.

It is in this commercial movement of silver bullion that the best interests of

silver may be conserved. It is free from every restriction, as the silver passes at its market value, like the wheat, corn, or mineral oil that is sent abroad. No nation of any commercial importance imposes customs duties on bullion, and all ports are open to its unrestrained import. In no one year have the exports of silver from the United States been so large as in 1896, and the total has steadily increased in late years, with less fluctuations, indeed, than any other item of the same moment. The exports of wheat, cotton, oil, and provisions have shown wider variations than have the exports of silver. Every ounce of silver produced in the United States finds a market at home or abroad, and finds it in the same manner as does the corn, cotton, iron, or any other domestic product of agriculture, mining, fishery, or manufactures. In 1895 the product of American silver mines was 55,727,000 fine ounces. The exports of silver bullion were 62,783,792 ounces of varying degrees of fineness. Not only had the demand for silver in the arts been met, but a profitable sale of every ounce beyond that want had been made as well as of what came in from Mexican mines. This must have been a profitable export; otherwise it would not have held its own and increased from year to year, as it has done.

To give an artificial value to silver, as is proposed by the Bryanites, would cut off this trade at once. No one would export bullion, for he could find greater profit in coining it at the United States mints, using the coin to cheat his creditors and depreciate the currency. No one could export the coin except at the bullion value, and silver would sink from fifth or sixth place in importance among the domestic exports to a very unimportant position.

THE BIBLE AS A TEXT-BOOK.

THE promotion of Bible study in ways and places out of the ordinary has been much labored for of late years. Publishers have lent themselves to the movement, and series of books like the "Modern Readers' Bible" have been devised to supply what was thought to be the new demand. The American Society of Religious Education has made it one of its aims to secure the introduction of the Bible as a text-book into the curriculum of colleges. President Rankin of Howard University reports in the *Independent* the results of inquiries addressed, in the name of this Society, to college authorities respecting the place occupied by Bible study in the religious life or the regular academic course of their institutions.

Nearly all of them speak of the interest of students in Bible study, which, on the whole, is thought to be on the increase, or "certainly not declining," though but few colleges require it. Elective courses are offered, but their typical fate seems to be shadowed forth in the experience at Williams College, where, says President Carter, "the gentleman who conducts it required rather severe work of his class the first year, and the students have been shy of it ever since." In other words, if not "a soft snap," an elective course in Biblical study has not the attractions for collegians that their elders might hope. All told, it does not appear that the Bible has been extensively introduced as a text-book into the college course, as a result of the efforts of the American Society of Religious Education.

There are some good reasons why it cannot be successfully introduced. One of them is that the intentions of those moving in the matter, while most excellent, are not entirely clear or entirely serious. When they argue for the study of the Bible, what do they mean? Do they mean to urge students, as Jowett used to urge his, to study the New Testament just as they would any other Greek book? We doubt it greatly. There is, in fact, an entire field of Biblical study, and that the most interesting of all, which we presume there is not the slightest thought of having taken up in the colleges. We mean, of course, the modern investigations into what may be called the natural history of the Old and New Testaments—the catching up of oral and popular traditions into manuscripts, their blending and transmutations and taking of color from different hands; all the fascinating methods and results embraced in the new discipline of Biblical Theology. If one means by Bible study the study of what throws the most light on the Bible, all these things should certainly be included in it. But few or none of them are included, we venture to say, in the plans of those who are urging the colleges to make a text-book of the Bible.

Now, college students, or at least the older of them to whom most of the Biblical electives are offered, are more or less aware of the truncated nature of the Bible study proposed to them. They know that the highest authorities are not as naturally appealed to in this department as in all others. The results arrived at by the most masterly investigations are not freely laid before them. They have only to remember the case of the *Sunday-School Times*, a few years ago, in engaging the first Old Testament scholar in England, Canon Driver, to write on the Bible for its columns, and then in taking fright at what he wrote and cancelling the engagement; they have only to recall the frequent troubles into which ministers and theological professors get as a result of *their* Bible study, to make them feel that a subject which has to be studied so very circumspectly is a good one to leave alone. The number of the *Independent* which followed the one giving the account of the effort to make the Bible a college text-book, recorded the dismissal of a professor from Colgate University for having studied and taught the Bible in a way distasteful to the trustees. With such facts before their eyes, thoughtful students must be slow to believe that it is really the frank and fearless study of the Bible which is proposed to them.

The real aim of those urging the required study of the Bible in colleges is, of course, not knowledge, but edification. They wish not so much to expand the minds of students as to improve their characters and safeguard their morals. This is an end with which all must sympathize, but that it can be attained by any kind of indirection may be doubted. The old way was more straightforward. You were a child of wrath in danger of hell fire, and here was the book to tell you the only way of escape. Neglect its daily and terrified reading at your peril. But nowadays you are an amiable youth, much given to athletics and other frivolities, having a mighty good time on your way through college, whom it would be well to persuade that the Bible is a very interesting book to study, with the idea of making you take a little more serious view of life. That kind of net is commonly spread in vain in the sight of any bird, especially when the bird is a college student. He will be apt to make his own the opinion of an *enfant terrible*, that the Bible is fine reading provided one is allowed to skip the religious parts.

The whole question is only a part of a much larger and older one—the relation of knowledge to piety. Are the wisest men the best men? If not, are ignorance and superstition conducive to true goodness? Abstractly, these questions have been answered, and are still answered, both yes and no. But practically there is no longer any use in putting them at all. For better or for worse, the world has chosen the side of knowledge, is committed to free inquiry, whatever the results in thought or life. We are in for it in respect of Bible study, as well as all other study, and must stand the consequences as best we may. An obsolete and unscientific way of studying the Bible cannot any longer be excused on the ground that it makes our boys good. Least of all can such a way be excused in a college course, or the slightest substantial good be expected to come of it.

THE STUDY OF THE NOVEL.

VAGUE rumors have long been afloat to the effect that novel-reading—once, at best, a venial sin—is now regarded by leaders of opinion as a serious and elevating occupation, and that the commendatory phrase "diligent student of the novel" has supplanted the old, contemptuous "inveterate novel-reader." The rumor gains credibility from the works of many contemporary novelists, which, whatever may be their design, is certainly not to encourage the pursuit of transient pleasure or to abet the profligate killing of time. Further verification appears in the prosperity of literary clubs, noted appreciatively by foreign observers and making Sir Walter Besant hopeful of the approach of a brilliant era of

literary production in America. The lists for study by these clubs generally include a good many novels.

A year or so ago, Dr. Moulton, Professor of English Literature in the University of Chicago, prefacing an account of "The Backworth Classical Novel-Reading Union," warmly advocated the study of fiction. Now, in connection with the "Programme for 1896-'97 of the Modern Novel Club of St. Louis, Mo.," Mrs. C. H. Stone issues an impassioned appeal to "Reading Clubs and Students of Fiction." Dr. Moulton and Mrs. Stone agree perfectly that the study is of vast importance, but are sadly at variance as to the kind of fiction to be studied and the kind of people qualified to expound and illuminate. Dr. Moulton counsels recourse to the world's great literature, reading and rereading of the great masters, and absolutely doubts whether anything should be read which is not ten years old. He thinks directors of the study should be authoritative persons, of a class described by him as literary experts. Mrs. Stone is quite of another mind, and would probably hold it better that all novels (and therefore novel-clubs) should perish than that the study should be pursued in the pastures and under the auspices advocated by Dr. Moulton.

It is sad to behold an infant science torn by the aged quarrels of the schools, and horrible to learn from Mrs. Stone that "the path of life to-day is strewn thickly with the wreck of youthful souls" because of the neglect of the study of "modern novels of realism, analysis, and purpose, the only existing key to the riddle of human nature and motives." She is confident that much of human misery should be ascribed to a traditional devotion to "literature," and that critics are always conspiring to lead, coerce, drive the public to read vain and frivolous fiction because by some unholy means (probably the direct prompting of Satan) it has come to be called literature. Her views are so extreme that no hope of compromise with the classics can be rationally entertained. Dr. Moulton, if reasoned with, might come down, but Mrs. Stone could not conscientiously treat with Apollyon. Assuredly nobody can wish to be implicated in the wrecking of youthful souls, and the dread of becoming innocent participators in crime may lead the St. Louis Club and the other clubs, once made cognizant of peril, incontinently to destroy all their books tainted with suspicion of being literature. Let them reflect, for the day may come when a youthful soul, steering safely to port by the light of 'George's Mother' or 'Tom Grogan' (both works are on the current Programme), may capriciously demand 'The Arabian Nights' or 'Paul and Virginia,' but, demanding in vain, desert to Dr. Moulton's ship and thus be for ever lost.

Mrs. Stone is apparently the Southwestern apostle of Modern Novel Science, and her disciples may naturally feel a delicacy about criticising her judgment. But, for the health of the science in other regions, they might at least tactfully proffer their good offices. No one need allude to Mrs. Stone's tacit assumption that "modern fiction of the more serious grades" is not literature; a controversy on that point would be most edifying if left to her and the authors of some of the books studied by the St. Louis Club during its eight years of existence. All the clubs could assent to her assertion that "the term fiction has a greater significance than the term literature," with a rider declaring that they don't know why any more than she does. There is no need to strain relations by inquiring too closely into the justice of her abhorrence of professed critics, including teachers and clergymen. If literature is that corrupt and deadly product of the human brain which she says it is, then undoubtedly the incompetence, laziness, insincerity, and viciousness of its avowed admirers and teachers have not been overdrawn by her. No! To proceed dispassionately and with dignity befitting serious students, it is only necessary to consider quietly whether Mrs. Stone shows enough acquaintance with literature to justify her wrath, and whether, indeed, she has any clear notion of the meaning of the word.

"Human rights," she says, "are greater than literature," and so are "truth and human nature"; and, further, literature is quite inadequate to explain modern character and conditions, or to be helpful in this "great, seething present," this "great, throbbing, happy or aching life of to-day." Literature has something to do with beauty of form and skill in phrase-making, and to these trivial decorations Mrs. Stone is half-willing that modern novelists should make discreet concessions. But literature has nothing to do with ideas except those of a sensual and vicious order, and "it is the stronghold in which impurity is most firmly intrenched." In brief, since man put pen to paper, nothing fictitious has been written, survived, and been admired except more or less pleasing delineations of "passion not love," and descriptions of "the coarsest passions and sensualism"; and these compositions have become literature for these reasons and no other. Moreover, literature is apparently one of those mysterious institutions hostile to truth and humanity; and from certain dark references to "the unprincipled money power," it would seem that Mrs. Stone may even suspect it of secret alliance with wealth, and may believe that the critics are munificently bribed to shout that it is the only thing in the world just as good as gold! Considering the bitterness of Mrs. Stone's feelings, the clubs ought not to burn their 'Rasselas' or 'Vicar of Wakefield' hastily, and they might perhaps go so far in the quest of truth as to examine for themselves the only specimens of fully accredited literature which Mrs. Stone is able to bring herself to mention. Naming in the way of duty to youthful souls such names as "Twelfth Night" and 'Tom Jones' must have given her a "turn" quite as bad as the "turn" which untimely accidents in the way of her profession used to give Mrs. Gamp. Therefore, let no one depreciate her courage. The pain inflicted on her by the use of the former work in the schools of her town (presumably St. Louis) leads one to suppose that an epidemic of the Elizabethan sweating sickness would be more wholesome for the citizens than an epidemic of Shakspere.

There is something hopeless in a movement to cure the universal infatuation about Shakspere, but no harm could be done if the clubs should try to determine whether the madness is to be accounted for solely by his supreme facility in beautiful expression and his unparalleled depravity. If a few of those "valuable ideas" which extend sympathy and "broaden understanding of life" should be found, Mrs. Stone might be persuaded to take a more lenient view of his performances. It is not probable that she could be got to budge an inch from her position towards 'Tom Jones.' She perhaps knows very well that the history of that bold, bad young man has not become literature because sensual seductions lurk in Mr. Fielding's formal eighteenth-century periods. This is the triumph of license, a signal example of the "strange power of the magic word literature to dwarf the value even of purity"; and a justice of "one of our courts" gave the case for the classics away when he allowed the issue of a new edition "because 'Tom Jones' is a part of our glorious system of English literature." Mrs. Stone says the judge was constrained to this decision, and gave it reluctantly, but she does not say who saw him wink. There is no certainty that Mrs. Stone was in court, but, if another application should be made to dress the sinner out in parchment and gilt, it is to be hoped she may be there and see a judge with her address in his hand and hear him grant the application because, "in spite of its being literature, 'Tom Jones' so nearly approaches that glorious thing of uncertain birthday and no antecedents, the modern novel of realism and purpose as described by a learned authority." Of course, no judge could be sure that Mr. Fielding wrote "with the purest of motives," as Mrs. Stone declares that Mr. Hardy wrote 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles,' but the court is more concerned with results than causes, and as between the fiction which is literature and the fiction which Mrs Stone thinks is not, would probably find the former more worthy of consideration by persons of sense and more likely to promote the practice of many virtues.

These reflections and suggestions are offered to the clubs solely in the interest of harmony, and with a desire to shield the young science from enfeeblement by schism. Unless some sort of reconciliation should be patched up, it is much to be feared that the novel may be degraded and become again a cherished instrument of idleness and frivolity—a tragic circumstance for both Dr. Moulton and Mrs. Stone.

THE CONSTANTINOPLE MASSACRES.

ATHENS, September 18, 1896.

TWELVE HUNDRED Armenian refugees, nearly all of them men and boys, are now here and at the Piræus, a few in houses hired for the purpose by the Local Relief Committee, but the majority huddled together in army tents which the Greek Government has provided, and which have been set up in the open fields at New Phalerum. At Syra there are 300 more, at Patras some sixty or seventy. Only 250 of those here have found work; the rest are entirely dependent upon the local committee, which draws its funds from private philanthropy.

Each refugee's account of what he himself saw during the first three days of the massacres throws abundant light upon the complicity of the Turkish authorities in the atrocities committed. One, a coal heaver, relates how he escaped from the coal depots at Lower Pera, when all his fellow-Armenian coal-heavers, some forty-four in number, were suddenly surrounded by a Musulman mob, headed by some twenty-five policemen, and butchered to a man. The mob then rushed to their victims' lodgings, which they plundered and destroyed. Another was in a house opposite Fundukli's Khan, a large four-story building, which was besieged by a crowd of over four hundred Sòftas, headed by soldiers. The iron gates were forced. Some fifteen Armenians, who were employed in the building as porters, sought safety on the roof, but were pursued even there, and each one, after receiving several stabs, was hurled down from the roof into the street, while the crowd below yelled, "Long live Sultan Hamid!" Two refugees depose

that they saw two other Armenians caught by a Turkish butcher and his assistants, and, after being suspended by the feet from the meat-hooks in front of the shop, literally hacked to pieces by the butchers with their meat knives. Another eye-witness relates that an Armenian priest, while walking in the street, was followed by a Turkish mob, and, on attempting to take refuge in the house of a Frenchman, was dragged out by his robes. When the inmates of the house expostulated in his behalf, a Turkish officer in the crowd replied that the Government had issued an order that all Giaours should be slaughtered. The priest was therefore dragged off towards Galata-Seraï, but, after only a few steps, his head was split open with an axe by some one in the crowd. A well-dressed Armenian was eating in an open restaurant when the night-patrol passed; the officer in command, knowing him to be an Armenian, ordered him to come to the police-station. He asked to be allowed to finish his food, but was dragged out promptly, and bayonetted to death on the sidewalk in front of the restaurant At Bahdjè-Kapoù two Armenians were discovered hiding on a roof; the policemen rushed into the house and hurled them down into the street, crying, "Long live Sultan Hamid!" At Feri-Kŏï a well to-do Armenian on horseback was seized and knocked off his horse by the police, who then told the mob to cut his head off, which was promptly done.

In many cases Turks accepted money from the Armenians to hide them, took them to their own houses, and then hastened to inform the police, who never failed to come and drag them off to slaughter. Two of the refugees saw thirty of their fellow-countrymen slaughtered in quick succession, in the space of a few minutes. An Armenian was knocked down by a Bashi-Bazuk and left insensible, whereupon an officer approached, drew his sword, and stabbed the fallen man through and through the body, until he was sure that he was dead. In front of the Swiss Legation a young Armenian milkman was butchered. A passing corpse cart refused to take the body, on the ground that, according to orders, it must first be dragged by the feet to the nearest police-station, as an example to Giaours. The day before the outbreak an eye-witness relates that, in front of his shop, a water seller was asked by a policeman for a glass of water, which was given; but when the man asked for payment the policeman glared at him, and went away without paying. Next day the same policeman returned with several others, caught the water seller, and hacked him literally to pieces before the shop, crying, "Giaour! yesterday you wanted money for a drink of water; now we will drink your blood!"

Testimony of special importance was given by another refugee. He was sitting in a café with some Greek friends when a servant of the Grand Vizier came in and, being personally acquainted with one of the Greeks, sat down with them and related how his master's cook, an Armenian, had been summoned on the day when the troubles broke out, and paid, and told that he must leave. The poor man begged to be allowed to remain a few days longer, until quiet should be restored, but the Grand Vizier refused. The man then begged for at least a safe-conduct, upon which his master gave him in charge of a Turkish fellow-servant, who, acting upon orders, conducted him to the Galata-Seraï, where, at a sign from him, the policemen cut the Armenian down and rifled his body.

Another eye-witness, who was employed in the Feri-Kŏï beer-garden, on the road leading to the Armenian cemetery, testifies to having counted, from 10 P. M. on Wednesday until Thursday noon, 28 ox-carts and 136 ordinary carts full of dead bodies, passing up the road from Galata and Pera alone, while 71 cartloads came from the Haskoï road. Near the cemetery there were some ice-houses, with great trenches, where the ice is stored in winter, and now empty. Here the bodies were thrown in pell-mell, by a force of 58 Turks (according to witness) who were employed by the authorities, who forbade any Armenian or Christian to have any share in the work. Another witness testified that on Wednesday and Thursday nights, from dark until morning, a continuous file of carts full of dead bodies was moving up the road to the cemetery heights above Pera.

The refugees speak enthusiastically of the friendly attitude of the Persian Mohammedans of the Shiz sect, who protected and succored many an Armenian at peril of their own lives, against the infuriated Softas. The Jews, on the contrary, were zealously engaged in marking with a cross all doors where Armenians were to be found. It is noteworthy, that, according to the unanimous testimony of all the refugees whom I interviewed, the Turkish mob, while engaged in slaughter, and even the Turkish officials at Galata-Seraï would cry out, at each act of butchery, "Long live England! See what England does for you! Take that from your friends the English!"

But the crowning testimony is that of a young Armenian of barely twenty-one, whose splendid physical proportions and frank, ingenuous face attracted my notice. I found that I had, to use Cicero's words, "stepped into a history." This young fellow belonged to a body of twenty-five firemen and porters attached to the Galata Seraï (the chief police station of Constantinople) Only four of their number were Kurds and Turks, and they disappeared just before the outbreak; the remaining twenty-one were all Armenians. When the massacres began, only eleven of them happened to be at the café, or public house, near the entrance to the Seraï, where they lodged. My informant was among the eleven. About 2 P. M. on Wednesday, when cartloads of dead bodies began to arrive at the Seraï, the Chief of Police sent for them, and set them to sorting the dead Turks from the Giaours, as the Moslems consider it unclean to handle a dead Giaour. In this first instalment of dead only five or six were Armenians, the remainder being Turks, probably soldiers, but all were naked. When this task was over, the porters were ordered back to the public house, and told not to stir out on pain of being shot. At the same time strict orders were given and guards posted about the public house to prevent these men from being molested.

From this tavern the porters could see all that passed in the Seraï, and counted over 300 Armenians brought in under arrest by the police and troops. Soon they were sent for again from the Seraï, and found a horrible piece of work awaiting them. The arrested Armenians were all crowded into a large hall; a door opened into a broad passage, terminating at a steep flight of stone steps leading down into a courtyard. Each of the arrested Armenians was called out by an officer into the passage, which he found lined with officers and soldiers, the latter carrying fixed bayonets on their muskets. He was ordered to walk forward, and as he reached the top of the steps he received a stunning blow on the head with a cudgel, and a bayonet thrust on either side, through the ribs. The body falling down the stairs was taken by the Armenian porters, who were waiting at the bottom, and dragged out into the courtyard and down into the cellars. This butchery lasted for three hours and a half, an uninterrupted succession of blows and bayonet thrusts, the bodies falling down the steps almost without a groan. The porters were soon covered with blood as they had to pile up the bodies in the cellars; one of them, the captain of the fire brigade, fainted away at the fifth corpse that he lifted, and a Turkish officer standing by gave orders to have him removed and restoratives applied. When the sickening work was over, the porters were ordered to wash themselves, but they were so saturated with blood that the soldiers had to turn the fire-hose on them to wash them off. My informant showed me his broad linen girdle, which, though washed since then, bore distinct traces of blood. Then they were ordered to wash down the steps and the courtyard, after which they were ordered back to their tavern, and told to be on hand for night-work. After their return to the public house, they saw a large number of carts loaded with dead bodies brought to the Seraï.

In the evening they were again sent for, this time to drag out the corpses which they had piled up in the cellars that afternoon, and to load them upon carts. Nineteen cartloads of eighteen or twenty bodies each were thus sent off successively, each under charge of one porter and two soldiers, to the Armenian cemetery. My informant said: "While piling up the corpses we saw many an eye open and close, and heard an occasional groan or sigh, but it was night, and we were working with a band of sentinels and officers over us, and could do nothing for any unfortunate wretch who was not quite dead." At the cemetery each cartload was emptied into the trenches, and the cart drove back at once with the porters and guards, leaving the rest to the Turkish laborers stationed at the cemetery, no one else being allowed to approach. Everything was under strong military surveillance. The Seraï was crowded with troops under the command of higher officers in full uniform. After the carting was finished, the porters once more washed out the courtyard and were dismissed for the night. Next morning (Thursday) very early they heard the noise of fighting and killing in the neighboring streets renewed. They were soon called out under strong military escort to drag into the Seraï the corpses with which the Grande Rue de Pera and the adjoining streets were thickly strewn. My informant saw his sister's son, a youth of eighteen, set upon by the police and cut down, but not before the lad had drawn a revolver and shot two of his assailants dead. Our friend had been obliged to drag his nephew's body by the feet into the Seraï like all the rest. The bodies were again piled up in the cellars, awaiting transportation by night. This bloody work lasted from early morning until about half an hour before sunset; then the porters were once more dismissed and not called out again that night.

During the following twelve days they were employed in various less outrageous ways about the Seraï, but were never allowed to go one step beyond the outside sentinels, while within strict orders had been given that no one should lay hands upon them. Finally, my informant, who was trusted more than his fellows, was given a letter by the head commis-

sioner to carry to one of the islands, and, after delivering it, he determined to escape. A police officer of the Seraï was at his heels who had a long-standing grudge against him, and it was evident that he was bent upon getting the porter into some corner and killing him. As the Armenian was passing the Greek embassy, he succeeded in darting through the open gate, in spite of the cries of the policeman. He was kindly received by the Greek Ambassador, who himself had him put into a carriage and sent, under charge of a cavass, to the Greek steamer, which brought him and many others safely to Piræus. I may add that I have succeeded in obtaining a list of the Turkish military and police officers who assisted at this infamous butchery in the Galata Seraï, but must refrain from publishing it, out of regard for the safety of the other ten Armenian porters who are still imprisoned there and employed about the premises. Besides, it is only too evident that all these officials, high and low, were but executing the orders of "the great assassin."

D. KALOPOTHAKES.

AMHERST ECLIPSE EXPEDITION.—IV.

YACHT CORONET,
YOKOHAMA HARBOR, August 31, 1896.

THE little town of Esashi, in northern Hokkaido, temporarily raised into prominence by a total eclipse track having seen fit to traverse its domain, has now returned to its normal quiet, echoes of the great world growing fainter in the distance as the various scientific expeditions retreat further from the Sea of Okhotsk towards more frequented regions. Our own expedition and that from the Paris Observatory under Prof. Deslandres, as well as Prof. Terao's party from the Imperial (Tokyo) University, used about a week after the eclipse in taking down instruments, packing apparatus, and dismantling the stations generally. We had the sad satisfaction (I use the expression advisedly, for if the circumstances had been different I should have had to say "the happy exasperation") of hearing from the Astronomer Royal of England in Akkeshi that at his station the sky was heavily clouded and nothing was done. Even yet we have not heard how the European parties fared; but that this corona was one of unusual brilliancy was evident from its brightness through the thinly drifting clouds which obscured its detail.

The Ainu, however, were obscured by no clouds of any sort during the sojourn in their vicinity, and very fine opportunities for studying this interesting race were afforded. There are no roads in northern Yezo, no jinrikishas, no kagos no carriages, but plenty of horses and no side saddles. So the country had to be explored in a rather primitive but perfectly effectual manner, on horseback through the narrow and often bewildering footpaths through the thickly growing scrub bamboo, or along the hard sand beaches at low tide. In these rides I was fortunate in having the company of a Japanese gentleman, formerly a governor of one of the Hokkaido provinces, who knows the Ainu thoroughly, and their language as well, and who, still better, is well known to them for many miles in all directions. In a way they are a shy race, almost hermit-like so far as foreigners are concerned, and any casual traveller visiting the villages alone, or with a Japanese guide who is strange to them, sees little of their life or customs, and can rarely purchase any of their implements or articles of dress. The fact that foreigners were in the region had interested them greatly, and that for the first time a foreign lady was near by aroused much curiosity, and at all the villages they seemed as glad to see me as I was to see them. So, mutually in exceedingly good humor, and able to communicate easily by my helpful acquaintance, our study of each other progressed finely.

The elder women have elaborate ornamentation around the mouth in tattooing of a blue-black color, which gives them a peculiarly barbarous appearance; but the young girls are attractive, and often pretty, for the tattooing was forbidden by the Japanese Government several years ago, and, while not entirely suppressed, is far less frequent than formerly. These young girls have generally a clear brown skin, showing a warm russet red in the cheeks, with beautiful brown eyes shaded by long and thick eyelashes. In the younger generation, too, the luxuriant black hair is often simply coiled at the back of the head, instead of being cut in the strangely awkward native way, to stand out thickly on each side of the head, like an overgrown hearth brush, and perfectly short at the back of the head, nearly half-way to the top. Their teeth are even and white, and altogether they look little like the cruel heathen race they were formerly supposed to be. But the Ainus have no literature, no written language even, and their arts are of the rudest. Contact with the cultivated Japanese for a thousand years has apparently taught them little or nothing, and even now they would be scarcely beyond the stone age except for the easily obtained implements of Japanese make.

The native Ainu utensils are primitive and very interesting. The bows with their poisoned arrows, the tobacco pouches, the knife handles and sheaths, the apparatus for weaving elm-fibre into cloth—all of wood, often very well carved—have sometimes been handed down from parent to child through several generations. Frequently a family has but one of each article, and that one highly prized, which accounts largely for their dislike of selling their possessions. My Japanese friend however, prevailed upon some of the Ainu to sell their dearly loved heirlooms, by the promise of unlimited saké as well as the purchase money. I was fortunate enough to find a garment of salmon skin, quite elaborately decorated, made in the same shape as the more ordinary elm-fibre kimono, and the only one of its kind encountered during the summer. Some of the beads and ornaments used for the great bear festivals are brought from Saghalien, and are quite odd enough to have originated in a region so remote.

In one of the horseback rides within a few miles of Esashi, I visited an Ainu house where a very old man lived, with many children and grandchildren. The roof was thatched thickly with scrub bamboo, and the general plan within was much like the usual type of Japanese house—one end having a floor of earth trodden hard, and the remainder, raised a foot or more above, covered with the straw mats. A square hole was filled with burning fagots, the smoke from which was supposed to find its own way out of a small hole in the roof, but seemed to prefer loitering about the room. The rafters hung several inches deep with soot, and even the fish drying above was similarly ornamented. Lying on the floor, with one arm thrown over his eyes, lay an Ainu man sound asleep, his bushy hair and beard standing out weirdly about his face. Two or three shy children were eating rice near the fire, over which an iron pot, full of an indescribable stew, was suspended, and bubbling vigorously. A pretty young girl sat sewing dark-blue Japanese cotton upon an elm fibre apron in fanciful figures, and an older woman, curled into a tiny heap, looked up at us from beneath her arm with bright and rather alarmed eyes. Round the room were piled the family treasures, in a rather chaotic mass, but conspicuous among them, as always, were two or three large round boxes of old Japanese lacquer, in which the choicest things are kept, and which, if dire poverty or misfortune come, are parted with the last. There is a legend to the effect that when Yoshitsune, in disgrace and obliged to flee from the main island during the shogunate of his brother Yorimoto, many hundred years ago, took refuge in Hokkaido, he escaped from his enemies in one of these boxes caused miraculously to contain him. He is in a sense the god of Hokkaido, and his memory is devoutly worshipped. Kakimonos representing him are found in many places, always brought out and reverently hung on feast days.

The old man we had come to see stood in the low doorway of the house, and the interior was so dark that his face was hardly seen in detail. He was an impressive figure, with a magnificent brush of white hair and beard. But the soot, the smoke, the close air, the dim light, the huddling family, the mental as well as the physical atmosphere, was oppressive, and a full breath of outer oxygen and sunshine was an intense relief. The first object I happened to see upon emerging was the fine French cruiser *Alger* lying off in the harbor outside Esashi, in attendance upon Prof. Deslandres. Such are the sharp contrasts in this world that, coming instantly from an Ainu hut and a near-at-hand study of one of the most primitive races in the world (rapidly dying out from sheer inability to maintain itself in the face of another nation), into the clear air outside, it should be possible to see in a single glance an epitome of that world's best civilization: one night a French dinner party upon a man-of-war representing one of the most cultivated of countries, the next morning a call in a house within plain sight, where books were never heard of, where furniture is unknown, where lives, eats, sleeps, and weaves on the floor around a boiling pot of dreadful herbs an entire family, whose one relief from an intolerable monotony is the annual bear killing and feast, and to whom no thought or knowledge ever came of a possible civilization beyond.

In another village an old woman was the most picturesque figure. Wrinkled and brown, she was bent nearly double, as she hobbled along leaning on a stick. Her bushy hair was snow-white, her mouth elaborately tattooed. Huge hoops of German silver weighed down her ears, and a brass bracelet was conspicuously worn above a score of bracelets done in tattoo. Her daughters and granddaughters stood or crouched about her when she rested, with babies strapped upon their backs after the Japanese fashion. She was so interested in her odd caller that she managed to get to the edge of the river near the house, in order to watch my horse step upon the flat bottomed ferry-boat, which a shock-headed Ainu boy was pulling across by a rope. Some of the rivers had no ferry, in which case we forded them, but on one occasion in the deepest place our horse deliberately lay down, to the discomfiture, temporarily at least, of his rider.

Could the stay in these curious regions have

been prolonged another month, the great interest ethnologically (and geologically and botanically as well) would have been by no means exhausted. But each time on returning from these excursions I found a few more instruments taken down and carefully packed, a few more tents gone, a few more boxes piled in the old school house ready for transportation, and a few more long pieces of silk and satin and paper, brought in by our kindly Japanese friends, upon which we were asked to paint poems or pictures for kakimonos.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

A POLISH SUMMER RESORT.

ZAKOPANE, GALICIA, August 25, 1896.

FOUR or five hours after leaving Cracow, in a wearisome train which crawls to the west and south, the traveller may get off at the little station of Chabówka and bargain with a crowd of clamorous peasants, in white costumes, for a conveyance that shall take him up into the hills. Then comes a rather uninteresting ride of nearly six hours more before his destination is reached, and he finds himself in the village of Zakopane, at the foot of the Tatra, "the only lofty mountain range among the West Carpathians," according to Baedeker. The settlement is, of course, centuries old, and was mentioned in a royal document in 1578, but only within the last twenty years has it become a summer and even winter resort of increasing popularity. A Warsaw physician discovered that it had a good climate for consumptives, owing to its pure air, sheltered position, and few extremes of heat or cold. Consumptives came, accordingly, followed by healthier tourists; soon new streets were laid out, a hotel, boarding-houses, villas, hydropathic establishments, a casino, etc., were built; the natives found it profitable to hire themselves out as guides, their poaching propensities having given them a very good knowledge of the region; in short, Zakopane has developed into a full-blown summer resort, which attracts some five thousand visitors every year, and hopes to attract many more when connected by rail with Chabówka, as it seems likely to be in the near future.

The peculiarity of this mass of strangers is that, though some of them come from long distances, they are not in the least cosmopolitan. Occasionally a stray German, Hungarian, or other foreigner passes through, but, as far as the present writer can learn, he has been the only visitor, not of Polish blood or connections, who has stayed for any length of time. The place is a meeting-ground for Poles from all the lands where they are to be found. More than half of the people are from "the kingdom of Poland," Lithuania, or elsewhere in the Russian dominions; others from Posen or West Prussia under German rule; others from hereabouts (the Austrian province of Galicia), and some, finally, from countries like the United States, where there are Polish emigrants. It is true that this gathering does not usually include many members of the highest aristocracy or most fashionable society, but there are enough even of them to make the crowd a representative one, well worth the study of any lover of national characteristics. The tie that unites all here is intense patriotism, however quiet and at times despondent; a feeling of national unity unaffected by present political conditions. Although we are in Austria, one rarely catches a word of German—yet many must speak it perfectly; whereas one not infrequently hears passers-by conversing in French, or even occasionally in English, for the number that know it more or less is surprisingly large. Life goes on much as at similar centres in all parts of the world. When the weather permits, for rain is frequent, there are excursions into the mountains; there are two or three dances a week, often to raise money for some church or Polish school; there are likewise charitable bazaars and other such methods of killing time; and there is, of course, not a little gossip, heart-burning, and strife.

Besides the transient visitors, more permanent ones come regularly to stay for a considerable time, and others even remain and settle down in houses they have bought or built. Thus, it is said that in winter, the dead season, Zakopane can still boast of twenty-two eligible widows, with more family than fortune. Of the people that live here for a large part of the year, the best-known is the novelist Sienkiewicz, several of whose books have been translated into English, and one of them particularly, 'With Fire and Sword,' has been widely read in America. By his compatriots he is looked upon as their greatest writer today, a master of style, who ranks with the first of contemporary authors anywhere. Naturally his acquaintance is much sought, but, in order to avoid being lionized to death, he is chary of meeting his countrymen, preferring to let himself be admired at a distance. At present he is at work on a novel whose scene is to be laid in the beginning of the fifteenth century, at the time of the decisive struggle between the Poles and the German order of the Teutonic Knights, which ended in the triumph of the former.

The proprietor of most of the land in the township is Count Z——, a member of one of the greatest Polish families, who has travelled in the United States and Australia, and who, as not being a German citizen, was expelled from Prussia, where he owns an enormous estate, at the time when Bismarck, in order to further the process of Germanization, suddenly put out of the country some forty thousand foreigners, many of whom had been settled there for years. Although the estate is decaying in the enforced absence of its master, he refuses to sell it, for it would be bought up by the Government committee which has charge of the fund to promote German colonization in the Polish parts of Prussia. The Count's mother has founded and is at the head of a manual training-school for girls, which she transferred hither when obliged to leave her former home, after being arrested in the middle of the night. The girls are divided into three classes, according to what they pay, the first class usually being daughters of the nobility, who come for a year to learn practical housekeeping; the second belong to families in moderate circumstances; the third, by far the most numerous, are peasant children, who often remain for many years, learning domestic service in all its branches, while, instead of paying anything for their education, they are in most cases supported by the Z—— family with the help of stray gifts from outside. Although the three classes eat and sleep separately, they work together at the same occupations. The teachers, who are of various nationalities—one of them even being an American—get little more for their services than the reward of good consciences. The whole institution is a noble undertaking that does much good, and reflects the greatest credit on the generous and devoted people who have given up their lives to it.

The natives of Podhale, as this district is called, are an interesting race, different in many respects from the ordinary Polish peasants. As the land here formerly belonged to the crown, serfdom was unknown; also, the wild character of the region made it a refuge for those who had got into trouble elsewhere. Fifty years ago these mountaineers were little better than brigands; even now they are inveterate poachers, and more than one of them has killed his man, generally in feuds with the Slovacks who inhabit the Hungarian slope of the range. All this has developed a type far more manly and independent than is to be found in the neighboring plains. The visitors to Zakopane cannot get over their astonishment at meeting peasants who actually shake hands and expect their hands to be shaken, instead of kissing the hand, or even the foot or the hem of the dress of the upper classes, as is the custom not many leagues away. These Górale (mountaineers) are a fine-looking lot, rather small and slight, but frequently handsome, and most graceful in movements and attitudes. Their costume, too, is very picturesque. When in full dress they wear moccasins, tight-fitting embroidered trousers of a stuff like white felt, and over the shirt a sleeveless waistcoat called a serdak, made of lambskins, which is usually worn with the wool inside, while the exterior is often embroidered; but in case of rain, or merely for greater coolness, the garment is reversed so that the wool is on the outside. Although the serdak does not protect the arms, it makes a good shooting or tramping jacket, much in favor with the tourists as well as the natives. Over it the mountaineer may put on, as a cloak, a long coat of the same material as the trousers, though not always white. The hat is of black felt with the brim turned down, and with a band made of a string of small shells. For their part the women are plainer and harder-featured; their dress is not peculiar or attractive. They are said to rule the men with a strong hand. The chief families are able to trace their ancestors for centuries; they are frequently quite well off, and they have plenty of natural pride. These peasants are also gifted with a good deal of artistic perception, as is shown by the style of their houses, which has fortunately been copied in the "villas," and they display in their woodcarving much original taste and skill. They are fond of merrymaking, especially of dances, the most striking of which is one that takes place outdoors at night, by the light of a great fire and pine torches, and goes by the significant name of "the dance of the brigands."

As for the nature of the country, the Tatra are too low to be compared with Switzerland; there are no snow peaks, glaciers, or real lakes. The highest mountains in the Polish part are about 7,500 feet, though across the Hungarian border, in the "High Tatra," some are over 8,750. Unfortunately, too, many of the woods have been cut down or thinned out. Still, we find much attractive scenery, mountains that are beautiful when looked at from below, and that offer grand views to those who take the trouble to climb them (and are fortunate in their weather), rocky gorges, clear streams, numbers of lovely little ponds in the midst of the wildest desolation, pastures where cows and sheep feed and are milked far away from any permanent habitation, now and then a glimpse of chamois, and plenty of chances of getting air and exercise, rest and health. To be sure, one can find these without going to Poland to look for them, but they are none the less to be appreciated, nor is it everywhere

that we can see a sort of summer capital of a gifted people who, though for a century they have had no independent or united political existence, have never for an instant ceased to feel that they were one nation.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

CHAUCER'S FIRST ITALIAN JOURNEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Chaucer scholars, following Ten Brink, have designated the year 1372 as marking the beginning in Chaucer's literary development of a period characterized by the imitation of Italian literary methods. The date 1372 was chosen because it was that of his first Italian journey. Towards the end of that year Chaucer went to Italy on the King's business. Since a pension payment "per manus proprias," November 22, 1378, has been the first indication of his return, most biographers have felt, with Prof. Lounsbury, that Chaucer "may have been, and very likely was, absent about eleven months." In so long a stay, during which he may have met Petrarch, he must certainly have come under the influence of Italian literature. The lack of any works showing Italian influence, and written shortly after the first Italian journey, was made good by assigning *ad hoc* certain of the Canterbury Tales to this period. Prof. Skeat, for instance, has assigned the date 1374 to the 'Clerk's Tale' for no better reasons than its strophic form and his theory that Chaucer must have had it directly from Petrarch. I should hardly venture to dispute this generally accepted division of Chaucer's literary activity, were it not that I am fortunate enough to have new evidence to offer, which will prove that the first Italian journey was of much shorter duration than we have supposed.

Dr. Furnivall, with other kind assistance, first told me that there were unpublished entries with regard to the first Italian journey at the Record Office. A reference to the Oxford Chaucer showed me that Prof. Skeat had information, as it turned out to be, of an insufficient sort, of the contents of this document. It was, then, rather led by an irresistible desire to see any unpublished matter relative to Chaucer than with any hope of new light upon his life, that I visited the Record Office on the last day of a summer vacation and read the roll for myself.

To my surprise, I found that to the knowledge of this journey which we had had already from Chaucer's commission (printed *Foedera* iii., p. 964), the "Compotus" added the exact extent of his absence reckoned in days—one hundred and seventy-four; that, instead of an absence of quite eleven months, from December, 1372, to the 23d of November, 1373, we must deal with an absence of less than six months, from December 1, 1372, to May 28, 1373. There is no need of burdening these columns with the whole document, since I shall print it in full in the forthcoming number of *Modern Language Notes*. Suffice it to say that Chaucer, having started "in nuncio Regis," with an advance of £66 13s. 4d., and receiving on the 23d day of March £35 on the King's account from his colleague Jakes de Prouan "milite," found on his return to England that there was still due him for his pay and expenses £25 6s. 8d., for the payment of which sum the document is an elaborate voucher. The said sum represents unpaid wages due him "for journeying in the king's behalf"—"proficiscendo in dictis negocijs Regis, a predicto primo die Decembris anno xlvi° [Edw. III] finiente, quo die iter suum arripuit de London versus partes predictas [*i. e., Janue et Florencie*], usque ad xxiij^m^ diem Maij prox' sequentem, quo die rediit London, per clxxiiij dies: scilicet, eundo, morando & redeundo, utroque die computato."—*Roll of Foreign Accounts* 42-51, Edw. III., fol. 41.

From the one hundred and seventy-four days of the entire journey we must, guided by the pilgrim itineraries, deduct at least one hundred and twenty for the journey to Genoa and return, about twenty more should be allowed for the trip from Genoa to Florence and return—that is, at most, Chaucer spent something like fifty-four days in Italy, something more than the average Cook's tourist of today, while for errands of his own, such as the rather doubtful visit to Petrarch at Padua, he had a trifle more than a month, presumably in February and March, 1373. I hope to treat of this possible visit to Petrarch at another time.

It is of course possible that, in a visit of less than eight weeks, during which time he was engaged "in secretis negocijs Regis," he might have received the impulse that appears in his works only after the lapse of seven years and an intervening visit to Italy—it is possible, but it is also wholly improbable. Those of the Canterbury Tales, showing Italian influence, which have been assigned to the time immediately following 1373, have been placed there without sufficient internal or external evidence. After the second Italian journey of 1378 the case is far different. Within six years follow 'Troilus,' 'Palamon and Arcite,' 'The Parlement of Foules,' and the 'House of Fame'; *anni mirabiles* these, and unmistakably *anni Italiani*.

Is it not reasonable, and even necessary, to begin the "Italian period" with 1379, and to limit it to those six marvellous years in which Chaucer's development was so rapid, in which his assimilation of his Italian models was so complete? Unless we have lost considerable portions of Chaucer's work, we must, I think, regard the years from 1369, the 'Boke of the Duchesse,' to 1379, as largely given to official business of one sort and another, and thus lost to direct literary production. We may conceive that Chaucer had outgrown the conventional French ideals of his first period, without as yet having developed for himself the new ideals so prominent in his "Italian period." We must, I think, rearrange these periods so that the "Italian Period" shall extend only from 1379 to 1385, and while we shall thus have limited the time through which this influence worked, we shall have arrived at a truer recognition of the intensity with which it worked—we shall have established a more perfect harmony between our external chronology for Chaucer and the internal facts of his literary development as they appear in his works.

Finally, the American student of Chaucer will be inclined to query whether, after these many years, the resources of the Record Office have been fully utilized for Chaucer chronology—a query which, we trust, our English fellow-workers will not leave long unanswered.

FRANK JEWETT MATHER, JR.

WILLIAMS COLLEGE, September 28, 1896.

AMERICAN STUDENTS IN FRANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You were kind enough to insert a gratifying review of my article on "Les Universités de France et d'Amérique" (*Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, June 15, 1896), in your issue of July 9, for which I beg you to accept my thanks. May I ask space for a few additional remarks on the same subject, suggested by divers newspaper articles to which my attention has been frequently called of late? These notices, which seem to have appeared in journals all over America, are invariably of the nature of a personal advertisement. If only such, however, I should not trouble you with this letter; but, unfortunately, they are always combined with misleading statements, which ought not to pass unnoticed. Inasmuch, then, as my name has appeared in your columns as supporting a movement which these notices also purport to further, I think it my duty to explain my feeling in regard to them.

In the Chicago *Tribune* of Sunday, August 23, for example, under the heading, "Privileges for American Students," appears the following:

"A Chicago man, ——, has been instrumental in securing *great privileges* for American students desiring to pursue a university course in France. . . . Dr. —— maintains that France offers equal advantages [to those in Germany], and [he] has *by strenuous efforts* obtained *unusual privileges* for young American students desiring to pursue a course of study in France, where the universities of Lyons, Lille, Dijon, Toulouse, Bordeaux, and Montpellier offer *extraordinary opportunities* to the seekers after knowledge."

Permit me, Mr. Editor, to take exception both to the tone of this extract and to the statements therein contained. In the first place, the writer of the article represents our self-appointed advocate as begging for us certain privileges, which it required "strenuous efforts" on his part to obtain. If this statement is true, then it is evident that we have been put before the French public in a position as unfortunate as false. We all, I know, protest against being made to occupy the rôle of suppliants in this matter; for such we have not been. The *official* initiative has been entirely on the part of French university authorities. All that we have done has been to accept their outstretched hands and to assure them of our sincere sympathy; and, indeed, there was no other dignified way for us to act. It is true there is a reaction setting in in America against extreme Germanization, and it has certainly not come too soon. Many of us feel that the influence of the French should be greater in our universities, and we therefore welcome their advances gladly, and are willing to aid them as far as possible by directing the attention of American students to their seats of learning. But this is far from begging admittance with solicitude; and if we have been misrepresented, it is well to have the error corrected as soon as possible.

The article informs us, moreover, that one American, single-handed, has already been "instrumental in securing great and unusual privileges" for his fellow-countrymen in French universities. This, I regret to say, is not true. I have tried to keep *au courant* in this matter; but, so far as I know, no peculiar or special privilege has as yet been accorded American students in France, nor has any really important change in educational arrangements been made in order to attract them there. The only alteration of any significance of which I have learned is one in the require-

ments for the *licence* in natural sciences, which permit it to be taken by any one who cares to comply with certain not unreasonable conditions. This is a move in the right direction; but it is very limited in extent, nothing similar being allowed for "letters" (including literature, history, philosophy, philology, etc.); and, moreover, the kind of students we should encourage to go to France are certainly not anxious for the title of *licencié*, their own degree of A.B. being of equal value. No change has as yet been agreed to in the nature of the doctorate or in the conditions necessary to obtain it; and no change, it is hoped, will ever be made which will render its acquisition easier for American than for French or other candidates. We have, it is true, suggested certain modifications in the nature of the present doctorate, but we expect them to be universal in their application. Only such have been proposed, moreover, as are, to my knowledge, desired by a large number of the French candidates themselves.

We know only too well how often Germans speak in derision of their Ph.D. tossed over, as they say, to foreigners for a consideration. We do not want to hear such a cry in France. If an unofficial representative has made "strenuous efforts" to obtain "unusual privileges" for us, we regret it exceedingly. Let the formal barriers to admittance to candidacy for the higher degrees in France be swept away, alike for one and all; let the many distinguished professors in French universities offer desirable courses, and no one need then exert himself unduly to lead Americans to Paris. They will go gladly, and in ever-increasing numbers, of their own accord. Excellent courses rarely go begging hearers. "Extraordinary opportunities" seldom wait long for recognition.

No, Mr. Editor, while many of us are indeed anxious to see friendly, reciprocal relations established between the universities of France and America, we are unwilling to see our cause furthered by false and extravagant assertions. Abroad we desire such representatives only as know something at first hand of the best university education in America, men who are not flatterers, nor do what they do to gain notoriety. At home our advocates should be ever candid and sincere, conscious of the importance their words may have in shaping the careers of those students who follow their advice.

However, because I have suggested that it may be the French system, or rather, lack of system, which has itself to blame for the comparative smallness of the number of American students in France, no one will, I hope, imagine that I therefore sympathize wholly with the German methods of instruction, which have proved to be more successful in the rivalry. Far from it. To speak frankly, my experience has led me to believe that in general the young graduate is far better off in one of the leading graduate schools of America than in any foreign university, until he is able to work entirely on his own responsibility, and has been fully initiated into the ways of scientific research. It is time that the idea was given up that a man who has done all his advanced study in the universities of the Old World must necessarily have had a better training than one who has been hard at work for as long a time in America. As a rule, the opposite is more likely to be true. If a student can arrange to spend some years abroad, in addition to those at home, by all means let him do so. His life in foreign countries will certainly broaden his sympathies and widen his horizon. Once in Europe, moreover, let him not fail to spend at least part of his time in Paris; but let him not go there with the expectation that he is to be treated with special distinction because he happens to be an American. The American students in Paris during the past winter had no "unusual privileges"; but I know of no one of them who regrets having spent a year there.

Hoping that I have not imposed too much upon your kindness, I have the honor to be, sir, Very sincerely yours,

WILLIAM HENRY SCHOFIELD.

CHRISTIANIA, September 15, 1896.

A QUESTION OF ETHICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I seem to have lagged behind the rest of my contemporaries. There are certain actions which I see people engage in who are otherwise deserving of deep respect, but which seem to me to be wholly incomprehensible. I should be glad if some of your readers would sacrifice a little time to trying to make me understand why they are not incomprehensible to every one.

As a glaring instance of the sort of action that I have in mind, I take the fact that Mr. Howells had, in a recent Sunday issue of the *World*, a long article on literary topics of current interest, accompanied by a picture of himself of enormous size, taken from a photograph by Cox (which did not deserve so base a fate). The *World* is beyond question one of the most degrading influences of the time. The mere fact that it treats every revolting murder and every scandal of no matter what degree of indecency as matter of equal interest with all the real news of the day, and as deserving the same close attention to all its sickening details as any intricate question of politics, is alone enough to show that it is demoralizing beyond conception. It does not enter a single household where it does not insensibly set the tone in the direction of vulgarity. It is impossible to read it day after day without gradually but surely losing the instincts of a gentleman. *Life's* scathing cartoon of its unsavory progress through the town is thoroughly well deserved. How, then, is it possible for a man like Mr. Howells to write for it?

Whatever one may think of the justice of some of his opinions, Mr. Howells is through and through a reformer. How can he reconcile it with his conscience to write for the *World*? One cannot have recourse to mercenary motives as an explanation in this case, and it only remains to suppose that he has some theory of life or morals which makes it a desirable thing to do; probably he thinks his words reach a wide audience in this way. But in what way do they reach it? The same number of the *World* contained an editorial in which Mr. Howells was ridiculed, on account of his liking for finding genius in unknown writers, in a way that would be considered as grossly insulting by any one who had the feelings that have always been supposed to belong to the literary man. As far as Mr. Howells is concerned, this can only be regarded as a proper consequence of bringing his wares to such a vulgar market, but it also makes the theory that what he has to say may have a good effect somewhere a ridiculous one.

The only safeguard against such a contaminating influence as that of the *World* and the *Journal* is that there should be a "remnant" whose opinion is respected, and who are known to despise them; unless, indeed, it shall be decided that newspapers must be licensed, as physicians are already, to prevent their poisoning off a once healthy population. The great majority of people, who do not think for themselves, have not yet discovered that it is a disgrace for these newspapers to be seen in their houses, and how shall they discover it if a man like Howells, for whom they must have a profound respect, sees no reason why he should shun their company?

C. L. F.

ARGUMENT WITH FARMERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: During my vacation I took every opportunity to talk quietly with the farmers of New Hampshire on the silver question. Such missionary work is, of course, unnecessary in New England, but I was struck with two points which may be of interest to those who are trying to combat error in places where it is more prevalent.

In the first place, I found that if I used any of the terms of political economy—even such simple ones as "medium of exchange" or "intrinsic value"—I failed to be thoroughly understood; secondly, that the statement, "there is as much money to-day in mining silver at 63 cents an ounce as there is in mining gold at $19 50 an ounce," never failed to make an impression, especially if followed with some explanations how mechanical and chemical inventions have affected the cost of mining. Our farmers are familiar with the effect of improved tools and methods in ploughing, sowing, and harvesting. They are familiar with the use of dynamite in blasting, and can readily see how high explosives, the machine-drill, and compressed air have lowered the cost of getting out rock, and are willing to admit that silver must be cheaper than it was before these inventions were applied. They readily appreciate how chemical methods have made it profitable to mine and sell silver at the rate of 63 cents an ounce, and that these inventions have not affected the amount of labor necessary to produce 1-63 ounces of gold. They see that it is impossible to make silver again as scarce and dear as it was before, and they see at once the utter futility of coinage in the ratio of 16 to 1. If any doubt remains, a reference to the Molly Gibson mine and several others which produce silver now at a cost of 21½ cents removes it.

Of course it is hardly worth while to argue with Eastern silver farmers. They are too few to affect the vote—a negligible quantity. But in the West it is perfectly natural for a farmer to say, "Everything has been protected except wheat, and that I have to sell at a price made in England. Now, if making silver money will reduce the burden of taxes and interest, it will do the farmer some good, and he ought to have his chance with the rest." It can be made quite clear to such a man that silver is cheap by reason of the lessened cost of its production, and then he sees at once that the persons to be benefited by free coinage are the original producers of bullion, and appreciates at once that abominable greed lies at the bottom of the silver movement, and that it seeks to exploit the honest fanaticism of the Populists.

Our people do not and cannot understand the currency question, but they do understand how improved machinery cheapens a product. A short pamphlet in plain language

describing "How silver is mined and how gold is mined," with a few statistics of cost—labor, fuel, etc —would make more converts than the soundest and most elaborate argument on the principles of political economy. Possibly it might convince even a bimetallist.

It may be too late to bring out such a pamphlet for use in the present campaign, but the question will not be entirely laid at rest next November. CHARLES F. JOHNSON.

HARTFORD, October 5, 1896.

THE THOMAS BOOK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of September 17 contained a notice of 'The Thomas Book,' in which the reviewer spoke of the volume as a "monument of money wasted." If the rest of the book is as inaccurate as that portion concerning the ancestry with which I am related, and of which the reviewer says, "Two pages are given to the noted Thomas family of Marshfield, as an excuse for putting in a portrait of Gen. John Thomas," the work might be said properly to be "a monument of money worse than wasted"

In the pedigree there given, which the compiler professes to have made up from Marcia Thomas's 'History of Marshfield,' it is stated of Col. Anthony Thomas, the elder brother of the General, that he "married Abigail *Tilden*, and died July 14, 1781"; the name of the wife, as well as of the husband, being given (in order to emphasize it) in the largest and blackest type at the disposal of the compiler, which only serves to make the blunder more conspicuous. Instead of Abigail *Tilden* it should be Abigail *Alden*, who was born February 27, 1727, and was the great granddaughter of John Alden, who came over in the *Mayflower*, and who was the last survivor of the signers of the compact. There are plenty of books, such as the 'Alden Memorial Book,' published at Randolph, Mass., several years ago, that will verify this statement, to say nothing of the records of Marshfield and the gravestones in the burying-ground.

The compiler of this valuable production also states that Anthony Thomas left a son, Briggs: the necessary implication being that he left no other sons, whereas he had two others, Waterman and Judah, the former of whom moved to Waldoborough, Me., on his appointment by President Washington as "Collector of Customs for the district of Bath and Penobscot," an office which he held till his death, and in which he was succeeded by his son-in-law, Joseph Farley, who was appointed by President Jefferson.—Yours very truly,

WILLIAM F. PECK.

ROCHESTER, N.Y., September 27, 1896.

Notes.

DODD, MEAD & Co.'s autumn publications include autobiographies of Augustus J. C. Hare ('The Story of My Life') and of Mary Cowden Clarke ('My Autobiography'); 'My Literary Life,' by Mrs. E. Lynn Linton; 'The Life of Adeline, Countess Schimmelmann,' a Scandinavian philanthropist, edited by the Rev. W. Smith Foggitt; 'Charlotte Brontë and her Circle,' by Clement K. Shorter; 'The Memoirs of Signor Arditi,' the Italian musical conductor, with portraits and facsimiles; 'Historical Briefs, with a Biography,' by James Schouler; 'Lyrics of Lowly Life,' by Paul Lawrence Dunbar, a young negro poet one generation removed from slavery; a new volume of literary essays by Hamilton W. Mabie; and 'Travel and Talk,' about the United States, by the Rev. H. R. Haweis.

Francis P. Harper, New York, announces a 'History of the American Theatre, 1749-'97,' by George C. Seilheimer; 'Walt Whitman, the Man,' by Thomas Donaldson; and 'The Greatest Cavalry Ride of the Rebellion; or, General Thomas at Nashville,' by Gen. H. V. Boynton.

In connection with Chapman & Hall, London, Charles Scribner's Sons will issue a Centenary edition of the Works of Thomas Carlyle, at a low price for good workmanship, with new portraits and some pieces not before published in a collected form. A beginning will be made during the present month.

'Reminiscences of Old New York, 1810-'60,' by Charles H. Haswell; Poultney Bigelow's 'History of the German Struggle for Liberty'; and a 'Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities,' by Prof. Harry Thurston Peck, are in the press of Harper & Bros.

We were inexact in naming the title of the first volume of Dr. Edward Eggleston's forthcoming 'History of Life in the United States,' to be published by Messrs. Appleton. It reads, 'The Beginners of a Nation.' We should also have mentioned that Mr. Charles Howard Shinn's 'Story of the Mine' is the second volume of the "Story of the West Series" of the same house, edited by Mr. Ripley Hitchcock.

Henry Holt & Co. will have ready at no distant date a 'History of Latin Literature,' by Prof. H. T. Peck.

Dr. George Hodges's Lowell Lectures for 1896 are on the eve of publication by Thomas Whittaker, under the title, 'Faith and Social Service.'

George D. Sproul, No. 156 Fifth Avenue, New York, will bring out next month, in connection with Hutchinson & Co., London, a sumptuous work, 'The Book of Beauty,' late Victorian era, consisting of portraits of the Princess of Wales and a large number of peeresses and other ladies of distinction and beauty, mostly by celebrated artists; some children's pictures, both sexes; with original text, musical compositions, and drawings—the whole in two imperial quarto volumes. The American edition is limited to 300 numbered sets.

The Joseph Knight Co., Boston, have undertaken a new edition of Lady Jackson's historical writings on France ('Old Paris,' 'The Old Régime,' 'Last of the Valois,' etc.), in fourteen volumes, and 'Three Children of Galilee: A Life of Christ for the Young,' by Prof. John Gordon.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will publish immediately 'From Avalon,' poems by Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller, and 'Blue and Gold,' verses by William S. Lord.

Prof. A. Furtwängler returns to the Tiara of Saitapharnes in his new volume of 'Intermezzi: Kunstgeschichtliche Studien' (Leipzig: Giesecke & Devrient; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Other chapters relate to an antique Greek bronze head belonging to the Duke of Devonshire; the Medici torso and the Parthenon; the Munich Poseidon frieze and the Neptune temple of Domitius; and the monument of Adamklissi and the earliest representations of Germans.

Charles Scribner's Sons have been well advised in beginning a "Library of Contemporary Exploration and Adventure" with four well-known narratives—Whymper's 'In the Great Andes of the Equator,' Lumholtz's 'Among Cannibals,' Hornaday's 'Two Years in the Jungle,' and the late Capt. Bourke's 'On the Border with Crook.' All these are reprinted from the plates of previous editions, but they are bound uniformly in an agreeable green cloth, and will, we trust, mutually assist each other in securing an extended reading. They offer a wide diversity of scene, incident, adventure, style, and interest, and are all illustrated more or less freely.

Two little volumes bearing the imprint of Preston & Rounds, Providence, R. I., revive the ancient reproach of Rhode Island against Massachusetts for persecution of the smaller colony's citizens for conscience' sake. One, by the Rev. Henry Melville King, a Baptist pastor, retells the story of his co-sectaries, Clarke, Holmes, and Crandall, on their memorable 'Summer Visit of Three Rhode Islanders to the Massachusetts Bay in 1651'—"its innocent purpose and its painful consequences," to Obadiah Holmes in particular. The late Dr. Dexter, along with other Puritan apologists, is again successfully refuted; at the same time, recently discovered evidence of Roger Williams's having been banished on account of "his different opinions in matters of religion" is advanced out of the mouths of his half-relenting persecutors. Part of the original narratives is given in an appendix, with other documents; there is a bibliography and a good index.

The second volume is equally a compilation. It is concerned with 'Mary Dyer of Rhode Island, the Quaker Martyr that was hanged on Boston Common, June 1, 1660,' and is from the pen of Horatio Rogers, one of the justices of the Supreme Court of Rhode Island, himself a descendant of a persecuted Quakeress. It is rather less fair to the Puritans than is Mr. King's arraignment, and the occasional fanatical disturbances by Friends bearing "testimonies" are quite overlooked. Nor does the author take a hint from the intimation on p. 80 of the disquietude of the Rhode Island authorities with regard to Quaker scruples against "trayninge, watchinge, and such other ingadgements." The footnote on p. 18, as to the discipline of married persons for "impropriety before marriage," ignores the fact that the same custom prevailed among Friends for the same offence, which was confined to no denomination. Judge Rogers, like Mr. King, supplies the pertinent original documents, and both these volumes convey a needful lesson even for to-day.

It will doubtless be alleged that Mr. George Ade's 'Artie' (Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.) is but a Chicago "Chimmie Fadden." Where Mr. Ade got his nudge we cannot say, but his study of office-boy and street-wanderer's slang is evidently from the life. Nor is all the fun of his book in the efforts of "Artie" to add piquancy to a used up language; he has his insight into life, viewed from Chicago, which is not without humor and wisdom.

The Century Company is early in the field with a number of illustrated books for children. The humorous division is easily led by Mr. Peter Newell's 'Shadow Show,' a very ingenious series of metamorphoses attained by viewing colored pictures through the leaf *en silhouette*. In this way a pair of Japanese wrestlers becomes a rampant hippopotamus; twin monkeys, a bull-frog; a man putting on a coat, Fido, etc., with generally very little hint of the impending transformation. Another sort of shadow pictures is displayed in 'Gobolinks,' for which Ruth McEnery Stuart and Albert Bigelow Paine are sponsors. Fantastic symmetrical figures, in which design plays but a small part, are made by ink splotches doubled

by folding the paper upon itself. Imagination detects a resemblance to man or beast or elf, and the muse is called in to tell the story. But a bookful of these "cathodes" cannot escape monotony.

'Oceanic Ichthyology: A Treatise on the Deep-Sea and Pelagic Fishes of the World,' based chiefly upon the collections made by the steamers *Blake*, *Albatross*, and *Fishhawk* in the Northwestern Atlantic, with an Atlas containing 417 figures, by the late George Brown Goode and Tarleton H. Bean, is a 614-page quarto special bulletin of the Smithsonian Institution. Among recent ichthyological publications none are more important or more useful than this one. It is the outcome of earnest and long-continued researches by authors who, fortunately for their science, were in possession of the great collections made by the different vessels during years of dredging and trawling. The multitudes of descriptions drawn from the specimens are of unusual excellence, the illustrations are fair, and the synopses make the book especially convenient for reference. As is to be expected in a work of such comprehensiveness, there are points liable to criticism. Besides the faults of the proof-reader, we notice some inaccuracies in classification or identification, some neglect of quotation-marks, and some confusion of dates. The volume is published in 1896, it is dated 1895, and on its pages genera and species are given as new which had been published by the authors in 1894.

The Yearbook of the United States Department of Agriculture for 1895, an octavo of 656 pages and numerous illustrations, is a valuable addition to the library of any one depending on the soil for a living and disposed to profit by the experiences of others. The range of topics is so wide that all classes of producers must find something of particular interest and benefit. Most of the authors are very practical; occasionally one shows traces of too much mental cloudiness. In the article on oleomargarine, for instance, conclusions are set forth that apparently are based on experiments with only one of the substances compared, and the author presents a couple of analyses, said to show that oleomargarine, if pure, is quite as digestible as butter, which few besides this authority will be able to compare.

As in his 'Mirage Oriental,' so in his last book, 'La Sculpture en Europe avant les Influences Gréco-Romaines,' M. Salomon Reinach combats the notion that Europe owes its civilization to the Orient. In this volume he discusses some hundreds of primitive figurines, statuettes, and ornaments, and in particular such specimens as have been taken to bear witness of a derivation from Egyptian or Babylonian forms, and demonstrates how, in every instance, the resemblance is due not to an historically improbable borrowing, but to the uniform course taken by all art forms at their origin. In the course of his discussion M. Reinach insists upon two points of extreme importance. He does not hold, with many students of primitive art, that animal forms change into geometric patterns He believes that the geometric design came first and was turned into the representation of man or beast only when the transformation could not help suggesting itself. His other point is that attitude and gesture in primeval art are *positively* void of dramatic intention or of any expressiveness.

Of great value to the special student of religion in the Far East is a pamphlet of seven leaves (four pages of text and three of illustrations) by Mr. Jos. Schedel, which is printed as manuscript on the press of the *Eastern World*, at Yokohama, Japan, on Phallus-Cultus in Japan. Though small, it is a rich addition to the pamphlet of Dr. E. Buckley of the Chicago University and of Griffis's 'Religions of Japan,' giving new proofs and testimonies, regarding widely separated parts of Japan, of this once prevalent form of early religion, which seems difficult to eradicate despite the severe regulations of the present Japanese Government. Several scholars have assisted the author in collecting his specimens.

So rare is high, interpretative criticism that it is especially pleasant to call attention to the article by Prof. Josiah Royce on "Browning's Theism" in the September number of the *New World*. Not for a long time have we seen an analysis so penetrating as this. Like the great critics, Prof. Royce possesses the creative quality. In analyzing the three-fold nature of current Christianity, and in stating Browning's attitude towards it, he in a measure shows our time in epitome; just as Carlyle, in his essay on Samuel Johnson, showed the characteristic features of eighteenth-century England. Very significant is his presentation of the way in which Browning rises from the conception of the universe as embodied Power, to the conception of cosmic Love as the origin and director of that Power. In short, this essay cannot fail to influence readers who think, and so come to influence those who ordinarily furnish criticism to the daily and weekly press.

It is not too late to turn back, for pure enjoyment, to the issue of the London *Telegraph* for August 31. A city magistrate had the day before discharged a prisoner charged with a statutory offence, under a recent act, upon finding by the dictionary that the word used in the law did not cover the case: "Webster," comments the *Telegraph*, "when a lawyer, 'got off' many defendants in his day, and his Dictionary still continues the good work." There are many anecdotes which embalm this British confusion of the statesman and the lexicographer, but perhaps few to which a definite date can be given, as above.

The most venerable of Scotch Universities, the University of St. Andrews, in its current advertisement, in the London *Academy*, for the session of 1896-97, sets an example of educational chivalry. Of the seventy three bursaries announced as open to competition, "forty-three are tenable by men only, twenty-nine (of which twenty are restricted to medical students) by women only, and two (the Berry Bursaries of £40 each) by either men or women." In the course of the session eight scholarships will be competed for, five of which are open to both sexes; they range in value from £100 to £34. But the most suggestive incident in connection with this same University of St. Andrews is the official notification which its Rector, the Marquis of Bute, has given of his intention to move at the next meeting of the University Court, that "a woman be appointed Assistant Professor of Medicine and Lecturer in Physiology."

An English confectionery and preserving firm, Messrs. Clark, Nicholls & Coombs, Hackney Wick, London, employing 2,000 hands, of which 1,400 are women, reports an experiment in profit-sharing sufficiently established and successful to give value to its details. "Clarnico's" (as the firm is called), having paid interest on its debentures (bonds) and dividends on its preferred and common stock, divides the residue of profits into two parts. Of these, one is distributed among the common stockholders and the other among the workpeople, "so far as these are eligible for it," one year's service being the first requisite. A varying amount, left unappropriated among the workpeople, is invested in shares or bonds of the company, and is set aside as a provident fund, to which fund "the managing directors make considerable private contributions." Out of this provident fund are paid to the workers, when sick, allowances up to two-thirds of a man's or woman's wages; to the family of any qualified worker dying in the company's services, £5 for funeral expenses; to the widow of an employee under certain circumstances, a grant of £5, and £5 to any female employee who marries after five years' employment. Since 1890, when this bonus to labor was instituted, the annual sum paid to the workers has steadily increased. It was in 1890 and also in 1891, £1,400; in 1892, £1,550; in 1893 and 1894, £1,700, and in 1895 £2,762, or some $52,000. The first year, the bonus was distributed to only 536 persons, making an average of about $13 per person; last year 988 workers came within the line, with an average of about $13.90 per capita.

Under the auspices of a committee of the American Library Association, a fund is being raised to erect a memorial to the late Dr. W. F. Poole, probably in the form of a bronze bust to be placed in the Public Library or the Newberry Library in Chicago. An opportunity is offered to all (and their name is legion) who have found occasion to bless the man who invented 'Poole's Index,' to contribute to this memorial. A list of the contributors will be published, but without the amounts given. Contributions should be sent to the treasurer of the committee, Dr. G. E. Wire, No. 1574 Judson Avenue, Evanston, Ill.

We understand that the library of the late Dr. Reinhold Rost of London, the eminent Orientalist, is for sale in bulk. Most of the library relates to the Malayan Archipelago, for which reason efforts are making to secure it for the Government of the Straits Settlements at Singapore; but it is to be hoped that it may be bought by or for some American institution. It is described as being probably the largest and most valuable collection of books relating to the Malayan Archipelago and the Far East now existing in private hands. It is abundant in works on geography, ethnography, and natural history of regions which are of exceptional interest in these respects, and is especially rich in the lexicography and literature of the Malay, Javanese, Achinese, Dayak, Macassar, Bugis, and the other languages of the Archipelago, of Burmese, Siamese, and other languages of Farther India, and of the languages of India proper. An American institution possessing this library could boast of having not only the best, but almost the only important, Malayan collection in the western hemisphere. A classified catalogue of the books, prepared from copy furnished by Dr. Rost's son, is in the hands of Charles P. G. Scott, Radnor, Pa., who will answer inquiries, and will lend the catalogue for examination.

—We have already noticed Sir Joseph Lister's presidential address at the Liverpool meeting of the British Association. Prof. Poulton's opening address in the zoölogical section dealt with the still unsettled quarrel between the zoölogists, the geologists, and the physicists as to whether ten millions or five hundred millions of years is the age which may be assigned to our planet as the theatre of the evolution of species. As a zoölogist,

Prof. Poulton naturally criticised the position of the physicists, and endeavored with considerable success to point out alternative lines of argument which physicists might adopt with a prospect of establishing a *modus vivendi* with and for the zoölogists, and he made it seem reasonable to hope for an adjustment of this scientific *impasse*, upon which Lord Salisbury so vividly insisted three years ago in his inaugural address as president of the Association meeting at Oxford. There was not, however, the same promise of ultimate agreement held out by this year's proceedings of the anthropological section. The opening address of Mr. Arthur Evans, its president, and keeper of Ashmole's Museum at Oxford, dealt with "The Eastern Question in Anthropology." The now widely known discovery of Mycenæan characters which were borrowed in Crete by the Phœnicians, who refashioned them and gave them back in the shape of an alphabet to the West where they originated, has been strikingly confirmed by Mr. Evans's latest find—a steatite table of offerings found in the Dictæan Cave of Cretan Zeus, and inscribed with nine Mycenæan characters and two marks of punctuation. The certainty that our alphabet ultimately goes back to the Mycenæan civilization raises in a more acute form the already pressing question presented so brilliantly by M. Salomon Reinach in his 'Mirage Oriental.' Mr. Evans does not go so far as M. Reinach in emancipating the West from its traditional subservience to Eastern influences, but both of them bid us say farewell to the long-accepted notions associated with a primitive seat of the Aryans.

—That there is as yet no consensus of expert opinion as to the Mycenæan civilization, even among anthropologists, appeared when Dr. Montelius read his paper on the Pelasgians and Tyrrhenians in Greece and Italy. Under these names he recognized phases of the Mycenæan civilization, which he derived through Asia Minor from the Hittites. Just here it was objected by Mr. Myres that, as the result of a most exhaustive search in Caria, he knew there were absolutely no traces of Mycenæan art or civilization to be found there. The same was true, Mr. Evans urged, of all other portions of Asia Minor, excepting the site of Hissarlik. Mr. Myres had previously read a paper on the prehistoric trade-routes of the Mediterranean and the Danube, recognizing Hissarlik as a Mycenæan outpost planted with a view to the Dardanelles and the Danube line of communication. Thus it appears there was no line of contact between the Hittites of Cappadocia and the Mycenæan civilization, and Mr. Evans's contention would be borne out, that the Mycenæan civilization in the West derived little or nothing from Cappadocia, Egypt, or Assyria until it had reached a brilliant and independent maturity.

—With August the first number of the *Journal of the Society of Comparative Legislation* made its appearance in London. Up to this time the *Bulletin* and *Annuaire* of the Société de Législation Comparée and *Zeitschrift für vergleichende Rechtswissenschaft* have served as the chief vehicles for the publication of studies in that subject (the former dealing mainly with legislation and the latter with customary law), though important legal material often finds its way into the Transactions of learned societies of the Orient and of Europe. There has hitherto been no specialized periodical in the English language—a lack that has been regrettable, not so much because English and American students need to be informed through their own language, as because it indicated an absence among us of concerted interest in the subject and an indifference to the profit of its pursuit. Under the auspices of the Lord Chancellor and the Lord Chief Justice, and at the suggestion of Sir Courtenay Ilbert, in December, 1894, a Society of Comparative Legislation was formed, "with the object of promoting knowledge of the course of legislation in different countries, more particularly in the several parts of her Majesty's Dominions and in the United States"; and the *Journal* is to be its mouthpiece. The annual fee for membership is one guinea, and the fee for life-membership is ten guineas; and the Honorary Secretaries are Thomas Raleigh, Esq., Privy Council Office, S. W., and Albert Gray, Esq., 2 Paper Buildings, Temple, E. C. The Society's main work will of course rightly be with the rich mass of data furnished by the sixty-odd legislatures and the heterogeneous peoples of the British Empire. The articles of the first number are: Legislation of the British Empire in 1895; Modes of Legislation in the British Colonies; The German Civil Code; The Application of European Law to Natives of India and Ceylon; Notes on the State Legislation of America in 1895. But, as this list shows, the *Journal's* pages will also include contributions not dealing strictly with affairs of the British Empire; and in particular "it is desired to enlist the aid of the Bar Associations and Statute Revision Commissions of the United States." The two-score jurisdictions of our own nation furnish in themselves a rich opportunity for comparative study, and the time may come when we shall have a journal of our own (not that we need forget the pioneer work begun by the New York "State Library Bulletin"—now at No. 6—in chronicling our legislation systematically). The time is already ripe for a Juridical Society, of which one branch should devote itself to the study of comparative legislation at home and abroad. But meanwhile Americans will do well to join the English Society and encourage the cause.

—If one is to judge from the recently published Guide for intending candidates for the new research degrees at the University of Cambridge, this matter seems to be on a more definite and satisfactory footing than it is as yet at Oxford. Certainly, distinct inducements are offered to such students with better standing and fuller recognition of their previous work than at the sister university. The formalities and requirements both for admission and for the degrees are in most respects similar. At Cambridge, however, students are eligible, after producing satisfactory evidence of age, former work, and fitness for admission, not for the degree of B.Litt. or B.Sc., as at Oxford, which has at present no higher degree equivalent to the M.A. of the arts course, but, after three terms' residence, are entitled to a Certificate of Research, and, after six terms' residence, are entitled to go in for the regular examinations leading to a B.A., and thereafter, under the usual conditions, to proceed to the degree of M.A. and the other University degrees if they so desire. The Certificate of Research is granted in the third term of residence after the student has presented a satisfactory dissertation to the Degree Committee, "containing an account of and embodying the results of his research," and taking as well an examination in the subject, oral or otherwise. Such a student is regarded *in statu pupillari*, and must be duly entered as member of some College or Hostel, or as a non-Collegiate. "The course of advanced study may or may not be such as to qualify him for passing one of the Tripos (Honor) Examinations. The course of research may or may not be pursued with a view to the acquisition of the University Certificate." The terms are three in number, the University year beginning October 1; and residence of three-fourths of a term counts for a term. The convenient little pamphlet compiled by Dr. Donald MacAlister of St. John's College can be obtained from the University Press, Cambridge (price 6d.), by those who are desirous of fuller information, and the University Calendar (price 6s. 6d.) from Deighton Bell & Co., Cambridge. Intending students should apply to the Registrary of the University, Registry, Cambridge.

—The spread of the English language over the world seems to make steady progress, though the phenomena of the movement are those of recession as well as procession. Education by means of the English language in the Government and private schools of China, Korea, and Japan does not make the progress expected by sanguine prophets of a decade ago. Nevertheless, English still holds its own in those schools where it has always been taught thoroughly rather than superficially. Furthermore, in each of the three countries, there are journals which are bilingual, giving the Asiatic script on one page and the Roman on the other. In Japan there is at least one paper published in English by Japanese, the matter being furnished almost entirely by native scholars. The *Far East* comes to us in a neat pamphlet form containing forty pages of body articles and notes, in which almost every phase of Japanese and Oriental life is discussed. Unusual ability seems to be shown in treating those questions and problems which belong to Japan as a comparatively new member of the family of nations governed by much the same rules of intercourse. The *Sun*, a semi-monthly review of politics, economics, science, literature, and art, which seems to be a sort of combination of the *Century* and the *North American Review*, comes freighted with illustrations and papers on science, fiction, education, history, literature, and commerce, by men who occupy the highest literary ranks in the empire. The latest number in our hands, dated July 5, is vol. ii., No. 14, and the signs of prosperity in the advertisements and otherwise are patent. One of the most striking articles is entitled "The Labor Problem in Japan." It is written in English by Mr. S. Takano. This is but one of nearly a dozen articles already published in the same language in the *Sun*.

—Mr. Takano's article is brief but strong. He protests strenuously against the inhumanity shown, on the part of the leading men in Japan, in a total disregard for the interest of the laboring people. In their greedy, almost ferocious ambition to forge ahead in the race for the prize of supremacy in foreign commerce, they have forgotten the common duties of humanity. He insists that Western civilization in its best sense is limited in Japan to the higher classes only. The working people are sacrificed, physically and morally, to the ambitions of influential men who bitterly oppose legislation for the protection and im-

provement of factory operatives. Even in June of this year, at a general convention of delegates from the chambers of commerce throughout the country, a proposition to advise the Government to enact a law for the protection of factory hands was unanimously rejected, on the ground that such protection was not necessary at present and would be a *hindrance to the greater growth of Japanese industry*. (The italics are ours) When it is considered that there are now nearly fifty cotton mills in Japan (there being none in 1878), which run on an average twenty-two hours a day, and 10 per cent. of the male spinners and 23 per cent. of the female spinners are children under fifteen years, with an average of eleven working hours a day, the danger is evident. It is not astonishing that in Osaka, which has fifteen of the largest mills, ninety-four out of one hundred applicants in the city for enlistment in the army were rejected on the ground of physical disability. There are other dangers in this violent change in the conditions of Japanese life. Those who work on alternate weeks at night get no extra compensation for their labor. Furthermore, the mill operatives are under police espionage, and are not allowed to meet or combine for public discussion and action. A "hand" discharged from one mill for bad conduct cannot, within a year, get work in another factory. The mill-owners are amply protected, while the working people have, under existing conditions, little possibility of sharing in the general advance of the country. Though Mr. Takano, who seems to be familiar with the history of labor and modern industrial methods in other countries, treats only of the cotton industry, he adds, "Low wages, long working hours, child labor, black list—such are the conditions existing in the cotton-spinning industry, and similar conditions are confronting the workers of other trades which are run under the modern system of industry. . . . But how long will the workers remain in their semi-conscious condition?" He calls on the leaders and statesmen to avert what he calls "the impending disaster."

RECENT POETRY.

DON QUIXOTE, in discoursing with a youth who is to compete for a prize of poetry, advises him to "contrive to carry off the second prize, for the first always goes by favor or personal standing, the second by simple justice." This wise counsel seems to have ruled the terms of competition among recent poets, in both England and the United States, except that Mr. Swinburne, in venturing on the ground of Lord Tennyson, probably has higher aspirations, certainly not destined to fulfilment. The new metre he has devised for his 'Tale of Balen' (Scribners) has ingenuity for a merit, and that alone; it misses the simple vigor of the ballad measure, yet attains to nothing more, and is in marked contrast to the sustained vigor and rhythmic sweetness of the Tennysonian idyls; while to compare it with the honeyed melody which is identified with Swinburne himself, or with the salt-sea vigor of his "Song in Time of Order," is to apply a test too pathetically severe. The mere story of the twin heroes is told as well as Tennyson told it—and more at length, if that be a merit—but they jog along side by side, through many pages, at an unvarying canter like this (p. 2):

> "And glad in spirit and sad in soul,
> With dream and doubt of days that roll
> As waves that race and find no goal,
> Rode on by brush and brake and bole
> A Northern child of earth and sea,
> Radiant: the heavens of night and day
> Shone less than shone before his way
> His ways and days to be."

Here we have Swinburne's old mannerism of alliteration; his initial letters jingle a little, like the trappings of a knight, but they cease to charm, and in no other respect do we recognize the old time master of melody. But the metre itself suggests hopelessly that of "The Lady of Shalott," with this difference, that Tennyson's poem under that name is far briefer and more highly dramatic, and, moreover, that the delicate ear of its author relieved it by the variation of such lines as

> "In the stormy east-wind straining
> The pale yellow woods were waning,"

which wholly balance the jog-trot inevitable where the octosyllable alone is used. The truth is, that it took all Tennyson's unequalled resources to save even "The Lady of Shalott" from becoming monotonous; and how much less can the present poem escape that fate? Swinburne never once, like Tennyson in the lines above quoted, passes from the iambic to the trochaic measure; and the only case in which he seems to be really trying to put a little lilt into his cadence is in the following, which can hardly be called euphonious (p. 16):

> "Strode Balen in his poor array
> Forth, and took heart of grace to pray
> The damsel suffer even him to assay
> His power to set her free."

Here the damsel can hardly be said to be "radiantly attended" by the syllables linked with her in this third line. It is to be counted for righteousness to Mr. Swinburne that he dedicates this later work, not unpoetically, to his mother. We cannot recall that 'Laus Veneris' had any such filial and pious inscription.

The sonnets grouped in a thin volume under the name of 'The Purple East: A Series of Sonnets on England's Desertion of Armenia,' by William Watson (Chicago: Stone & Kimball), do not, like one or two of Milton's sonnets, win the double crown of heroism and poetic triumph, and will not, perhaps, increase Watson's fame in the latter direction; but they show a heroic philanthropy and a superb fighting quality. Perhaps the latter gift is a little too manifest in the direction of personal attack on the Laureate in the preface, and in the three sonnets of rejoinder beginning with that called "The Bard-in-Waiting." But, after all, it is that kind of excess of which Emerson wished that the American Abolitionists might never rid themselves, and we demur only because Mr. Austin seems rather too fragile a butterfly to be broken upon so very vigorous a wheel. Another of the three sonnets especially addressed to the Laureate is the following (p. 33):

LEISURED JUSTICE.

> "She bides her hour." And must I then believe
> That when the day of peril is o'erpast,
> She who was great because so oft she cast
> All thought of peril to the waves that heave
> Against her feet, shall greatly unperceive
> Her purblind son who dreamed she shrank aghast
> From Duty's signal, and shall set at last
> When there is naught remaining to retrieve?
> At last! when the last altar is defiled
> And there are no more maidens to deflower—
> When the last mother folds with famished arms
> To her dead bosom her last butchered child—
> Then shall our England, throned beyond alarms,
> Rise in her might! Till then, "she bides her hour."

Mr. and Mrs. William Sharp, who have done good service to both English and American verse through their volumes of selections, afford a little disappointment in their 'Lyra Celtica,' and this, indeed, seems to have been anticipated by the former of the two when he apologizes, in the very first lines of his preface, for having to "deal cursorily with a great and fascinating subject." The editors cover too much space in the geographical and chronological boundaries of their selection—including, for instance, Ossianic, Armorican, Cornish, and Breton poetry—and yet giving greater space in proportion when they pass to modern and very accessible lays. Then the principle of selection is puzzling; it bewilders the brain to open a Celtic Lyre from which Burns and Scott and Moore are excluded, while Byron is let in; and this is not relieved even when explained, because the explanations themselves are contradictory. Thus, on p. xxiv of the introduction, we are told that "Scott was of the ancient stock, and not the typical Lowlander he is so often designated," and that "it is still a debatable point if Burns was not more Celtic than Lowland—that is, by paternal as well as maternal descent"; and it is only claimed for Byron that, although "far more British than Scottish, and again more Scottish than Celtic," he had yet "a strong Celtic strain in his blood." The question naturally arises, if a minimum of Celtic strain admits Byron, why should a maximum leave Scott and Burns excluded? Then, on p. xliii, the editor seems to take back his own words, and says, "To avoid confusion, the editor has refrained from representing poets whose Celtic strain is more or less obviously disputable; hence the wise ignoring of the claims even of Scott and Burns. Byron was more Celtic in blood than in brain, and is represented really by virtue of this accidental kinship." Mr. Sharp undoubtedly knows how to reconcile these statements, but we confess ourselves unable to do it; we only know that it will appear to the general reader that the part of *Hamlet* has been omitted from the tragedy.

Again, even among distinctly Irish writers, we look in vain for various well known favorites, as for instance, Father Prout's "Bells of Shandon," or that vigorous poem "Gougane Barra," by poor Callanan, who vainly thought that he alone had waked Erin's harp from her slumber. But we have instead a good deal that is attractive from the Bodley Head poets, and Mr. Sharp crosses the Atlantic to include Mr. Carman and Miss Ellen Hutchinson, on the ground that the latter is "descended from old Highland stock." Are there many American bards, great or small, who have not somewhere on the family tree a Scotch or Irish twig? The effect of the whole book is somewhat hasty and hap-hazard, though the biographical notes at the end are perhaps to be excepted from this criticism.

'Poems and Ballads by Robert Louis Stevenson' (Scribners) is what seems a final and definitive collection of this author's poems, made up of 'A Child's Garden of Verses,' almost always charming; of 'Underwoods,' frequently so, but very unequal and occasionally unpleasant; and of 'Ballads' of Scotland or the South Sea Islands, which, although usually grim, have a vast deal of local and poetic interest. On the whole, the effect of the book is rather sad, as suggesting a slight insecurity in the tenure of the author's fame, which seemed but yesterday so certain. Perhaps this little blank-verse fragment, which suggests the brief felicities of Landor's verse, is a profounder summary of the author's career than any which the most sympathizing friend could have framed (p. 268):

> "We uncommiserate pass into the night
> From the loud banquet, and departing leave
> A tremor in men's memories, faint and sweet
> And frail as music. Features of our face,
> The tones of the voice, the touch of the loved hand,
> Perish and vanish, one by one, from earth;
> Meanwhile, in the hall of song, the multitude
> Applauds the new performer. One, perchance,
> One ultimate survivor lingers on,

And smiles, and to his ancient heart recalls
The long-forgotten Ere the morrow die,
He, too, returning, through the curtain comes,
And the new age forgets us and goes on."

Among minor American poems, 'My Rosary,' by Gustav Kobbé (Richmond), and 'Lays of a Wandering Minstrel,' by Anne Virginia Culbertson (Lippincott), are both apparently compilations by public readers of those among their own poems which have found favor with hearers. For the first-named the author justly claims in his preface that the book is a very little one; and the latter contains a variety of dialect poems—negro, Irish, and rustic American—which have probably had success with audiences easy to satisfy. 'Songs without Answer,' by Irene Putnam (Putnams), is of a different and more meditative strain; and while some of it is trite, there are some fine and sympathetic delineations of humble, outdoor things, as this (p. 53):

THE MAIDEN-HAIR.

O Maiden-hair, that in this covert place,
Dost float on air thy fronds of circled grace,
Where forest sunbeams, golden-green with gloom,
The fairy life net of thy veins illume;

Thou wine-like form, thou sweet poetic plan,
Divine, self-poised, beyond the search of man,
How frail thy raiment from the mould is wrought,
How strong in thee shines Beauty's perfect thought!

Thou hangest like a sign upon the door
Of unknown realms, while entrance, nothing more,
Thou makest on the dim, material scene—
Oh, tell me of that Inner World's serene!

My dull, dark thoughts, like satyrs round the feet
Of heavenly Una, list for knowledge sweet;
I crave new sense of Beauty, Law, and Good.
Oh, teach me, gentle fern-soul of the wood!

In 'The Lamp of Gold' (Chicago: Way & Williams), Miss Florence L. Snow takes the seven branches of the candlestick, to which Hawthorne's Hilda attached such mystic meaning, and gives to each seven sonnets, making forty-nine in all. The work is thoughtfully and even beautifully conceived and carefully executed; but very few poets can venture on a sequence of sonnets, and she has chosen the Shaksperian form, which is now less in favor than the Petrarchan, and really—which is more important—admits of less richness and variety. Her seven symbolic branches are The Sacred Fire; Daybreak; Mid morning; Noon; Western Windows; Eventide; The Perfect Light.

The junior editor of Emily Dickinson's poems (Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd) has been induced by the popular interest in previous series to select still a third volume, this being facilitated by the discovery of an unexpected deposit (Boston: Roberts Bros.). The curious fame of this author is something unique in literature, being wholly posthumous and achieved without puffing or special effort, and, indeed, quite contrary to the expectation of both editors and publishers. No volumes of American poetry, not even the most popular of Longfellow's, have had so wide or so steady a sale. On the other hand, the books met with nothing but vehement hostility and derision on the part of leading English critics, and the sale of the first volume, when reprinted there, did not justify the issue of a second. The sole expressed objection to them, in the English mind, lay in their defects or irregularities of manner; and yet these were not nearly so defiant as those exhibited by Whitman, who has always been more unequivocally accepted in England than at home. There is, however, ample evidence that to a minority, at least, of English readers, Emily Dickinson is very dear. Some consideration is also due to the peculiarly American quality of the landscape, the birds, the flowers, she delineates. What does an Englishman know of the bobolink, the whippoorwill, the Baltimore oriole, even of the American robin or blue-jay? These have hardly been recognized as legitimate stock-properties in poetry, either on the part of the London press or of that portion of the American which calls itself "cosmopolitan." To use them is still regarded, as when Emerson and Lowell were censured for their use, "a foolish affectation of the familiar." Why not stick to the conventional skylark and nightingale? Yet, as a matter of fact, if we may again draw upon Don Quixote's discourse to the poet, it is better that a Spaniard should write as a Spaniard and a Dutchman as a Dutchman. If Emily Dickinson wishes to say, in her description of a spirit, "'Tis whiter than an Indian pipe" (p. 156), let her say it, although no person born out of her own land may ever have seen that wondrous ghost of a flower (*Monotropa uniflora*, or Indian pipe) which appears on the cover of her volumes, but unhappily in a blaze of gilding that makes it meaningless. Perhaps, in the end, the poet who is truest to his own country may best reach all others. An eminent American librarian, lately visiting England, made it a practice to inquire in the country bookstores what American poet was most in demand with their customers, and was amazed at the discovery that it was usually Whittier.

It is needless to say that Miss Dickinson's poetry achieves its success, in spite of all its flagrant literary faults, by what Ruskin describes as "the perfection and precision of the instantaneous line." She is to be tested, not by her attitude, but by her shot. Does she hit the mark? As a rule she does. Is it a question what a book represents to a human being? This is her answer—only eight lines, but they tell the story (p. 29):

A BOOK.

There is no frigate like a book
To take us lands away,
Nor any coursers like a page
Of prancing poetry.
This traverse may the poorest take
Without oppress of toll;
How frugal is the chariot
That bears a human soul!

Again, how many a heart has been vaguely touched in some old and neglected country cemetery by the thought so tersely uttered here (p. 157):

THE MONUMENT.

She laid her docile crescent down,
And this mechanic stone
Still states, to dates that have forgot,
The news that she is gone.

So constant to its stolid trust,
The shaft that never knew,
It shames the constancy that fled
Before its emblem flew.

The "docile crescent" may be supposed to imply that the life commemorated was immature, and ended while yet expanding.

It is known that Miss Dickinson very rarely gave a title to her poems, and it is to be presumed that in this volume, as in the others, these are supplied by the editor. The fourfold division, "Life," "Love," "Nature," "Time and Eternity," is that preserved in the earlier volumes, and the tolerably equal distribution of the poems into the four departments suggests that this strange, secluded life, seemingly wayward, had in reality a method and balance of its own. It is noticeable, also, that in a few of the poems (as on pp. 79, 200) there is an unexampled regularity of form, beyond anything to be found in the earlier volumes, and perhaps hinting at a growing tendency in her mind. This "Song," for instance (p. 79), surprises the reader, trained to the Dickinsonian muse, with an almost startling commonplaceness of melody. It was apparently sent with a flower:

SONG.

Summer for thee grant I may be
When summer days are flown!
Thy music still when whippoorwill
And oriole are done!

For thee to bloom, I'll skip the tomb
And sow my blossoms o'er;
Pray gather me, Anemone,
Thy flower forevermore.

THE MINERAL INDUSTRY.

The Mineral Industry: Its Statistics, Technology, and Trade, for 1895. Edited by R. P. Rothwell. New York: Scientific Publishing Co. 1896.

THIS is the fourth of a series of annual volumes, which, as their title indicates, not only deal with the statistics of the world's mineral industry, but contain papers by eminent miners and metallurgists, which describe and discuss the latest inventions and most improved practice in those important branches of human activity. They therefore cover a wider scope than such publications as Wagner's *Jahrbericht* and other compilations and summaries of scientific progress. They occupy, however, substantially the same field as a series of annual reports which have been issued by the United States Geological Survey since 1883 on the 'Mineral Resources of the United States.' It seems as if the publication annually of two such voluminous and costly works involved a waste of energy. On the part of the Government it is argued, that the failure at any time of the private publication would occasion a gap in the continuity of information on an important national subject which it is its duty to supply. Moreover, the Government compilers contend that information is confidentially vouchsafed them which would not be intrusted to a commercial editor and publisher. On the other hand, the editor of the 'Mineral Industry' may point to the fact, in justification of his duplication in part of the Government volume, that the great demand for his work warrants its publication, and that the greater promptness with which it is issued adds infinitely to its value as a body of statistics, by which prices and the current of trade are to a certain extent regulated. It is curious that governments, not only our own, but those of Europe, with unlimited money and human brains and hands at command, are so dilatory in the issuance of such documents that private enterprise invariably outstrips them in priority.

Though statistics are looked upon as the very dry bones of literature, and in truth are so, nevertheless, being such, they are the skeleton upon which every economic argument and conclusion is based. And to-day, when the most vital and intricate questions of political and social science have been removed from the calm atmosphere of the schools into the noisy arena of party politics, a volume of statistics and technical information becomes of necessity a handbook for all who would judge for themselves, and who hesitate to accept either the figures or the deductions of the campaign orator. Looked at from this point of view, the statistics of iron and steel and of gold and silver are of peculiar interest; as the manufacturers of the former are the principal instigators and main financial supporters of the party which advocates a high protective tariff, and the two precious metals are the counters with which the most reckless game of politics ever indulged in by a great people is being played.

We stood in 1895 at the head of the iron and

steel producers of the world, having made 9,597,447 tons of pig iron as against 8,022,006 tons made by Great Britain, and 6,212,671 tons of steel, as against only some 3,000,000 tons made by her. We manufacture our iron, with insignificant exceptions, from domestic ores. Our chief rival draws her ores in great measure from foreign sources. That we have made such rapid strides within a few years as to overtake and then forge far ahead of all competitors is, not without warrant, attributable to the high protective duty which secured such enormous profits to the large manufacturers, who were favorably situated, as to stimulate their activity, if not their cupidity, to an inordinate degree. Under that stimulus our production has outstripped that of any other people, and the cost of production, by reason of the more complete and universal substitution of machinery for hand labor, and the possession of extraordinarily rich and large deposits of raw material, has probably sunk to, if not below, that of any other of the fraternity of iron and steel-making nations. Not only do our bridge companies, by the more scientific and skilful economy of material, carry off most of the large foreign contracts, but it is no secret that one of our large rail manufacturers has shipped steel rails to our neighbor and to Japan during the past year at a figure many dollars below the combination price, and therefore below that at which Great Britain or Belgium could supply them. Nevertheless, these manufacturers seem still to be dissatisfied, and anxious not only to perpetuate but to increase the duty, and thus, if the combination continues to hold together, extort a still more exorbitant tribute from our railroads and the public.

How autocratically this powerful Trust conducts its business, one may judge from the following extract:

"On June 30 a meeting of the rail-makers was held, and as the growing business improvement was then manifest, an increase to $24 per ton at mill was ordered. To this, perhaps, no serious objection would have been offered, as prices of other descriptions of iron and steel had begun to rise, though the cost of fuel and raw materials to most of the rail-makers was practically unchanged. The combination was not yet satisfied, however, and three months later, in September, another meeting was held, at which the price was raised to $28 per ton at mill. This action was taken in face of the fact that orders for rails continued to be much lighter than had been expected, and its direct effect has been to discourage purchases. The combination, in its eagerness for profit, probably overlooked two important facts: first, that the recovery in earnings had not yet passed the point which required strict economy in expenses; and, second, that the railroad tracks are now very largely laid with steel, and that renewals can be postponed for a certain length of time without seriously compromising the safety of operation. The result has been that the rail business has not shown the same growth as other branches of the trade. A few of the great companies—like the Pennsylvania—have placed their orders, though on a restricted scale, while many companies have held out altogether. With regard to the rate, it must be remembered that rails are almost the simplest and least costly form in which finished steel can be put upon the market, and that the profit upon their manufacture at the present price is out of all proportion to that obtained on other products under normal conditions. The rail combination continues to control the trade absolutely."

It will, however, come about, in the natural course of events, if our capacity for production continues to grow with the same vigorous rate of speed as of late years, that our actual production will so largely overreach home consumption that the bulk of our iron and steel, probably in finished manufactured form, will enter the competitive market of the world. When that stage is reached, as it has already been in the copper trade, a high tariff will have to adopt some other epithet than "protective," and its continuance be supported by other arguments than those which satisfy the mass of people to-day.

The statistics of gold and silver reproduce simply those of the Director of the Mint. They confirm the fact that though the gold production of the world in 1895 was the largest in history, that of silver was also greater than has ever been recorded for a single year, even when silver was at 16 to 1. The world's production of gold in 1895 was 1,010,166 ounces in excess of that in 1894, and of this excess 341,998 ounces are to be credited to this country. The world's production of silver in 1895 was 3,182 630 ounces in excess of that in 1894, though this country fell off 3,465,640 ounces. The main increase came from Mexico, and this fact might be used as an argument for free silver were it not that in Bolivia, which is the third largest producer in the world and is also a silver country, there was nearly as great a loss in production as there was a gain in Mexico. Australasia showed a gain of 1,794,825 ounces of silver, though its currency is on a gold basis. It would therefore be difficult to draw an argument for either mono- or bimetallism from the statistics of the past year. The truth is, the statistics and experience of mining and metallurgy leave little doubt that what has happened in the case of all other metals will come about in the case of silver. The lower value will necessitate increased production by the large mines, so as to secure a large gross profit on a small margin per ounce. It will also demand the introduction of improved machinery and the invention and adoption of better methods of treatment. Small mines will pass out of existence. The large mines will be worked more actively and economically, and the yield of silver as a by-product from copper and other metals will steadily and notably increase. A lower price will thus augment rather than diminish production, once recovery has been made from the sudden shock of the rapid fall in price. This, however, it must be borne in mind, has been no greater than has befallen iron, copper, and lead. It was more rapid and therefore more startling, and has derived exaggerated importance from its political bearing.

The Life of James McCosh: A Record Chiefly Autobiographical. Edited by William Milligan Sloane, with Portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Dr. McCosh was born at Carskeoch on the Doon, a few miles from Ayr, and his reminiscences of the Burns country are among the most interesting portions of a book which bears in every part the marks of careless preparation. How the social life of the region helped to make Burns what he was, and how he helped the social life to sink to lower levels—these things are well brought out. The reticence and repression of the Scot are illustrated by the response of a heart-broken father bending over the coffin of his son to some well-meant words of consolation: "This is a fine day, sir." At Edinburgh University young McCosh came under the influence of Chalmers and Sir William Hamilton, and his subsequent life was little more than an attempt to reconcile in himself and for others the religious temper of the former with the philosophy of the latter. His first parish was at Arbroath in the presbytery of Ayr, and took the side of the new Evangelicals in opposition to the Moderates. One of his painful duties was to break the news of their husbands' death to the wives of sailors and fishermen in his parish. This he did by engaging them in prayer or reading them the chapter describing the raising of Lazarus; but they generally discovered his drift before he finished the chapter. His second parish was at Brechin, after declining overtures from Grey Friars Church in Edinburgh and so making clear the way for Guthrie's proof of his ability to hold that great position. McCosh was at Brechin from 1839 until 1851, a period coinciding with the "Great Disruption" and the establishment of the Free Kirk. Actively interested in the secession, it is strange that he could write of it with so little feeling and add so little to our previous impressions. In his own parish eight hundred members joined the Free Kirk and six hundred remained in the Established Church.

In 1850 he published a book which had much popular success, 'The Method of the Divine Government, Physical and Moral.' Chalmers was more in evidence in it than Hamilton, and it was ultimately superseded by Dr. McCosh's later works; but in its day it had one notable result for its author: it made him Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in Queen's College, Belfast. He held the chair from 1851 until 1868, when he was made President of Princeton College. Thackeray honored his coming to Belfast with a poem in *Punch*, "The Last Irish Grievance," significant of the wrath of the Irish public over the importation of a Scotch professor. In 1855, collaborating with Prof. Dickie, a colleague in Queen's College, he published 'Typical Forms and Special Ends in Creation,' a strong statement of the theistic argument from design. "What really ruined the run of this book was the appearance, soon after its publication, of Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' which carried the whole controversy into new regions." Prof. Dickie, already irritated by McCosh's taking the lion's share of credit for the book, was spoiled by Darwin's sudden fame from following his lead, though, like Agassiz in America, he was one of the most obvious of his forerunners. Dr. McCosh, on the contrary, yielded to Darwin in course of time a qualified assent, and his place in the history of theology is among the most ingenious of those who have endeavored to reconcile the Darwinian science with the traditional theology. Probably at no stage of the development was the reconciliation such as to commend itself to any thoroughly consistent scientist, and even the theologians have discovered that terms so favorable to themselves could not be expected; but those who soften the jolt of the transition from the old ways to the new are useful members of society if, as purveyors of pure thought, they are not much esteemed.

A chapter on Dr. McCosh's travels in Germany is surprising from a certain feebleness of stroke where he is writing of Humboldt, Bunsen, and others famous in the walks of science and theology. An amusing circumstance is that we have three different and widely varying accounts of one and the same matter. Dr. McCosh had worked out a theory of correspondence between the venation of leaves and the ramification of trees. In his autobiographical notes he tells us that he brought the matter to Humboldt's attention, who said he had noticed the correspondence but had found two exceptions; but upon McCosh's explaining these exceptions in conformity with his theory, he declared himself thoroughly convinced and said, "You may say that I think

so to any one." "On getting this sanction," says Dr. McCosh, "I stopped giving so much time to my botanical observations and turned towards psychical studies, which were ever my favorite ones." In a letter, however, written at the time, he says that when Humboldt mentioned the exceptions, he was "on the point of disputing with him, but thought better to stop." In a third place he writes that when, in Germany, he found that Dr. Braun and others had anticipated his discovery and given it a mathematical formula, he was somewhat mortified and turned away from botany and gave himself to metaphysics.

His own account of his philosophical career is extremely slight, as if his mind had lost its grip on the studies which had formerly engrossed it, and it is a pity that Prof. Sloane did not bring to his aid the pen of some acknowledged master in the metaphysical school. His eleventh chapter deals with the Doctor's philosophy and teaching, but with the former much too hastily. We are told frankly that he never understood Hegel. If he had done so, he would probably have been strongly attracted to his epistemology, for to make sure that we know reality, and know that we know it, was "the main region of his song." It was at this point that he broke with Hamilton, Mansel, Spencer, and Mill. "It was impossible, he felt, to accept the relativity of knowledge and construct a sound philosophy of life; to accept evolutionary empiricism on the one hand, or idealism in any form on the other, and avoid drifting into agnosticism." It was in defence of this position that in 1860 he published 'The Intuitions of the Mind Inductively Considered.' It fought a losing battle (at the time) with much vehemence and eloquence, but it does not seem likely to rank high among the books that are significant in the philosophical development of its time. It is impossible to avoid the impression that Dr. McCosh was from first to last a theologian by first intention, and that his scientific and philosophical opinions were always subject to the desires of his mind as a Presbyterian clergyman.

We have four autobiographical chapters on Dr. McCosh's presidency at Princeton. They are written with great simplicity and with becoming modesty. They reflect a vigorous material development, and the shrewdness of the Scotch divine in loosening the purse-strings of rich men whenever a new building was wanted or a new department of instruction. The number of students more than doubled under his administration. He began with ten professors, four tutors, two teachers, and ended with thirty-five professors, with several tutors, lecturers, and assistants. That the methods of teaching and administration showed a corresponding gain is probable. But it is evident that we cannot expect a critical estimate of Dr. McCosh's collegiate work from his own hand, and for his biographer to furnish it would perhaps have been ungracious, if not impossible. His book, as a whole, must be accounted a memorial of loyal affection, making its appeal to Princeton men, as such, rather than a final judgment of the ability and performance of a gentleman and a scholar who tasted the joy of both work and battle with an equal mind.

The Winning of the West. By Theodore Roosevelt. Vol. IV., Louisiana and the Northwest, 1791-1807. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

THE years embraced in the scope of Mr. Roosevelt's latest volume were important ones in the history of the West, and they have an especial interest at the present time. The author points out that, in the last decade of the eighteenth century, the acute friction was not between North and South, but between East and West. The closing years of the nineteenth century seem to show once more that "East is East and West is West." The period was marked by such events as the attacks on the Northwestern Indians—a contest into which the frontiersman drew the reluctant Eastern authorities—and by the final aspects of Western disaffection in the struggle for the navigation of the Mississippi.

This struggle furnishes continuity to much of Western history in these years, and it has various interesting phases. It revealed itself in the renewed Spanish intrigues; in George Rogers Clark's attempt to organize a Western expedition in order to carry out Genet's plan of seizing Louisiana for France; in Pinckney's treaty; in Senator Blount's intrigue to replace Spain in Louisiana by England; in the Louisiana purchase, and in Burr's conspiracy. Mr. Roosevelt makes an excellent point when he emphasizes this "current of tendency" in the winning of the West. He calls attention to the fact that Burr's conspiracy was merely one of various Western conspiracies in which men like Wilkinson and Sebastian bore a part; and that the conquest of Texas did not stand apart from the general current of Western history. Its significance is misunderstood when treated solely in relation to the plans of the slaveholders:

> "The feats performed by Austin and Houston and the other founders of the Texan republic were identical in kind with the feats merely attempted or partially performed by the men who, like Morgan, Elijah Clark, and George Rogers Clark, at various times either sought to found colonies in the Spanish-speaking lands under Spanish authority, or else strove to conquer these lands outright by force of arms. Boone settled in Missouri when it was still under the Spanish Government, and himself accepted a Spanish commission."

Mr. Roosevelt has drawn on the manuscript sources noted in his previous volumes for material not before used; but he does not seem to have made an effort to use foreign archives for the purpose of giving an independent treatment to the diplomatic history of the West in this eventful era. The most significant event of the period was doubtless the purchase of Louisiana, but Mr. Roosevelt adds nothing to the work of Henry Adams on this topic, and he relies upon Coues for his account of the explorations of Lewis and Clark and Pike.

The volume has excellent material on the economic and social aspects of the "men of the Western waters." The author seems to have modified the views expressed in his previous volume with regard to a lack of unison between these communities, and he now exhibits the solidarity and homogeneity of the West. Even more interesting than the pictures of frontier society are the brilliant accounts of St. Clair's defeat and Wayne's victory. Mr. Roosevelt sees the impossibility of restraining the backwoodsman's advance, and he deals with the Indian relations with a leaning, if any, toward the forces which, with all their grimness and harshness, were advance-guards of civilization.

The author's enthusiasm for a vigorous foreign policy leads him to devote considerable space to denunciations of "the cowardly infamy" of Jefferson and Madison, for their failure to put the country on a firmer military basis; and he takes occasion to deliver a warning to Americans of the present day "that, as a nation, they have erred far more often in not being willing enough to fight than in being too willing." Jefferson also receives severe treatment in respect to Genet's Western intrigue. Mr. Roosevelt believes that while openly he supported Washington's policy of neutrality, "secretly he was engaged in tortuous intrigues against Washington, and was thwarting his wishes so far as he dared in regard to Genet." He asserts, without evidence, that it is "impossible" that Jefferson should not have known that Michaux was Genet's secret agent to promote the French expedition in the West, when he gave him an introduction to Governor Shelby of Kentucky. This is, in effect, charging Jefferson with complicity in Genet's purpose to seize Louisiana for France. The probabilities are against such a view, and the charge is too grave a one to be made lightly and without adducing evidence. In this connection it may be added that Mr. Roosevelt fails to show how far the authorities in France authorized Genet's plans for the seizure of Louisiana, and what the real status of George Rogers Clark was in relation to the French Government.

Mr. Roosevelt's treatment of Jefferson illustrates the impetuosity and recklessness of assertion which occasionally mar the pages of a work that for the most part exhibits real power of historical criticism, an insight into relations, and sound judgment. There are marks of hasty publication in this volume, as in the prior one of the series, shown in careless proof-reading, loose citations, and so on. It is an error to map the Louisiana purchase, as the author does, with "vaguely defined boundaries," following, nevertheless, in part the lines of the treaty of 1819, and including the Oregon territory while omitting Texas. No mention is made of so important a subject as the Whiskey Insurrection and its connections with the Mississippi question and with the earlier new-State movements in western Pennsylvania.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ashton, John. When William IV. was King. Appletons. $3.50.
Balzac, H. de. The Country Parson. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Canton, William. W. V. Her Book, and Various Verses. Stone & Kimball.
Dickinson, G. L. The Greek View of Life. London: Methuen & Co.
Earle, Mary T. The Wonderful Wheel. Century Co.
Eckstein, Ernst. Freisgekrönt. Henry Holt & Co. 30c.
Gillet, Prof. J. A. Elementary Algebra. Henry Holt & Co. $1.35.
Hale, Prof. E. E., jr. Constructive Rhetoric. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Hale, W. S. Handbook on the Law of Torts. St. Paul West Publishing Co. $3.75.
Howe, W. W. Studies in the Civil Law, and its Relations to the Law of England and America. Boston: Little, Brown & Co
King, Pauline. Paper Doll Poems. Century Co. 75c.
Linden, Annie. "Gold": A Dutch-Indian Story. Century Co.
Littell's Living Age. July-Sept., 1896. Boston: *Living Age* Co.
Macleod, Fiona. The Washer of the Ford: Legendary Moralities and Barbaric Tales. Stone & Kimball.
Mathews, William. Nugæ Litterariæ. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Newkirk, Garrett. Rhymes of the States. Century Co. $1.
Oxford Teacher's Bible. Henry Frowde.
Perry, Nora. Three Little Daughters of the Revolution. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75c.
Petrie, Prof. W. M. F. A History of Egypt during the XVIIth and XVIIIth Dynasties. Vol. II. Scribners. $2.25.
Rodenbough, Gen. T. F., and Haskin, Maj. W. L. The Army of the United States: Historical Sketches. Maynard, Merrill & Co. $5.
Rolfe, W. J. The Elementary Study of English. Harpers. 36c.
Roosevelt, Theodore. Ranch Life and the Hunting-Trail. Century Co.
Santayana, Prof. George. The Sense of Beauty. Scribners. $1.50
Sawyer, F. E. Notes and Half-Notes. Putnams. $1.
Sha'er, Prof. N. S. American Highways. Century Co. $1.50.
Shiel, M. P. The Rajah's Sapphire. Ward, Lock & Bowden.
Sunday Reading for the Young. E. & J. B. Young. $1.25.
The Poems of Celia Thaxter. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50
Thompson, Prof. H. D. Elementary Solid Geometry and Mensuration. Macmillan. $1.25.

Tiffany, W. C. Handbook on the Law of Persons and Domestic Relations. St Paul: West Publishing Co. $3 75
Todd, Mary I. Deborah the Advanced Woman. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Trowbridge, J. T. The Prize Cup. Century Co. $1.50.
Westover, Cynthia M. Bushy: A Romance Founded on Fact. New York: Morse Co. $1.50.
Whiting, Lilian. The World Beautiful. Second Series. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Whymper, Edward. Travels amongst the Great Andes of the Equator. Scribners. $2.50.
Wright, Julia McN. Cynthia's Sons. New York: National Temperance Society. $1.25.
Yonge, Charlotte M. The Wardship of Steepcoombe. Whittaker. $1.25.
Youmans, W. J. Pioneers of Science in America. Appletons. $4.

HENRY HOLT & CO.'S

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 15, 1896.

The Week.

THERE is no better sign of Bryan's fatuity than his failure to use extensively and almost exclusively, from the beginning, the rambling talk of Republican orators and politicians about silver during the last twenty years when they were trying to "placate" the silverites and were holding out lying promises of "international agreement," and buying up their wares for storage. If he had gone round the country with these utterances in his hand and read them to his audiences, without saying one word of his own, we seriously believe that he would have made far more headway and have done far more damage to the country than he has. He was foolish enough to substitute for them a great deal of nonsensical anarchism which has been ruin to the silver cause. No one who has heard him read from Lodge, or Reed, or Sherman, or Harrison can have failed to notice how much more effective his quotations were than his oratory. We think, too, by making these quotations he has been doing the only service he has ever done to his native land. He is bringing demagogy, trickery, ignorance, and time-serving in public men to such shame as has never before overtaken them.

In a speech at Seymour, Ind., on October 6 he read an extract from President Harrison's message to Congress in December, 1890, immediately after the passage of the Sherman law, which ran as follows:

> "The enlargement of our currency by the silver bill undoubtedly gave an upward tendency to trade, and had a marked effect on prices, but this natural and desirable effect of the silver legislation was by many erroneously attributed to the tariff account."

President Harrison had probably never at this time given any attention whatever to currency or to the effect of currency on prices. When he came into office in 1888, he acknowledged himself to be an "uninstructed political economist"—so uninstructed that he thought a "cheap coat made a cheap man," extolled dearness, and did not know that civilization was another name for the cheapening of all the commodities of life. He is speaking now effectively in favor of sound currency, but he would speak tenfold more effectively if, laying his hand on his heart, he would publicly say: "My friends, when writing and talking about silver between 1888 and 1892, I was writing and talking about a subject I had not studied and did not understand. In fact, I was not talking about currency at all. I was simply getting votes for the party the best way I could. I had no idea of the mischief I was doing. I had no idea of the construction some of you would put on my words, that they would be the means, in part, of creating a party of confusion and folly in this country of ours. I confess my mistake. I bitterly repent. I have looked into the currency matter since then. I understand it now, and I tell you the road we have all been travelling since 1873 is the road to ruin and disgrace, and I advise you to get out of it, even across lots."

Nothing could be more welcome to sound-money men than the announcement that Gov. Altgeld of Illinois is making himself more prominent than ever in the cause of the Populist candidate as the end of the canvass approaches. Hardly less gratifying is the news that Eugene V. Debs, the "President Debs" who disputed the government of the nation with Grover Cleveland for some days during the railroad strikes of 1894, is to be Altgeld's chief assistant. The boy orator who is running for the Presidency was personally unknown to the country when the canvass opened, and it was of the first importance to learn what sort of men were to be the chief advocates of his election. We have found that they are Altgeld, Tillman, Debs, and Weaver—the worst and most dangerous of men who ever took the stump to champion a candidate. Not one of the eminent men who have upheld the cause of Democracy in previous campaigns favors the election of Bryan. In their places we have Altgeld, Tillman, Debs, and Weaver. Next to Bryan's own speeches, nothing is doing so much to secure his overwhelming defeat as the character of his chief advocates.

Senator Teller has at last discovered certain inconveniences in campaigning under an undisputed charge of forgery. On September 17 the *Evening Post* republished part of his speech of September 7 at Morrison, Ill., and showed that a series of statements which he then professed to quote verbatim from the British Gold and Silver Commission's report of 1888 did not occur in that report, and were contrary to all the Commission's well-known findings. He now owns up to a Detroit audience that the Commission of 1888 never made the statements ascribed to them in the above speech. The Commissioners did not say that "every country that has gone to a silver basis is in a better condition than the countries on a gold standard," but they presumably would have said so if they had expressed their secret sentiments, and in fact "the report of the Commission was not favorable to the gold-standard nations." All this is very shallow talk, but it is worth a moment's notice, chiefly because the report of 1888 is explicit on some very important points. The Commission was appointed, as every one but Senator Teller knows, primarily to discover what was the trouble with India. As to India's actual condition under free silver coinage, there was no dispute. Not only was its demoralized condition admitted, but the Commission did not hesitate to find analogies in all the other silver-using countries. In the part of the report signed by all the Commissioners—even by Houldsworth, whom Mr. Teller quotes with special approbation—occurs the following: "Such [silver-using] countries are in themselves usually poor, and the capital required for their development must generally be attracted from gold-using countries" (Report, Part 1, paragraph 84). In the introduction to that part of the report signed by the silver Commissioners alone, the further plain assertion follows that the fall in silver serves to "discourage investment of capital in, and consequently retard the development of, silver-using countries" (Report, Part 3, Introduction). This statement sounds uncommonly like the New York "gold-bug" argument that "free silver coinage in the United States will break down all our industries through the wholesale expulsion of invested foreign capital." Yet this is Sir William Houldsworth's particular affirmation.

That some of the Commissioners did, in a very doubtful and hesitating way, and with frequent qualifications, suggest that British trade depression in 1888 might be connected with the fall in silver, is entirely true. Had Senator Teller confined his citation to this, nobody would have found it worth disputing, for silver has fallen vastly lower since 1888, and British trade and industry have revived astonishingly. This puts the argument finally at rest. Moreover, there is an interesting statement in another British Commission report made in that very season of reaction. The Royal Commission on the Depression of Trade, reporting in 1886, admitted frankly that business was in bad condition. They could not then foresee the subsequent revival. But in reviewing trade and price movements of preceding years the Commission said (paragraph 81): "There is no feature in the situation which the Commissioners have been called to examine so satisfactory as the immense improvement which has taken place in the condition of the working classes during the last twenty years." Of the twenty years referred to, fifteen were embraced in the period subsequent to Germany's demonetization of silver.

Mr. Reed said nothing truer at Bridgeport on Thursday than that "if there is anything in this silver question, it is because it is a disease of the whole world. If it is a disease, it is because it is a world disease." The disease is caused by the unparalleled improvements in the means of communication within a quarter of a century. This has brought all the agriculturists of the world into competition with each other in every market, and the result has been a great fall in the value of the earth's produce. This has fallen, too, on a world laden with leases, mortgages, contracts, and settlements made under another set of conditions, and as the agriculturists are the majority of the human race, they have uttered piercing cries and driven many "thinkers" crazy. The only remedy is to wait for time to set things right, as it always does; for the prices of things we have to sell to adapt themselves to the prices of things we have to buy, as they always do in the long run.

"Canvasses" and "claims" put forth by party committees are always subject to a large discount, but the straightforward report of his observations made by an investigator who is not in politics is entitled to pass at its face value. Two professors of the University of Wisconsin at Madison recently started out for a bicycle trip of five days. One is a believer in the gold standard; the other is a silver man. They went with the wind, changing their course as the wind shifted, and travelled in all about 250 miles in southern Wisconsin, passing through Dane, Rock, Walworth, and Jefferson Counties, all great farming counties. Simply to gratify their own curiosity, they stopped every man they met or passed on the highway, hailed every man they saw in the field or farmyard, and asked him how he was going to vote for President. When they got back to Madison, they reported that in all those 250 miles of Wisconsin roads they found not one lone man who was going to vote for anybody except William McKinley. At first they thought that the explanation must be that they were passing through a region where the farmers were remarkably free from mortgage burdens, but inquiries showed that there were the average number of mortgaged farms in these counties. The mortgaged men were simply not laboring under the delusion that free silver would lift the mortgages.

It has been generally assumed that the Venezuelan Commission can report in only one of two ways. It was directed to ascertain the true divisional line between Venezuela and British Guiana, and any such historical line, once ascertained by it, must put either Great Britain or Venezuela in the wrong. Neither alternative would help on a speedy and pacific settlement of the controversy. If Great Britain is right, our demand for arbitration is uncalled for; if Venezuela is right, she imperils by arbitration a position decided by us to be just. A correspondent of the Springfield *Republican*, however, points out that a third course is open to the Commission, which, in connection with the approaching arbitration of the matter, would avoid the difficulties presented by either extreme, and he predicts that it will be adopted—*i. e.*, a report that the data obtainable do not make it possible to establish the true historical boundary; that the country is a vast unexplored wilderness; and that, in fact, there never has been any boundary. It follows that there never can be any boundary by historical inquiry only, nor any whatever except as established for the purpose by negotiation or abitration. Hence the matter ought to be settled in one of these two ways.

Such a report, if made, would have the advantage over any other of not only avoiding the difficulty already mentioned, but of being strictly true. A true boundary line is not a line which this or that explorer or geographer lays down on a map, nor a line including such and such settlements mentioned by missionaries and priests, but a line delimited by somebody who has *power* to fix it. Until such a line is fixed by authority there is really no boundary whatever. This is true of all boundaries, even under municipal law. When two settlers in the West have a dispute over the line between their respective quarter-sections, they call in the assistance, not merely of a historian or a geographer, but of a court of justice, which not only marks out the line, but makes each party keep on his own side of it for the future. It is still more true of a boundary line between two nations running through an unexplored wilderness, because here there is no court of justice to appeal to, and the question is generally in great measure a question of actual occupation. Where no such line has been surveyed or fixed by proper authority, what is wanted is some authority to fix it. Occupation is marked by no visible line, and, what is more, does not remain the same from year to year. Moreover, occupation is a vague and elastic term, which means much under one set of circumstances and little under another. The occupation of the Essequibo valley may mean the banks of the river or its whole watershed. Which is "true"? One or the other, according as it is decided by competent authority, with power to enforce its decision. Consequently, for the commission to report that the "true" line was so and so would be to report an absurdity. No true divisional line was ever ascertained until it was adopted by authority, with a view to binding both parties. That is what makes a boundary. The commission by drawing a line would only add a new opinion to dispute about.

The collapse of the *Recorder* after nearly six years of desperate struggling to gain a foothold is one more lesson in journalism that silliness, vulgarity, crime, and filth are not an adequate basis upon which to construct a successful newspaper. There have been many experiments of this kind made in this city during the past ten or twenty years, and all of them have failed, costing their projectors many thousands of dollars. John Kelly's *Star* ran through the bank accounts of several millionaires, changing its name with each new owner, never getting on a paying basis, and during its varied career, which we believe is not yet ended, has been the means of sinking several millions of dollars. It was in all its different forms "spicy," "newsy," "brainy"; which means that it was silly and more or less vulgar all the time. The *Recorder* was projected and edited on the same plan. Its leading idea was that the people as a whole were too much interested in scandal, crime, tittle-tattle, and twaddle to care for anything else, and that a newspaper given over entirely to this sort of "news" would have a roaring success. All the leading lights of this style of journalism, the "inimitable" producers of sidewalk and barroom gossip, the "Strollers" and "Loungers," were retained, and they poured forth a wonderful flood of their "best work." All sorts of inducements were offered to buy the paper—coupons, colored supplements, chromos, and trips across the continent and around the world. Crime and scandal and twaddle were served up as they had never been served before, but, in spite of all these attractions, the public did not respond. The expenses steadily exceeded the receipts; one millionaire after another, now a steamboat proprietor, now a tobacco manufacturer, now a silver-mine owner, took his turn at paying the bills, but it was the same story with all. After dropping a good many thousands, each grew tired of the business, and when there were no more millionaires to be found, the paper went into the hands of the sheriff and soon ceased to appear.

The necessity under which Temple Houston, the son of the famous Gen. Houston, found himself of killing Judge Jennings in Oklahoma Territory on Friday is regrettable, but it is still a necessity. Having killed Judge Jennings's son a year ago, Temple naturally felt that he ought, within a reasonable time, to kill the father, too, on proper provocation. Judge Jennings is "an Iowa jurist." The provocation he gave Houston is not often given by jurists in the older parts of the world, but every locality has its customs and needs. He met Houston's little son coming home from school, and the little fellow spoke to him, whereupon the Judge did the only thing a jurist could do under the circumstances, he spat in his face. The penalty for spitting

in children's faces in Oklahoma is, it appears, death, which seems to us unduly severe, and it fell to the lot of Temple to execute it. So he "buckled on his gun" and sought the Judge, not in his library or in a courtroom, but in a bar-room, and shot him dead. Temple's hair, we understand, is long, he is a fine shot, and one of the finest Bryanite speakers in the West. He is hostile to the Supreme Court, the money power, and the punctual payment of debts in these times. He is now "in the hands of the authorities." What the authorities will do with him remains to be seen, but they will hardly dispute the propriety of Temple's action. Suppose Iowa jurists could with impunity spit in our children's faces as they returned from school, where should we be? There may be discussion as to the necessity of inflicting the death penalty for such offences, but the Jennings family appears to be an unusually depraved race, for Temple has already had, as we have seen, to kill Jennings the son.

The Hawaiian plank in the Republican platform, declaring simply for American "control" in the islands, was a great disappointment to the annexationists now in power there. They had hoped for better things, after the Republican ardor for annexation in 1893. But they are now greatly cheered by an interpretation of the plank which they have got from Joe Manley, and which leads them to hope that they have not lied and cheated in vain. The Honolulu *Advertiser* publishes with great display, and in facsimile, a letter which it had received from Augusta, Me., and which runs as follows:

> "Have just returned from Joe Manley's office. He informs me emphatically and without equivocation that that Hawaiian plank was Harrison's—just what he advocated while President, and just what the Republican party really believes in—annexation pure and simple. It was Harrison's idea and the party's idea, and they mean it. If McKinley is elected, that's what will result. Joe was very earnest about it."

Joe was very earnest about a great many other things connected with the St. Louis convention, but his earnestness did not seem to count. His assurance that the weak Hawaiian plank was Harrison's seems very dubious. Mr. Harrison was not a great power at St. Louis. His Administration was endorsed there only as a sort of pitying afterthought. Moreover, would the fearless Harrison say "control" when he meant annexation? That would look perilously like trying to deceive all the people all the time, which we know, from having been so assured by reputable orators, is impossible. We have no doubt that the Maine sympathizers with the Hawaiian adventurers are still of a mind to strike hands with them for mutual benefit. We have no doubt that much other rascality and jobbery is being plotted by some of our most eminent saviours of the country. The election of 1892 foisted an awful lot of rascals on us, and we expect to get an equally fine assortment this year. But we think the country (and even politicians) has learned someth ng about the unwisdom of surrendering to them.

The process of "explaining it" to the English has been extremely arduous in this campaign. Ignorance for ignorance, American innocence in regard to English politics is doubtless able to hold its own with anything that foreigners can produce; but we do think that Americans are not quite so solemn as Englishmen, or quite so credulous, in seeking or accepting light in their darkness. The rubbishy and misinformed letters on the situation which the London *Times* has published can be accounted for only on the supposition that, as Pascal's Jesuit maintained that *any* opinion of a Father must be valuable, the *Times* was convinced that any writer signing himself "An American" must be wise, accurate, and bursting with confidential information. The *Spectator* has, as usual, led all the other owls in sage blinking over American politics. At the beginning, it saw in Bryanism a new crusade, touched with supernal light, and discovered the profoundest religious sentiment in the Western farmers who were going to spend their last cent in order to avoid paying their debts. About Bryan himself it knew little, but was sure from a study of his jaw and shoulders that he was just the man to do Apocalyptic things. Later on it seemed to discover that the crusade was petering out, as it were, but still thought that Bryan would be elected if he could carry New York and Pennsylvania. It admitted, in the best style of *Spectator* superiority, that all the American despatches represented New York as absolutely certain to go for McKinley, but that was before the New York Democracy had endorsed Bryan, which, of course, changed the situation entirely. The Vermont and Maine elections meant nothing, for in November the honest-money Democrats would be "compelled" to vote for Gen. Palmer, and so Bryan and McKinley would be left "face to face," which was an awful thing to contemplate.

Nine months ago the first news of the Armenian massacres had just reached this country, and it was the confident expectation of most people that the Powers would find the means of preventing a repetition of these horrors. The Jingoes in Congress were just then "on the rampage" looking about for a war, and were ready to fight England for not fighting Turkey. We pointed out then the absurdity of any action alone, or any armed meddling on our part, although much American property had been destroyed and much American terror caused, inasmuch as the case was in what we considered competent hands. We preferred our bill of damages to the Porte; it was politely received and payment promised. It has never been paid. The massacres, far from ceasing, after the first wild outburst, have continued in all parts of the empire, ending quite recently in Constantinople, on a considerable scale. It is calculated that 100,000 men, women, and children have been butchered in cold blood during the past year—a very large proportion (there is abundant proof for this) by the instigation or "instructions" of the Sultan himself. Nothing like this has occurred in history. The present Sultan has outdone all the slaughters of the most slaughtering and cruel ages. The Powers have not restrained him up to this moment, and Lord Rosebery has just announced his opinion that interference on the part of England might cause her total destruction. Now the massacres of the last nine months and the great destruction of property have enormously increased the amounts due by the Sultan to other people. They have rendered it less and less likely that he will ever be able to pay us. We do not know whether anything, and if so what, has been said or done to remind him of his obligations to us, but surely something strong and trenchant ought to be said. If he were an honest man struggling with difficulties not of his own creation, we should owe him forbearance. But where there is steady nine months' persistency in the very crimes which created his debt to us, and when every hour renders it less likely he will ever pay us a cent, what do we owe him?

That free silver is in this country logically and historically the child of protection there is a great weight of evidence to show. Its lineage in Europe is not, perhaps, so easy to trace, but the recent congress at Budapest, where the agricultural section was almost wholly given over to bimetallic talk, was highly significant of the way things have gone. The protection nostrum has failed, and the bimetallic panacea is now making the running. The very men who a few years ago were calling for duties on foreign imports as the cure of all their woes, are now for bimetallism. The other quack medicine was shown to be worthless, but this one will infallibly go to the spot. Luckily the agrarian bimetallists at Budapest did not have everything their own way. They had to listen to a masterly address by M. Levasseur, in which, after upsetting their alleged facts and demolishing their arguments, he told them flatly that an international agreement was the idlest of idle dreams. He affirmed that there was not the slightest reason to hope that Austria or Germany or the Scandinavian countries would ever retrace their steps away from silver. As for England, said M. Levasseur in a happy phrase, she will never regard bimetallism as anything except "an article for export, not for home consumption."

THE GRAVITY OF THE CRISIS.

ARCHBISHOP IRELAND, one of the most distinguished prelates of the Roman Catholic Church, has been moved by his sense of duty as a citizen of a self-governing country to address a few words to his fellow-citizens on the present crisis in political affairs. He considers the existence of free government threatened by the Bryan movement. He concludes his address with these words:

"I may of course be mistaken. But I have come to look upon the present agitation as the great test of universal suffrage and popular sovereignty. Can the people defend public honor and the institutions of the country at the polls, as they have done on the field of battle? Can they be so calm and deliberate in their judgment, so careful to weigh all things in the scale of reason, and to avoid all rash experiments, that they can be trusted with the settlement of grave social and political problems? That is the question that is before us at the present moment."

Archbishop Ireland has here uttered the thoughts of a very large majority of the educated classes in the United States. Why is the present crisis so grave? It is not merely because a panic and a vast deal of business trouble would ensue from a change in the standard of value. It is not because many people would lose money, and social disorder would ensue, from the disturbance of wages and contracts. A remedy can be found for all these things in time. We have had business disturbances before, and yet we pulled through to a brighter day because we all had confidence in our institutions. But the case now is vastly different from any other crisis in our history. It involves the nation's good faith, without which the motive power that impels the whole machinery is gone. A republic cannot perform its work after it has forfeited the respect of its citizens. The sense of honor is absolutely necessary to its life, because it has no other reliance in times of danger than the devotion of its citizens. Strip it of this and it falls at the first shock.

Now the issue which presents itself to the mind of Archbishop Ireland and of nearly all persons of intelligence is this: whether a country that repudiates its debts in whole or in part can ever again command the devotion of honest men. This is the most serious question that has ever been put before the people, not excepting that which involved us in war thirty-five years ago. At that time the republic could and did command the unreserved devotion of its citizens. They were willing to pour out blood and treasure to any extent in the service of their country, because they loved and honored it; because it represented everything that makes citizenship precious and life worth living. But a country that repudiates its debts—what claim can it have on the affection of any self-respecting soul?

Some people say: "Why not give silver a trial? If it does not work well, we can go back to gold." If the matter could be so easily disposed of—if it were a mere question of expediency and of losing dollars more or less—we could look forward lightly to the election of Bryan. We have faced other campaigns in which feelings were powerfully enlisted, and in which it seemed to some of us as if an adverse result could not easily be borne, but we have never seen one where a false step was so void of remedy and recall. The election of Mr. Bryan is a step that can never be recalled, because it is a lapse from virtue. Undoubtedly we could go back after much tribulation to the gold standard if silver did not work well, but in the meantime we should have repudiated both public and private debts to an extent beyond the possibility of restitution. We should have produced a new state of affairs, political and financial, the most deplorable feature of which would be the encouragement of rogues and the despair of honest men. To talk about retracing such a step is like attempting to put new life into a corpse.

Instead of going back to the gold standard if silver should not "work well," the course of things would be altogether in the opposite direction. The Bryanites would say that the trouble was a lack of money, that silver was too costly and too slow of production. Mr. Bryan himself would lead the way to a more rapid issue of the circulating medium. In fact, he is already committed to the issue of new greenbacks for the building of public works. It is a very short step from this kind of an issue to the Ocala platform, the "sub-treasury plan," and everything that Coxey's army requires to make money plenty. This would be the natural and inevitable outcome, because there would no longer be any resisting force. Those who have hitherto held the Government in the path of honor would despair of making any successful resistance to the down-hill course. Those who could leave the country would do so. Others would possess themselves of real estate or anything that would probably survive the crash, speculators would thrive, and the poor would be pinched worse than ever because they would not know which way to turn to avoid the miseries of a depreciating dollar. In the end we should be where the French republic was when the assignats became worthless, and the people would turn gratefully to any strong man who should offer them security in return for liberty. We should go back to the gold standard at last, but the pathway would lie over the ruins of a republic.

SOUTHERN SIGNS OF THE TIMES.

THE last State elections to occur before the voting for President next month were those which took place in Florida on October 6 and in Georgia on October 7. The result was in each case precisely what had been expected—the success of the Democrats by a good majority over the opposition, which in Georgia was united upon the Populist ticket, and in Florida was divided between the nominees of the Republican and the Populist parties.

No such significance attaches to the size of the Democratic majority in either State as to the size of the Republican majorities in Vermont and Maine last month, for the reason that no proper basis of comparison with results in previous years exists. In the last election of Governor in Florida, four years ago this month, the Republicans ran no ticket, nor were any Harrison electors in the field the following month. In the Georgia State election four years ago, as this year, the only opposition ticket was that of the Populists, but nobody can tell what proportion of Republicans supported that ticket in either year. It is an utter waste of time and space, therefore, to speculate as to the bearing of the Democratic majority in either Florida or Georgia upon the condition of public sentiment regarding Bryanism.

In each State, however, the canvass exhibited features which deserve attention as signs of the times. The admission is freely made by the white Republican leaders in Georgia that, although they sent out orders for the members of their party to support the Populist ticket, a large proportion of the negroes voted for Gov. Atkinson, the Democrat who was running for reëlection. W. A. Pledger, the most prominent colored politician in the State, and many other leaders of the race openly advocated the Governor's reelection, on the ground that his administration had been excellent and that his treatment of the negroes had been all that could be asked. Col. A. E. Buck, the white Republican boss, who appealed for support of the Populist ticket, based his argument chiefly on the claim that "defeat of the Democratic State ticket would discourage their party throughout the country and greatly aid in carrying the North and West for McKinley." Of Gov. Atkinson he says:

"I do not pretend to criticise Gov. Atkinson or any member of the Democratic State Administration in the slightest degree. The Governor has made an able, honest, and impartial executive, and we can say nothing against him on account of any act or any policy. Pledger and his associates, who are working so diligently for Gov. Atkinson, are too honest and sincere in their positions to be distracted. They conscientiously believe that Gov. Atkinson is the best friend to their race that has been raised up since Abraham Lincoln, and nothing that I could do or say would cause them to desert his cause."

Throughout the State the white politicians sought the support of the black voters, and each faction was ready to fight to secure an honest count of the negro votes which it secured. Although some complaints of fraud are made against both the Democrats and the Populists, in counties which they respectively controlled, there is no doubt that the election showed a nearer approach to fairness than any previous one. It was held under a law which, for the first time,

required registration, and in a large proportion of the counties the dominant element voluntarily granted the other representation among the election officials. Public sentiment is now calling for action by the new Legislature to make a division of election managers between the parties compulsory.

The Florida election was the first one held under the Australian ballot law. The fact should not escape notice that the adoption of this system in that State, and the passage of the registration law in Georgia, are steps toward securing honest elections which have been taken since the repeal of the federal election laws. The national Government accomplished nothing by all its efforts in this direction except to establish the race line in politics and to solidify the whites. No sooner, however, had the national election laws been repealed and the fear of a force bill vanished, than the whites began to divide among themselves, and each element to seek support among the blacks, while both insisted upon an honest count of the votes thus secured.

One feature of the Florida election, which is barely mentioned at the end of most dispatches, and will make no impression on the mind of the average reader because he does not understand it, is really of the first importance. It is the statement that the constitutional amendment changing the time of State elections was ratified by an overwhelming majority. Formerly State elections were held in November. In 1888 Harrison and a Republican Congress were elected on a platform which threatened the passage of a force bill. The Florida Legislature thereupon, in 1889, voted to submit to the people an amendment to the Constitution changing the time of the State election to October, so as to escape the presence of federal officials at the polls. This amendment was considered by the voters in November, 1890, after the force bill had passed the House, and was ratified by 14,121 yeas to 7,511 nays. Early in 1894 Congress rejected the federal election laws. The Florida Legislature chosen the next autumn decided to submit an amendment changing the time of State elections back to November, and the proposition was endorsed by the voters on Tuesday week almost without opposition. The consolidation of elections was always advisable on grounds of convenience and economy; but so long as federal interference was feared, the people gladly took the trouble and stood the cost of an otherwise unnecessary election. They now recognize that the last fear of such interference has vanished.

These are the real lessons of the Florida and Georgia elections, and they are full of encouragement. They show that the tendency of things at the South is setting strongly in the direction of fairer elections and a more normal division of the voters, white and black alike, than have been seen since the negroes were enfranchised.

THE RESIGNATION OF LORD ROSEBERY.

Lord Rosebery's retirement from the position of Liberal leader ought really to have occurred when the party was turned out of power in 1895. His assumption of the place was said originally to be due to Mr. Gladstone, and one of the best arguments in its favor was that there was no one else for it. During Mr. Gladstone's administration, Lord Rosebery had acted as Foreign Secretary, and the idea had somehow sprung up, not only among the Liberals, but among the Conservatives, that he was a peculiarly "safe" man. Moreover, he was a peer and very rich, and his presence in the Administration was reassuring to a great many people who had grown afraid of the Radicals and the Irish. To put him, therefore, at the head of the Ministry when Mr. Gladstone went out, seemed a good stroke of policy. It did not turn out so, for various reasons. One was that the change from a very serious Prime Minister, who wrote on the Scriptures and a future life, to a young man of fashion, who raced horses, was too sudden, especially for as sober-minded a constituency as the Liberal party is. More than this, Lord Rosebery was not serious for his kind. He was the Melbourne or Palmerston type of minister, who did not think anything mattered very much, and was not very sure of any of his convictions. His last speech before the election in 1895 was, it is true, not jocular, but it was plaintive and apologetic, which is never the tone for a leader to take.

Worse than all, his right to lead at all was disputed by the strongest man the Liberals had, after Mr. Gladstone, namely, Sir William Harcourt. Sir William believed himself entitled to the succession, and he was entitled to it if powerful debating and skilful legislation in the House of Commons could give any claim. He was the ablest debater the Liberals had, and was a very successful second to Mr. Gladstone. But his manners were unpopular, and his continued fidelity to the Liberal party had undergone some sort of eclipse in 1874, and he was on very bad terms with the press. He accordingly continued to lead the House of Commons, but not the party, but his relations with Lord Rosebery were said to be decidedly acrimonious. He was met by Lord Rosebery with a politeness and good humor which ought to have disarmed him, but it did not. While Lord Rosebery was enjoying a sort of gilded leisure in the House of Lords, Sir William was bearing the brunt of the battle in the House of Commons, and throwing some sunset glory over the last hours of the Liberal party by such exceedingly difficult measures as the death-duties act, which, much as the Tories denounced it, they have not ventured to repeal. When the party went out of office, in fact, Harcourt was the man to whom more than any other except Mr. Gladstone the party was indebted. His fame and credit have been added to greatly by his leadership in opposition, which has been both judicious and powerful.

It is but fair to Lord Rosebery to say that the lesson of the crisis is rather that none but a very powerful and influential man like Lord Salisbury should venture to lead the Liberal party from the House of Lords, than that he himself is not competent. In this house it is very difficult for any man to make a figure, or keep himself before the public eye, or exhibit his best qualities. He must, therefore, be a man who, independently of these things, already occupies such a commanding position in his party as Lord Salisbury does. If he has still any reputation to make, the House of Lords is not the place to make it. But in this difficult position Lord Rosebery was placed; he had to show himself worthy of his office there, being, in fact, rather a "rising hope" of the Liberals, as Macaulay once said Mr. Gladstone was of the "stern and unbending Tories," than a tried leader. Nobody knew what kind of leader he would make, but the chances seemed to be in his favor. Moreover, he has the misfortune to find himself for the second time in opposition to, or out of sympathy with, his party on an exciting question. His sincere adhesion to Irish home rule was always a little doubtful, and now he finds he cannot agree with the bulk of the party and with Mr. Gladstone about the course the nation should take touching the Turkish atrocities. The reappearance of Mr. Gladstone, armed and equipped, is the most extraordinary incident of the crisis, and furnishes Lord Rosebery with a graceful and comfortable reason for quitting the scene.

What will happen next, it is hard to say. There are three men in the House of Commons of any one of whom it might be said that he is worthy to lead the party —Sir William Harcourt, Mr. Morley, and Mr. Asquith. Sir William Harcourt is already in the place, as far as the House of Commons is concerned. Out of doors, with the country, Mr. Morley carries more weight, owing to his character, while Mr. Asquith, though a powerful debater, is not so well known. There will be, and there need be, no haste in filling Lord Rosebery's place.

THE VAGARIES OF LITERARY FAME.

Mr. Du Maurier's rather pitiful death, which has left everybody a little sad, will bring to many, with its record of the years he had run, fresh wonder at the extraordinary literary success he won so late in life. To have first turned his hand to fiction when he was well past fifty, and to have produced one of the

most deservedly popular novels of the century when he was fifty-nine, is alone enough to give him a peculiar place in literary annals. At first sight his career seems to make the art of novel-writing appear a little ridiculous. Here were Hardy and Black and Besant and Hall Caine, here were Howells and James, serving a long apprenticeship and perfecting their art in book after book, when along came this impetuous and unpractised youth of fifty-nine and laid them all flat on their backs. What should we think of the art of fencing if an inexperienced cadet could thus lay low a lot of *vieux sabreurs*? And will any man maintain, after Du Maurier, that training and long years of experiment in the writing of fiction go for anything beside the happy chance which, after all, is the secret of literary fame?

It must be admitted that the fame of a writer is essentially a mysterious thing. The best proof of this is that writers who become famous, so often wake up and find themselves so, much to their own surprise. No one, in fact, is so poor a judge and prophet concerning his own writings as the author himself. Goethe had his doubts whether 'Faust' would prove antiseptic against the decay of time, but was absolutely certain that he should be immortal on account of his theory of light, which all modern physicists consider a series of hopeless blunders. Southey thought that he had taken a bond of fate with those portentous poems of his which nobody can read, and never suspected that his literary reputation would rest so largely upon the despised historical and biographical work he did. But there is literally no end to the self-deceptions of authors in this kind. Montaigne reproaches Cicero for thinking his poems worth preserving, and, in our own day, we have seen the philosophic Lecky gravely make a bid for fame with a volume of wooden verse.

If writers themselves, brooding on things to come, go so far astray, they are no more out than are the publishers and the critics. Men bred to the business of picking the winner in the great literary handicap, go as egregiously wrong as the veriest gaping rustic risking his dollar. There is no wisdom which can say in advance, "This book will sell 50,000 copies. This writer will make a fortune." It is not only the Miltons and the Cervantes who hawk their wares about, and find publishers refusing the immortality thrust upon them. Mr. Barrie, to take a current instance, records with a certain pathetic satisfaction that the Scotch sketches which have made his reputation were rejected by *all* the magazines—or, at least, if there was any editor to whom he did not offer them, he cannot remember it now. All this is an old story. Such experiences, marking almost every page of the history of book-publishing, taken together with such unforeseeable successes as Du Maurier's, certainly give color to the pessimistic view that literature is a lottery, and that fame is only another way of spelling luck.

But without professing to be wise above all our contemporaries, and without denying that a great reputation in literature, as in many other fields, is often mysteriously won, we venture to say that there was nothing whatever of the happy-go-lucky about Mr. Du Maurier's success. There is not the slightest encouragement in his example for any reader of these columns who, at the age of fifty-nine (or any other nine), may feel like saying to himself, "Go to, I also will write a novel and get much gain." There are apprenticeships and apprenticeships, and Du Maurier had served one of the very best of them for many years, if all unconsciously. He had made it his life business to observe—to observe and interpret human beings. By the time it first occurred to him to try his hand at writing, he had accumulated a vast store of material and had done it in the best possible way. That is to say, he had not made a lot of dry, Zolaesque notes on men and things for the specific purpose of cataloguing them in a book that would read like an inventory, but had made a wide experiment of life, and kept his impressions in that fine compartment of the imagination where they become softened and clarified with time, and so best fitted for artistic use. He was thus no mere romancer when he began, no light-hearted gentleman sallying forth with "facetious and rejoicing ignorance," as Lockhart said of the Edinburgh Reviewers, but one of those fortunate men whose whole life had been unconsciously fitting them for the great stroke when the great opportunity came.

Nor has it been sufficiently noted how, in the mere craftsman's part of writing, he had really had the happiest training. The little legends under his caricatures are often as artistic as the pictures they go with. Crisp phrase and dramatic retort and gentle humor were the things required here, and they are the things that mark his later writing, the style of which he had all along been unwittingly forging. Then think what his life-long association with artists and wits must have meant to him in the way of acute perception and the ready word to convey it. His life was really all of a piece, in these aspects, as one may see from the delightful glimpses given of him in his Bohemian days by Felix Moscheles.

When we add that Du Maurier was an unsparing worker, not trusting to lucky flashes so much as to patient and dogged labor, we have gone far towards making his literary fame much less mysterious than many would like to think it. He is perhaps as good an illustration as we have recently had of Dr. Johnson's definition of genius as great natural powers accidentally turned in a certain direction. His powers were turned first to art and then to literature, but they were the same powers, and their product was alike in both departments. The moral for literary workers to draw from his life is not that literary fame is purely a gambling affair, but that it depends upon knowing something better than anybody else and conveying it to the public more attractively than anybody else.

"THE GROWING ILLITERACY OF AMERICAN BOYS."

THE Committee of the Overseers of Harvard College on Composition and Rhetoric last year very severely criticised the examination papers of the entering class, as indeed they had done three years before, and published specimens of them which were admitted on all hands to be deplorable. This was done on the ground that students came up from the leading preparatory schools in such a condition of unfitness, as regards their own tongue, that it was necessary for the college to spend much time, energy, and money in teaching them what they ought to have learnt already. To use Prof. Goodwin's language on this subject, "There was no conceivable justification for using the revenues of Harvard College or the time and strength of her instructors in a vain attempt to enlighten the Egyptian darkness in which no small portion of her undergraduates were sitting."

This report naturally excited a good deal of dissatisfaction among the schoolmasters, which has been much increased by the proposal of the Committee to print this year the papers of all the candidates presenting themselves for admission to college from particular schools or academies—the Boston Latin School, for instance, and Mr. Noble's, and Messrs. Brown & Nichols', and the Roxbury Latin—thus at once bringing into contrast the methods pursued and the results achieved in those schools.

The principals of these schools have accordingly filed the following protest with the Board of Overseers:

"We, the principals of the schools named in this report, wish to protest against the action proposed therein, for two reasons:

"(1.) Such a comparison as is suggested, of papers of candidates from specified schools, would establish a dangerous precedent, and is a new departure for Harvard College, which has been scrupulously careful in the past to treat all fitting schools alike.

"(2.) We contend that sight translations from Latin, Greek, French, or German made in a limited time, under a great nervous strain, are not evidence of a candidate's general ability or inability to write good English.

"While we regret the growing illiteracy of American boys as much as your committee does, we cannot feel that the schools should be held solely responsible for evils which are chiefly due to the absence of literary interest and of literary standards in the community.

"No school shuns a discussion of plans and methods of teaching or a comparison of results achieved, but no school is willing to carry such discussion and comparisons before the general public, which, from the nature of the case, cannot appreciate the true value of the evidence submitted, and must therefore draw false inferences.

"If your committee wishes for the sake of the common good to examine the methods pursued and the results achieved in our schools

under existing conditions, it is welcome to make a most thorough examination, and we promise it our cordial assistance, with full liberty to make any proper use of the results of its investigation."

This protest was referred back by the Board of Overseers to the Committee on Composition, who have reported on it to the Board. The report sets forth that the object in proposing the publication of the examination papers was not to make an invidious distinction between schools, but, by a comparison of the methods pursued in a few of the best schools, to get, if possible, some suggestion as to the improvement of the whole system. But this is a minor matter. What is most serious in the protest is the teachers' way of accounting for the deficiencies of their pupils, and their objection to the public display of the result of the tests to which they are submitted.

The signers object to the publication of the examination papers on the ground that the public is not competent to judge them. The public in this case, of course, means mainly graduates of colleges, parents of graduates, and generally persons interested in the subject of education. It is only these who would be likely to pay any attention to the papers. If it be true that this class cannot form an intelligent opinion as to the manner in which their sons and other relatives are taught to write and speak their own language; if the choice of methods and the estimate of results must be left entirely to the teachers themselves, the matter is indeed very grave. It would place these gentlemen in a much better position than any other profession in the community. Every other practitioner is judged by the results of his work—the lawyer by the results of his advice and conduct of cases, the doctor by the effect of his practice on his patients, and the minister by his influence on sinners. In no case is it left to him to say whether he has succeeded or not, though his art may be much more obscure and technical than the teaching of English.

The reasons why the teachers are not to be held responsible are, however, graver than the fact of non-responsibility. They say they cannot prepare the boys in the use of their mother tongue because of the "growing illiteracy of American boys," and they ascribe this again to "the absence of literary interests and of literary standards in the community." The way of accounting for evils, and relieving individuals from blame for them, by ascribing them to general causes, is a very old one. In the early days of the civil-service agitation there was a very widespread opposition to the passage of any civil-service law, on the ground that civil-service reform must be accomplished by "the slow uplifting of human nature." The same agency was to be relied upon for the abolition of slavery. In fact, nearly every abuse has at some time in its history been defended in the same way. If it be true that "illiteracy is growing among American boys," and there is "an absence of literary standards and interests in the community," the remedy would seem to lie in greater efficiency and energy on the part of the institutions which are specially charged with the duty of combating illiteracy among youth. It would seem as if the preparation of the schools should be made sterner than ever, and the standards of the college higher than ever, so that everybody who meant to go to college should, from the time he put off petticoats, have in his mind the fact that not good athletics but good English was essential to his getting into college at all and having "a good time" while he was there.

Moreover, publicity is the great modern remedy and stimulant, and if this evil be as great as the schoolmasters say, it seems to us that publicity should be made to help us in its extinction. Schools should be made ashamed of their boys, and boys made ashamed of their English, by asking all men to listen to them. It is in this way that the best results are obtained in all walks of life. We should think ambitious schoolmasters whom the English of their pupils shocks would welcome it. We do not believe that any agencies can do as much for reform as exposure. As long as boys and their parents remain under the impression that English is of secondary importance in school and college, and that defects in it will be carefully covered with the veil of secrecy or anonymity, so long will the illiteracy of American youth continue to increase, composition continue to be ungrammatical and ill-spelt, letters ill-written and ignorant, handwriting scratchy and uneducated. It appears to be now acknowledged by the schools themselves that they are unable to deal with the emergency. They appear by their own admission to be baffled by the negligence of the boys and the indifference of the parents and guardians. Is it not time that some new plan were tried? It has long been notorious that teachers of English in America were much hindered by bad habits of speech at home. Ought they to protest against having the public called to their assistance?

FRENCH CANADIANS IN MAINE.

BRUNSWICK, Me., September, 1896.

IN the annual report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor for 1881, Mr. Carroll D. Wright, then chief of the bureau, in summarizing the results of an investigation of the attitude of employers and employees in New England and New York towards the ten-hour day, said:

"The third objection to ten hours is the presence of the Canadian French. Wherever they appear, there their presence is urged as a reason why the hours of labor should not be reduced to ten. The reasons for this urgency are not far to find. With some exceptions the Canadian French are the Chinese of the Eastern States. They care nothing for our institutions, civil, political, or educational. They do not come to make a home among us, to dwell with us as citizens, and so become a part of us; but their purpose is merely to sojourn a few years as aliens, touching us only at a single point, that of work, and, when they have gathered out of us what will satisfy their ends, to get them away to whence they came, and bestow it there. They are a horde of industrial invaders, not a stream of stable settlers. Voting, with all that it implies, they care nothing about. Rarely does one of them become naturalized. They will not send their children to school if they can help it, but endeavor to crowd them into the mills at the earliest possible age. To do this they deceive about the age of their children with brazen effrontery." [They have] "one good trait. They are indefatigable workers, and docile. . . . To earn all they can, by no matter how many hours of toil, to live in the most beggarly way so that out of their earnings they may spend as little for living as possible, and to carry out of the country what they can thus save: this is the aim of the Canadian French in our factory districts."

While, as was said, the language of the report did not profess to be anything but a summary of the testimony taken by the Bureau, its sweeping assertions met, as the report for 1882 says, "the earnest and patriotic condemnation of the Canadian French of New England." Whether the statements of the report were justified or not is not the object of the present inquiry; it can hardly be doubted, however, that views very similar to those there expressed are still, after a lapse of fifteen years, widely held in different parts of New England. I have recently had occasion to note the extent to which such a characterization, if made to-day, would have any application to the French Canadians in Maine.

Although the French Canadians are by far the most numerous class of foreigners in Maine, no authoritative statistics of their number and condition are, so far as I am aware, available. The national Government does not keep separate records of the immigration from Canada, nor are the returns to be found in the census of 1890; reliance must be had, therefore, on unofficial publications and private inquiry. According to the *Guide Français de la Nouvelle-Angleterre* for 1891, there were at that time in Maine 52,986 French Canadians; and while this figure is probably not the result of actual enumeration, it is no doubt accurate enough for practical purposes. The French population has increased somewhat since 1891, though not so rapidly as in previous years. A conservative estimate would place the present number at not far from 55,000. About half of these are found in six manufacturing centres. Biddeford and Saco have, in round numbers, about 11,000; Lewiston and Auburn, 11,000; Waterville, 3,500; and Brunswick 2,500. Probably 10,000 are settled in the extreme northern and western parts of the State, in the region along the Canada line; the rest are, for the most part, scattered, a few hundred in a place, among the larger towns and cities. It is at once apparent that the distribution of the French is by no means even—they are massed at a few points, and, as a rule, are not found in any numbers in the seacoast towns. The *Guide Français*, already quoted, gives a list of but thirty three places in Maine in which there was an appreciable French population in 1891.

The stream of French immigration that for many years has flowed into Maine shows a continual, but not steady, increase, with at times a noticeable return movement. Nearness to the Province of Quebec has favored immigration, while the slower industrial development of the State, as compared with some other parts of New England, has pre-

vented the influx from reaching at any time very large proportions. Since the passage of the national law prohibiting the importation of contract laborers, the French have ceased to come in parties under the influence of agents of manufacturing corporations, the impelling motives now being rather the meagreness of opportunity at home and the reported success and satisfaction of relatives and friends already here. What gives the movement its irregular character is partly, I think, the especial sensitiveness of the French to changes in business conditions. As a class they are little disposed to wait, and a period of business depression, with its usual accompaniments of lower wages and lessened employment, is pretty certain to turn the tide and send considerable numbers of them back to Canada until the return of better times. Even at its height, however, the French "invasion" of Maine is plainly on a very moderate scale; the highest estimate does not give the French element 10 per cent. of the population of the State.

There are two points at which the French Canadians come into vital touch with an American community. One is as laborers, the other as citizens and voters. In neither of these aspects is the attitude of the French in Maine what it was formerly. Fifteen or twenty years ago they could have been not inaptly dubbed "the Chinese of the East"; today any such epithet would be neither fitting nor just. That the presence of a large and growing number of French in the manufacturing centres tends to overstock the "labor market" and keep down the general level of wages seems probable, though inquiry has disclosed no unanimity of opinion on this point; it seems clear, however, that the influence in this direction is no longer so great as it used to be. It has to be remembered that the Frenchman almost invariably arrives here poor, often penniless; he comes from a farm, knows nothing of any other employment, and speaks no language save the barbarous Canadian French; he must have work at once, and is usually glad at first to take any wages offered him. So long as this class was in the majority, "cheap labor" and its attendant evils prevailed. But the class of skilled, or at least somewhat practised, laborers is now very considerable, and is increasing faster than the new arrivals of the unskilled; the result is a steadying of the labor supply, a greater diversity of occupations, a disposition to demand higher wages, and a willingness to strike. The passage and general enforcement of laws restricting the employment of children in factories have removed one of the worst causes of disturbance; and while everywhere in Maine the French are the predominant operative class, they are, as a rule, well paid, they have profited largely by labor legislation, and commend themselves to their employers by the quickness with which they learn, as well as by their industry and docility.

As regards permanent residence and citizenship, there can no longer be any question but that the French are in Maine to stay. Years ago, when the first parties of immigrants arrived, it was almost always with the intention of remaining only temporarily, earning as much money as possible, and returning to Canada in the near future; and this intention was for many years carried out. Thousands of dollars earned in Maine were expended upon Canadian farms, and many of the French themselves returned, as years went by, to their old homes. But as the French population increased with better wages and more certain employment, and as children born here grew to be themselves wage-earners, American life came to seem more and more attractive, until at the present time it is practically only the older people, and by no means all of them, who cherish the hope of an ultimate return to their native land; for a rapidly growing number of the younger people, the native land is not Canada, but the United States. At the two points at which this inclination to permanent residence chiefly manifests itself, namely, property-holding and voting, I have again failed to obtain adequate statistics, but estimates avowedly conservative show some rather striking results. The number of French-Canadian voters in Maine must now run into the thousands, and the rate of increase is more rapid than at any previous time. There are between three and four thousand owners of real estate, with property valued at not far from $2,500,000; and the number of property-holders is also increasing. Much the larger part of this real estate is residence property. Figures such as these, imperfect and general as they are, are hardly found among an alien people who care nothing for American institutions and hold themselves obstinately aloof from American life; for even the most ignorant Frenchman knows that neither citizenship nor the ownership of property adds very much to his wage-earning power. To be sure, large sums of money are still sent to Canada regularly, as will doubtless be the case for many years to come; on the other hand, larger and larger sums are retained for expenditure in the communities where they have been earned.

While, however, these indications point unmistakably to the permanent residence in Maine of a large number of French Canadians, one must not exaggerate their importance, or assume a greater assimilation of American ideas than has actually taken place; for, notwithstanding the large number of naturalized citizens, native-born children, and property-owners among them, the French in Maine are still, in some material respects, aliens and foreigners. Even after English has been mastered, they retain French as the language of common life, while many of the older people know no word of English. They read French newspapers and French books. They have the clannishness of strangers in a strange land, for the most part live by themselves in a distinct section of the town or city, and prefer their own stores, their own mechanics, and their own physicians. They keep tenaciously many of their own customs, have their own clubs and social organizations, and make much of weddings, funerals, and festivals of the Church. Persons who know them well have assured me that their dwellings, even in the tenement-house districts, are remarkably clean, but I am unable to think that the casual observer would form such an impression. Marriage comes at an early age, and families are large. Intermarriage with native Americans is, however, infrequent. As regards general morality, the French do not appear to be sinners above all others; but drunkenness is the predominant curse, while petty thieving and larceny are, for some, besetting sins. In general, the French keep to themselves, associate little with people not of their own race, and, if they think of the matter at all, seem content to be thought a distinct class in the community.

This tendency to isolation, always dangerous in a foreign population, is strengthened in the case of the French Canadians by the fact that they are, almost to a man, members of one religious denomination, the Roman Catholic. The membership of a French Catholic parish in Maine is practically the same thing as the total French population of the community; in the parish of St. Peter's, Lewiston, for example, with a French population of about 11,000, I am told that there are less than fifty upon whom the Church has no hold. While large numbers of Irish immigrants in other parts of New England drift away from Church and priest, the French hold unwaveringly to the faith of their fathers. And the controlling and humanizing effect of the Catholic Church upon them is immeasurably great. The parochial schools, teaching both French and English, are largely attended, while the amount of parish work done by the priests is enormous. In all matters of general concern the influence of the Church is on the side of law and order and public progress; in labor disputes the priests have often been successful in preventing strikes and adjusting differences. It is undoubtedly the intention of the Church to keep the control it already has, and, with French priests everywhere, there is no longer much talk of "repatriation," so much discussed a few years ago. That the Church maintains so perfect a hold upon its members is no doubt due in part to the great docility of the French, as also in part to their ignorance; but no unprejudiced person, living at peace in a Maine community a large proportion of whose inhabitants are French Canadians, can, I think, fail to admit that it is to the Catholic Church, more than to any other single agency, that are to be ascribed the general good order and absence of crime.

No one who has seen much of the French Canadians in Maine can maintain that they will bear comparison in all respects with the average of native Americans; but that they are a permanent element in the population, and that they are making rapid progress in the direction of useful citizenship, is beyond question. There are discouraging and retarding influences on both sides. The French are not always faithful and reliable, they are prone to overestimate the value of their labor, they are an easy prey for the agitator and demagogue, they cling to a language which to most Americans is jargon, and they send money out of the State. On the other hand, useful and indispensable as they have become, they are nowhere received with cordiality, or commonly referred to save as an inferior class; even their religion is denounced as un-American, and the influence of the Church little regarded or else misconstrued. The law requires them to send their children to school, but the public schools offer scanty advantages to children who can neither speak English nor read French. As a class, they are treated considerately in public because of their votes, disparaged in private because of general dislike, and sought by all for the work they do and the money they spend. Yet it is plain that they are making for themselves a place, not only as factory operatives, but also as skilled laborers in many trades; here and there some hold public office, and a few French have sat in the State Legislature. In the State as a whole they are being steadily, though slowly, worked into the conglomerate that we call the American people.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

THE OPENING OF THE DANUBE CANAL.

ORSOVA, September 27, 1896.

THIS has been a day of special rejoicing in

Hungary. The proud Hungarians celebrate the completion of a work which will for a long time hold preëminence in the annals of engineering science—a work which interests Hungary not alone, but nearly the whole of South-Central Europe. The Danube Canal, so called, through the Iron Gate (Vas-Kapu) is a *fait accompli*, and the thought and energy which have surrounded its making for the better part of 2,000 years are fittingly sealed with the triumphant passage this morning through the new channel of the steamer *Ferencz-József*, conveying their Majesties the Emperor of Austria-Hungary and the Kings of Rumania and Servia.

The day has been a singularly beautiful one, and the drenching rains of yesterday, which fairly turned festive Orsova into a mud-hole, and amply sustained the Emperor's characterization of the weather on his arrival as *miserabel*, have left little evidence of their existence. Everything is gay and animated. Bunting streams from hundreds of poles, masts, and triumphal arches, and almost every house, whether large or small, the abode of the wealthy or the kennel of the lowliest peasant, Hungarian, Rumanian, or Servian, is decked out in colors or hung with illumination glasses. With many others who did not wish to plod through three miles of national mud and rain—there being an enormous carriage demand and but a limited service—I passed the night at the railway station and walked into Orsova in the gray of the morning. There was as yet hardly a sign of official life, and but few of the loungers on the river front seemed to know that the chief figure of the coming celebration was on board the trim steamer that bore the Emperor's name, and from which passed out a long carpeted gangway to land. In front of the *Ferencz József* lay a small monitor, and alongside were a number of other vessels that were to form part of the royal cortège.

From Orsova to the head of the canal is three miles, and the passage down is rapidly made by small passenger-steamboats, most of which (manifestly with a view of meeting the difficulties of the return journey) are constructed with four paddle-wheels. There is nothing strikingly beautiful in the scenery of this portion of the Danube. The gate of Kazan, with its almost vertical walls of rock, has been left behind, and the river opens out into a landscape with perhaps more graceful, even though less imposing, outlines. Hills of a few hundred feet elevation, here and there badly scarred by falls of rock, and covered from base to summit with that lovely forest vegetation which, almost everywhere in Europe, clings to the mountain slopes and gives to them an incomparable green, are the distinctive features of the two banks; between them the Danube rushes on in its mad course, as yellow and muddy as in the region where it has fantastically been termed the "blue Danube."

The canal or new ship-channel is on the Servian (southern) side of the river, and naturally to it have flocked the many who have come to take part in the official opening. The visit to this side has been greatly facilitated by the free entry which at the present time exists in the kingdom, no passport being required, whereas on the Rumanian side the demand for papers of nationality is rigidly enforced. Looking into the water which wells foaming through the canal, one is constrained to ask: Wherein lie the results of the great work that has just been completed, and to which an expenditure of some 18,000,000 florins or more has been put? The river is a race, and I should say, if my eyes do not deceive me, that the waters still plunge forward with a velocity of not less than six or seven miles an hour, and perhaps more. I timed the royal steamer on its return, and found that it took just sixteen minutes to beat against the current over a length somewhat exceeding one mile. It is in the depths, however, that the improvement lies. The rocks and crags that but a few years ago rifted the river, and in fact overlooked it for most of its width, have for the greater part disappeared, and in the new channel the water boils over a smoothly paved floor. Down it one descends with refreshing swiftness; up, it is merely a question of power and slow progress, for the passage is clear and safe. On the inside lies the great breakwater or dam, a gently curved construction of rocks and masonry, pleasingly symmetrical to the eye, which parts off the main waters of the Danube.

With the arrival at Salaria of the first passenger steamer from Orsova, the people began to gather on the bank, and at about eight o'clock could be seen a long file of humanity heading for the point of observation. The gay Sunday attire of the Rumanian and Servian peasantry was a charming feature in the landscape, and if in all cases the wearer did not quite come up to the habit, the quiet and dignified association of this simple folk with the event of the day was not the least interesting or picturesque part of the celebration. From far and near they come trundling along in their small wicker wagons, with horses so small and so emaciated that one wonders how they could come at all. It is the picture that we see from here well into the heart of Poland, with hardly a variation.

At about 9:40 a cannon-shot announces that the royal squadron is nearing the round of the river, and the knife is raised ready to cut the improvised chain which spans the opening to the canal. On the Rumanian side we see a body of infantry stretched along the bank, with a few pieces of artillery prepared for possible service; on the Servian a few unmounted police (carrying more the air of military service than that which we habitually associate with the peace-wardens of our cities) patrol the lines of visitors, neither infringing upon their rights nor unnecessarily intruding with that officiousness which so generally marks official duty. They realized Servia's honor in having the larger share of the occasion, but they did not abuse it.

There could hardly be a finer or more inspiring picture than that of the entry of the royal vessel into the canal. The sun shone brilliantly on the trim white craft as she ploughed into the turbulent waters, tearing through the mock chain that had been stretched between the breakwater and the Servian shore. Emperor Francis Joseph, King of Hungary, stood beside the Kings of Rumania and Servia—well to the front, and in full view of everybody. A chorus of *éljens* and "Magyarország a haza" added its voice to the thunder of cannon as the official passage was begun, and to each following vessel, carrying the rank of nobility, the army and navy, ministers and invited guests, was meted out a proper share of greeting and welcome. Hardly had the Servian cannon ceased to shake the mountains with their swelling strains when the Rumanian artillery opened out, sending forth long lines of smoke over the distant waters. This scene will not soon be forgotten by those who were witness to it, for it is not to be repeated. From now on begins a new era in the commercial development of South Central Europe.

ANGELO HEILPRIN.

RENÉE DE FRANCE.—I.

PARIS, September 23, 1896.

AMONG the illustrious ladies who first adopted the ideas of the Reformation, Renée de France, who became Duchess of Ferrara, stands foremost. Her life has recently been written by E. Rodocanachi, a Greek who has made himself a Frenchman, and who has devoted himself to the study of French history and French literature. He has conscientiously used all the documents which concern the Duchess of Ferrara. The archives of Turin furnished him the precious collection of the account-books of the Duchess, which form no less than fifty-four volumes; in Rome, he used the collection of the reports of the Pontifical agents accredited in Ferrara and in France: he found many interesting letters and documents in Venice, in the French National Library, in the libraries of Geneva, St. Petersburg, and Simáncas. He has thus been able to add much to the valuable works of Bartolomeo Fontana and others concerning Renée de France and the part she took in the great movement of the Reformation in France and in Italy.

Born on the 25th of October, 1510, Renée was the younger daughter of Louis XII., King of France. Her eldest sister, Claude de France, was married to Francis I., who became King at the death of Louis XII., as Louis had no direct heir. Renée became an orphan at the age of five years, and remained under the care of the mother of Francis I., Louise of Savoy, who did not like her, as she had much disliked her mother, Anne of Brittany. Little is known about her education; she received lessons from the celebrated theologian Lefèvre d'Étaples, who afterwards became a fervent partisan of the Reformation and produced a French translation of the New Testament. It was the liberal period of the reign of Francis I.; a number of high personages were in sympathy with the movement which began to pronounce itself in Germany against the abuses of the Church. "The world," says M. Rodocanachi, "was not yet divided irremediably into adversaries and partisans of the Holy See." A certain spirit of criticism was the fashion. Louise of Savoy preached by her own example; she wrote in her Journal: "In the year 1522, in December, my son and myself, by the grace of the Holy Spirit, began to recognize the hypocrites, white, black, gray, of all colors, from whom God, in his infinite goodness, preserve us."

Renée de France had many suitors. After Francis I. came to the throne, Don Carlos, the future Charles V., who was master of the Netherlands, but who did not yet dream of the Empire, thought of marrying her in order to become, some day, Duke of Brittany. He sent an embassy to Francis I., but the negotiation dragged on, and the combinations which followed the battle of Marignano put an end to this project. Francis thought a moment of giving Renée to the Duke of Savoy, then to the Elector of Brandenburg, afterwards to the Constable of Bourbon. Wolsey was sent to Compiègne to treat for the marriage of Renée with Henry VIII., but the King of England, fortunately for her, got enamoured of Anne Boleyn, and this preference perhaps saved her life. Finally, it was decided that she should marry Hercules of Este, the son of Alphonso I. of Este, Duke of Ferrara. Italy was at this

time the centre of the political intrigues and combinations of Europe; the Pope, the Emperor, the King of France were all courting the alliance of the Duke of Ferrara, who had made himself important by his conquests. The future of Hercules seemed brilliant; his father had made himself master of Modena, of Finale, of Reggio; he was designated as captain of the people at Florence, a function which almost made him master of the city; he could hope, with the help of France, to become Duke of Milan, perhaps king of northern Italy. The young prince came to France with a large and brilliant retinue; the marriage was celebrated with great pomp on the 25th of June, 1528, in the Sainte-Chapelle, and the poet Marot recited an epithalamium at the banquet which followed. The young couple made the journey to Italy by short stages, accompanied by a small army of retainers. Renée had 158 persons with her, Hercules as many as 300; and it is difficult to imagine how so many people could be accommodated in the poor villages along the road.

Renée, in her contract, had to renounce all her rights to the duchy of Brittany; she received in exchange the duchy of Chartres, the county of Gisors, and the château of Montargis, where she was, long afterwards, to end her existence, and where she stopped a moment on her way to Italy. Renée had a triumphal entry at Ferrara, but she found herself quite lost at first in her dilapidated palace, not knowing a word of Italian. Her thoughts always turned to France, and she wrote to Francis: "I never had and never will have any other will but yours, and my ambition is to do you service in the way in which you command me." This was not an empty phrase, and she really always tried to influence her husband in favor of Francis I., and to defend the French interest against the interests of the Emperor and the Pope.

The marriage was not a happy one. Renée had not the gift of beauty, so common in Italy, and Hercules quarrelled with her incessantly because she would keep a few French attendants, particularly Madame de Soubise, who was a clever woman and had become her intimate friend. Duke Alphonso died on the 28th of October, 1534, and, Hercules having become his successor, made a journey to Rome to render homage to the Pope, and to Naples to solicit the protection of Charles V. On his return he ordered that Madame de Soubise should leave the court and return to France. He had bound himself very closely to the party of the Emperor; Renée remained attached to the French interest; she received at her court several Frenchmen who had been attracted by the reputation for liberalism of the University of Ferrara. Among them was the poet Clément Marot, who had been suspected of heresy, his name having been put on a list of proscripts, and he had fled first to Nérac, near the Queen of Navarre. He was called to Ferrara by Madame de Soubise. Hercules fortunately knew little about him, and Renée was allowed to place Marot on the list of her secretaries, with the small salary of 200 livres a year.

In the spring of 1536 Calvin resolved to go himself to Ferrara, hearing of the good reception which the Duchess gave to many who were united by a common hatred of the abuses of Romanism. He had just published his famous treatise on the 'Institutes of the Christian Religion,' dedicated to King Francis I. His preface had for its object to disarm Francis, who had been much alarmed some time before by some placards which had been posted on the walls of Paris and even in his own room (it was after this incident of the placards that Marot fled to Nérac). Calvin left Bâle for Ferrara in company with Canon du Tillet, his confidant and ardent disciple. Du Tillet was a canon of Angoulême; he had been captivated by the eloquence of Calvin, and had preached the Reformation till he was obliged to leave France. I hoped to find more details on the sojourn of Calvin in Ferrara in M. Rodocanachi's work, but he candidly admits that he found but little on the subject. "Several times," he says, "Renée received him at night and conversed with him. We know nothing precise about their relations. What is indubitable is that the preacher then obtained and always afterwards preserved a powerful influence over her; Renée made him her spiritual director."

Calvin knew that Italy was a ready ground for his doctrine; but sympathy for the new ideas was felt only in the higher classes, in the universities, among some dignitaries of the Church, some illustrious preachers, some cardinals, even some inquisitors. The people remained attached to the old Church, to its pomp and ceremonies. Certain incidents attracted the attention of the inquisitors, provoked the intervention of the Duke, and determined the departure of Marot. Some of Renée's servants and attendants were arrested and thrown into prison. Renée was of Breton origin, and consequently was obstinate; Hercules had in his veins the blood of the Borgias. The arrest of the prisoners became a great affair, and the French Ambassador claimed them as Frenchmen; the governor of Bologna claimed them in the name of the Pope; one of the prisoners was Renée's treasurer, Jean Cornillan, who had accompanied her from Paris to Ferrara. Renée put everything in motion to save her friends, and finally the prisoners were placed in the hands of the French Ambassador. Meanwhile Calvin, who had been arrested, was rescued by a troop of horse while he was being transferred from the prison of Ferrara to a prison in Bologna.

In 1537 Renée entered into relations with the famous poetess Vittoria Colonna, widow of Avalos, Marquis of Pescara, one of the best generals of Charles V. Vittoria Colonna was well disposed towards the Reformation. She became a friend of the Duchess; they saw each other every day. Vittoria was the elder, being then forty years old. She obtained, during a long absence on the part of the Duke, who had gone to Venice for the carnival, permission for the "Brothers of the Strict Observance," the *fraticelli* of the order of Saint Francis, to establish themselves in Ferrara, notwithstanding the opposition of the Franciscans. In the quarrel between the opulent and satisfied monachism and humble and poor monachism Vittoria and the Duchess took sides with the former. Curiously enough, on his return from Venice the Duke introduced the Jesuits into Ferrara.

Vittoria Colonna quitted Ferrara in 1538. The Duchess, left without a spiritual friend, consoled herself with her French attendants. The daughter of Madame de Soubise married M. de Pons, with whom the Duchess had become very intimate. During a mission of M. de Pons to the French court, she wrote to him daily, and the tenor of this correspondence was sometimes such as might explain some discontent on the part of the Duke. The letters of the Duchess were at times intercepted by the Duke; he exiled his wife to the castle of Consandolo, situated in the mephitic delta of the Po. The letters, preserved in the Ducal archives, and cited by M. Rodocanachi, while they show a childish kind of sentimentality, seem to me very innocent; there is more caution in a guilty correspondence. Calvin consoled the Princess in her exile by his letters, some of which are very remarkable; more and more he took possession of her mind. This did not prevent her from going to see the Pope, Paul III., who paid a visit to Ferrara; she obtained from him a brief which exempted her from any other ecclesiastical jurisdiction than that of the Roman Holy Office.

She still reconciled her respect for the Holy See with her Calvinistic ideas. Oddly enough, Renée had the Pope as a protector, an ally, and Calvin as an adviser, an inspirer, a councillor. M. Rodocanachi justly remarks that

"everywhere, but chiefly in Italy, respect for the Roman Church still accommodated itself with the desire to abolish its abuses; the limits between orthodoxy and heresy were most undecided. The violent repression of which Paul IV. was the initiator, and the excesses committed in Protestant countries, had not yet thrown an impassable barrier between the Catholic religion and the Reformed religion. More than one prelate of the Court of Rome professed, without any scruple, to hold ultramontane doctrines [the word ultramontane was then applied to the region north of the Alps], and many an ardent Reformer did not consider it a crime to pay respectful homage to the Sovereign Pontiff. . . . Renée, no more than Vittoria Colonna, no more than the Queen of Navarre, thought herself a hypocrite in proclaiming herself on the one hand 'the most humble, most obedient, and most devoted daughter' of the Pope, and in taking, on the other hand, as spiritual guides Luther and Calvin, who thought of nothing but of abolishing his authority. . . . At any rate," adds M. Rodocanachi, "women, who are less subtle than men, and are less vigorous reasoners, know very well how to ally things which to us appear irreconcilable, and can resolve the most repugnant antinomies."

Correspondence.

THE LABOR VOTE AT THE WEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I saw yesterday at Joliet, Ill., a farmer selling potatoes by the basket from a car. He had paid Wisconsin growers nine cents a bushel, nine cents to the railroad, and was retailing them for thirty cents. I asked him if he was a silver man. "Yes," he said, "I am for Bryan or anything else that will make it pay to raise any sort of crop." He made no pretence to any theory. "Times is bad and something's got to be done." I asked him if the Wisconsin farmers whom he knew held his opinions, and he replied, "I don't know another one in the county, and I know lots of 'em. They are all for McKinley." I was assured, upon very trustworthy evidence, that the overwhelming majority of farmers about Joliet were strong anti-Bryan men.

Some fifty miles further to the southwest is Ottawa, a town of perhaps fifteen thousand. There, upon two evenings in the week, were imposing parades distinctively of *town wage-earners*. The most picturesque part of the procession was made up of a large and powerful trade-union—the glass-blowers. One of them told me, "We are almost to a man against Bryan." This seemed quite as true of the terracotta workers, who were out under McKinley banners in great force. I talked here too with a farmer. He confirmed to the letter what had already been told me by the president of the Farmers' Congress, that "through this region at any rate the farmers are not going to vote free-silver." This farm-

er was poor and one of the plainest of his class, and yet he had read very widely upon the money issue. He said, "You folks don't know how we're all reading on these subjects." I asked him what argument had impressed him most. He surprised me by his reply: "Wall, how can you back on a man who tells us that if we have free silver we can pay our debts a great deal cheaper, and at the same time tells us that the law will raise the fifty-three-cent dollar to a hundred-cent dollar?"

Besides the railroad employees, it is very certain that organized labor in many of these towns—Davenport, Rock Island, Moline—will give a heavy vote against Bryan. The evidence of this has been the more unexpected to me, as I have not been able to find a single labor paper in the country that is not for free silver. There was not a shred of evidence in Ottawa that the laboring men had been in any sense, directly or indirectly, "coerced."

This evidence is only local, and I draw from it no conclusions. That it has, however, some significance, cannot, I think, be denied.

JOHN GRAHAM BROOKS.

CHICAGO ATHLETIC CLUB, September 12, 1896.

THE NEGRO VOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the London *Spectator* for September 19, in an article called "Mr. Bryan's Chance," it is said: "The farmers of the West and South will be supported by the negroes, who will this time be permitted to vote." This is not the case in this part of Virginia, at least. Recently an intelligent negro was asked whether he would vote for gold or silver; he replied, "For gold." Being asked how their leaders were instructing them to vote, he said, "All of 'em is for gold. Mr. B—— sent out a *history* to teach us, and it says if they have free silver and you got sixteen dollars in your pocket, it won't buy more'n the worth of eight; but that *do* seem hard to understand." Another said he knew only one colored man who was going to vote for Bryan, and that was because he was "ignorant"!

Respectfully, M. C. O.

NEAR RICHMOND, VA., October 10, 1896.

BRYANISM ON THE PACIFIC COAST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial in which you compared Mr. Bryan to Dennis Kearny, you carried out a comparison which the Popocratic candidate for justice of the Supreme Court in the State of Washington made some time ago. He said that the sound-money men made a mistake in trying to estimate the strength of the silver movement. It is the same as that which swept California when she adopted her Constitution in 1878. In that year he was a resident of that State, and while he was opposed to the new Constitution—not openly, of course (these are his words)—he saw that the forces at the back of the movement came from the classes who never visited hotels, never rode on trains, never took any part in business enterprises, yet were sufficiently numerous to outvote all others. So now, he continued, the same men are going to carry the country.

It must be admitted that the only hope of the Populists even in this State lies in the same class, as is shown by a vote taken on trains visiting our State Fair. The result shows about four McKinley men to three Bryan men. In Yakima County there is a list of sound-money Democrats who will vote for McKinley, and say so openly, amounting to 12 per cent. of the Democratic vote in 1894, while Seattle and Tacoma will do much better. If the campaign lasted until December 1, there would be no doubt about the result in this State, while, as it is, 2,000 for Bryan is the highest claim you now hear made by conservative men, as against 10,000, which was confidently predicted in August.

McKINLEY DEMOCRAT.

NORTH YAKIMA, WASH., October 1, 1896.

BRYAN AND BISMARCK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter of his Serene Highness of Lauenburg to his Excellency of Texas has disclosed by indirection that the free coinage of silver by this country would be of especial benefit to Germany, if not to all Europe, in furnishing a market for her demonetized silver. If this really be so, could we not "bring Europe to her knees" most effectually by closing our mints entirely to silver, and is it not about time that Mr. Bryan's true position—that of travelling-agent for the European Powers—was made known to the "common people"? Yours "in gold I trust,"

X. Y. Z.

THE DELPHIN CLASSICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It has fared ill with the Delphin classics in some of our standard works of reference. The amount of definite information concerning them to be found in any one place is very small, and slight inaccuracies of statement are rather numerous.

The new edition of 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia,' ii., 712, devotes seven and one-half lines to this famous series, referring the reader to two authorities: "Hallam, Introduction to the History of Europe" and "Baillet, Jugements de Savans." The first reference is probably intended for "Hallam, Introduction to the Literature of Europe" (in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries), the second, for "Baillet, Jugemens des Savans (sur les principaux Ouvrages des Auteurs)," an ancient and voluminous work which is practically inaccessible.

The same paragraph of the 'Universal Cyclopædia' states that the Delphin classics were "prepared under superintendence of Bossuet and Huet"; the new 'Standard Dictionary' has "prepared by Bossuet and others"; the 'Century Dictionary,' "under superintendence of Montausier, Bossuet, and Huet." All these statements are misleading. The preparation of the series was first suggested by the Duke of Montausier, and the polymathic Huet was editor-in-chief. Bossuet seems really to have had very little to do with the work.

The 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' xii., 335, says that Huet "edited with the assistance of Mme. Dacier the well-known edition of the classics," etc. This statement gives a false impression as to either scholar's share in the work, and does not inform the reader that only Latin authors were included in the series.

'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia,' ii., 686, says that Madame Dacier "was employed by the Duke of Montausier to edit several Latin authors for the use of the Dauphin," and that André Dacier was the "editor of the Delphine Horace." These two statements (with the spelling "Delphine") are reprinted from the old edition of 1856. Madame Dacier seems to have been employed in this work by Huet, the editor-in-chief, and the Delphin editor of Horace was Louis Desprez (or Des-prez).

The 'New English Dictionary' says, in explanation of the name "Dauphin," that the last lord of Viennois to bear this title was "Humbert III." The histories of France by Guizot and Duruy (at least in the English translations) call him "Humbert II."

The traditional description of the Delphin classics is that they were editions of the principal Latin authors prepared for the use of the Dauphin, *ad usum Delphini*. This Latin phrase occurs *passim* in Didot's 'Biographie Générale,' and consequently (?) in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica'; it is found in Sainte-Beuve, 'Causeries du Lundi,' ix., 481, in the 'Century Dictionary,' and in the 'New English Dictionary.' The title-pages of the Delphin editions announced that they had been prepared *in usum serenissimi Delphini*, as Steele's schoolboy seems to have known: "All the Boys in the School, but I, have the Classick Authors *in usum Delphini*, gilt and letter'd on the Back," *Spectator*, No. 330, 1712.

An article in the *Quarterly Review*, xcvii., p. 302, quotes from Huet's own account of his studies in anatomy: "I can safely affirm that with my own hand I have dissected more than 300 eyes taken from the heads of animals of every species." This article is reprinted in Essays by the late Mark Pattison, i., 244 ff. Didot's 'Biographie Générale,' xxv., 383, professes to quote the same passage: "Il disséqua, dit-il, plus de huit cents yeux de divers animaux," and Didot's quotation is reproduced in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' xii., 335: "In this pursuit he made more than 800 dissections."

W. P. M.

HAVERFORD, PA., October 3, 1896.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. have just ready 'Modern [English] Political Orations,' from Brougham (1837) down, edited by Leopold Wagner.

By arrangement with Messrs. Macmillan, Appleton, and the Century Co., Charles Scribner's Sons will issue a collected edition of Rudyard Kipling's works to be sold only by subscription, with the customary set on Japan paper.

The Morse Co., New York, have in preparation 'Massasoit: A Romantic Story of the Indians of New England,' by Alma Holman Burton.

'The Story of American Coals' will be told by W. J. Nicolls in a book announced by J. B. Lippincott Co.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, are about to bring out 'Ex-libris: Essays of a Collector,' by Charles Dexter Allen, with twenty copperplate prints after Bewick and others; 'A Book of the Native,' the collected poems of Prof. Charles G. D. Roberts; and 'Magnolia Blooms,' poems by Edna Procter Clark.

Prof. Karl Knortz of Evansville, Indiana, has written a work in his chosen field, 'Die wahre Inspirations-Gemeinde in Iowa [Ebenezer and Amana],' a contribution to the history of Christian pietism and communism, which is in the press of Otto Wigand, Leipzig.

An 'Encyclopædia of Indo-Aryan Research,' edited by Hofrath Georg Bühler of Vienna, with a wide collaboration, one-third in English and two-thirds in German, is to be published in three volumes of about 1,100 pages

each, royal octavo, by Karl J. Trübner, Strassburg (New York: Lemcke & Buechner).

The Riverside Edition of Mrs. Stowe's writings (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) begins with 'The Minister's Wooing,' 'Agnes of Sorrento,' and 'The Pearl of Orr's Island.' These uniform volumes are tastefully bound in green cloth, and have each an etched frontispiece and a vignetted title-page, together with an introductory note relating the genesis and history of the story. The typography corresponds to the name and fame of the Press in its ordinary issues. No better manufacture is needed for an edition popular in price yet handsome for the library; but a limited large-paper edition, as our readers have already been informed, keeps pace with this, and bears the autograph of the author.

Mr. Barrie's visit to this country falls in with a liberal and elegant uniform American edition of his works—the only one with his sanction—by the Messrs. Scribner, of which two volumes, in green cloth, gilt-edged and with the Thistle stamp, are before us. The first embodies 'Auld Licht Idylls' and 'Better Dead' ("Better not Included" is the author's preference), and has for frontispiece a portrait of Mr. Barrie; the second is wholly occupied by 'When a Man's Single,' and the frontispiece is a clever illustration. Mr. Barrie contributes two propitiatory introductions, in perfect temper and in very felicitous phraseology, and will do likewise by the six remaining volumes. The De Vinne Press has had the making, and the bold letter used is a delight to eyes that need the aid of glasses. The typography and presswork, indeed, are models of handicraft.

The same firm continues its uniform edition of Dr. Holland's writings with 'Seven Oaks' and 'Arthur Bonnicastle'; and its "Stories by English Authors" with two volumes, having Germany and the Low Countries for the bond of unity in one instance, and the Sea in the other, with portraits of Beatrice Harraden and of Clark Russell respectively. A second volume of selections from the writings of Edwin L. Godkin consists of eleven magazine articles, ranging from "Aristocratic Opinions of Democracy" in the *North American Review* for January, 1865, to "The Expenditure of Rich Men" in the current *Scribner's*. The intervening themes are such as have interested the past decade, and touch on politics, the tariff, socialism, political economy, in various lights and interrelations. Finally, a concession by the Scribners of a reissue at a popular price of Villari's 'Life and Times of Savonarola' in one volume is much to be commended. The paper for a not bulky book of 800 pages must needs be somewhat thin, but the handsome and readable plates are unchanged, and the portraits and illustrations not withheld.

The plates of De Amicis's 'Constantinople' in Messrs. Putnam's "Stamboul Edition" show some signs of wear, and the handsomely bound volume is rather showy than fine. The illustrations are a mixture of "process" from the life and of copies of time-honored engravings. But as the present order at Constantinople seems on the verge of crumbling away, this poetic Italian impression of it should gratify a present curiosity. Two volumes of Mayne Reid's juvenile stories, 'The Bush Boys,' 'The Boy Hunters,' in an entirely new dress which becomes them well, initiate a "Nimrod Edition" of this author's better productions for the young, and also bear the Putnam imprint.

Macmillan Company add two more volumes to Mrs. Garnett's version of Turgeneff's novels, since 'Virgin Soil' will not be contained in one. Had "Stepniak" survived, no doubt he would have been asked to furnish the introduction to this tale of the rise of Nihilism, in default of which the task has fallen to Edward Garnett. Those who like to philosophize may read or reread the sombre story while the Parisian acclaim to the Czar is ringing in his ears. A fourth volume of Björnson's novels in their uniform reprint consists of 'The Fisher Lass,' which has had a marited vogue for nearly thirty years. In the Dent-Macmillan output we must mention Balzac's 'Country Parson,' first in importance and in beauty of attire, then Daudet's 'Robert Helmont,' a good second, and "Pericles" and "Cymbeline" in the dainty "Temple Shakspere."

The Sunday-School Teachers' Edition of the Bible which comes to us from the newly established American agency of Henry Frowde and the Oxford University Press, is well adapted for its purpose in respect of open type, flexible binding, and the customary apparatus of "illustrations," glossary, subject index, etc. The old version is here adhered to.

Captain Younghusband is a well-known traveller who has distinguished himself by his explorations in remote and difficult parts of Asia. His 'Heart of a Continent' (Scribners) contains an account of his wanderings in Mantchuria in 1881, and of his remarkable overland journey from Pekin to India in the following year; also of his visits to the Hunza territory in 1889, and to the Pamirs in 1890, and his stay in Chitral as resident in 1892. His most famous adventure was in the Pamirs, where he was arrested and turned aside by the commander of a Russian expedition in those regions. The Russian officer, who was only obeying orders from headquarters, seems to have acted as politely as possible, but the affair created quite a diplomatic sensation, which was calmed by an apology from the Government of St. Petersburg. Since the settling of the Pamir boundary last year, the incident has lost all importance. We should have been glad of a fuller description of Chitral and of the author's experiences than can be found in the scant twenty pages which he devotes to the subject; indeed, this would have made a much more interesting ending for the work than his actual last two chapters on "The Missionary Question in China" and "Impressions of Travel," in which he gets rather vague, rambling, and rhapsodical. In fact, we do not understand the object of these two chapters at all. They are so unnecessary as to raise a suspicion of padding, and they force us to close with a criticism what is otherwise a well-written book. Capt. Younghusband has a clear, interesting style that inspires sympathy as well as holds the attention; he makes it evident that he is a good observer who can describe what he sees.

'The English and Dutch in South Africa,' by Hartley Withers (London: Clement Wilson), is a brief history of the relations between the English authorities and the Dutch colonists in South Africa. Although only an outline is given, it is enough to form a pretty severe arraignment of British policy, or, rather, shifting policies, for nearly a century. The sympathies of the author are evident enough: he condemns one act after another of the home Government or its representatives; he expresses much admiration of the Boers; he believes that, when not meddled with, they have on the whole treated the natives wisely and well, and he is very severe against the London Missionary Society. Even if his statements on these subjects can hardly be accepted as final, they are worthy of attention, and form a forcible presentation of facts which too many people in England are glad to overlook.

Part X. of *Bibliographica* (Scribners) maintains a high level of excellence and has a marked English interest. Cyril Davenport supplies a readable paper on the bindings of Samuel Mearne and his school; the early English writing-masters, some of whom acquired fortunes by their manuals and otherwise, are reviewed by Edward F. Strange; Alfred W. Pollard treats of some pictorial and heraldic initials, especially English; and Henry R. Plomer and Edward Arber have kindred themes—the one in his "References to Books in the Reports of the Historical MSS. Commissioners," and the other in his "Contemporary Printed Lists of Books Produced in England." Mr. Arber seeks to convey some idea of the bounds of knowledge of English book production, of which so much has perished altogether, and arranges chronologically such lists as early controversial writers indulged in, and such attempts as were from time to time made to record the current issues of the press. He thus enumerates to the present century upwards of fifty bibliographies, the first serial being a solitary half-yearly catalogue for 1618–1619. Extraordinary value attaches to the Thomason collection of Civil War Tracts, 130,000 in number, now in the British Museum, all exactly dated and catalogued in manuscript, but never yet "adequately worked, whether for historical or for bibliographical purposes." With the Term Catalogues of books printed in England, 1668–1709, we begin to "smell land," in Suffolk idiom. Two papers, on "Little Books" and on "The Books of the Carthusians," are both important and attractive.

The initial part of vol. iii. of the Proceedings of the Huguenot Society of America (New York) furnishes much interesting reading, though, with perhaps one exception, there is no historical contribution of a high order. A frontispiece portrait of the late John Jay foreshadows a memorial by Dr. A. G. Vermilye, and various sections of the country are taken up, respectively, in the Rev. M. C. Julien's lantern lecture on the "Huguenots of Old Boston," in Dr. James Le Fevre's "Huguenot Patentees of New Paltz, N. Y.," James B. Laux's "Huguenot Element in Pennsylvania," Dr. John H. Edwards's "First Home of the Huguenots in North America [present United States]," viz., Florida, and R. H. Tilley's "Huguenots of Rhode Island." None of these papers implies exhaustive research, but all are full of useful suggestion. After making Priscilla Mullins (Molines) a Huguenot maiden, Mr. Julien endeavors to bring John Alden into the fold, and does at least show alliances of English Aldens with Blancard and Du Prier. Prof. Baird, discoursing on the recovery of religious liberty by the Huguenots, by no means does justice to Rousseau in censuring him for not intervening on behalf of the persecuted Protestants as did Voltaire. Rousseau truly declared that his letter on behalf of toleration to the Archbishop of Paris had brought upon himself fresh persecution from the Protestants, on account of his "heresies," and he had no mind for more, or to expose himself to an obvious Catholic retort. The whole of his letter of July 15, 1764, of which Prof. Baird cites a part, should be read together with that of May 25 of the same year.

Volume xv. of the Bulletin of the United States Fish Commission, of 475 pages and numerous plates, in small quarto, includes among other matters summaries of the results of efforts in the introduction and propagation of fishes, lobsters, oysters, etc., on the Pacific slope of the continent, which, together with reports of investigations looking towards further introduction and conservation, make a very fair exhibit of the purposes and accomplishments of the Commission, or of the reason for its existence. The bulkiest paper is that on the American Lobster, which contains some fine illustrations. In this portion of the text the display of the personal pronoun, the great *I*, and its scientific importance are somewhat out of proportion.

The Annual Report of the Pennsylvania State College for the Year 1895 is a satisfactory volume in various respects. It is an illustrated octavo of 433 pages. Treating of analyses of soils, fertilizers, fruits, and grains, and of dairy, garden, and field products, etc., it possesses an interest transcending the borders of the State. Four-fifths of the book relates to the work of the Agricultural Experiment Station. A paper of special geologic attractiveness is that on "A Phosphate Deposit in Juniata County."

None of the reports of the Agricultural Colleges or Experiment Stations excels that issued by the University of California, for the year 1894-95, in amount, diversity, and importance of practical suggestions and of scientific researches. It contains 481 pages, is profusely illustrated, and, from the special investigations of Director Hilgard and others, has a value for reference that will be increasingly appreciated in years to come. Its pages are highly suggestive of the variety in Californian climates, soils, and productions.

The October Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains a list of books on the currency question, supplemental to that published in September, together with titles of books on political science and political economy.

The bibliography of geographical literature for 1895, just published by the *Annales de Géographie*, is an improvement upon those of previous years. The number of collaborators has been increased to forty-nine, an index of authors has been added, and nearly every entry has a clear and comprehensive analytical note. This causes the size of the volume to be the same as last year's, though there are only 1,087 entries against 1,590 for 1894, many references to short articles in the periodicals being omitted. We remark a large increase of works on Africa.

The *Bibliothèque Universelle*, a monthly review now published in Lausanne, Switzerland, has just celebrated the hundredth anniversary of its foundation. It was originally established in Geneva, under the title *Bibliothèque Britannique*, by Frédéric Guillaume Maurice and the brothers Marc Auguste Pictet (pupil and friend of the famous naturalist Saussure) and Charles Pictet de Rochemont, diplomatist. At that time Geneva was making a desperate struggle for political independence against the intrigues of the French Republic, and the chief aim of the new periodical, as its name implied, was the diffusion of English ideas and scientific researches in France and Switzerland. It numbered among its earliest contributors Sir Humphry Davy, Edward Jenner, Sir Joseph Banks, the physicist Charles Earl of Stanhope, Maria Edgeworth, and, at a somewhat later period, Sir John Herschel. In 1816 it enlarged its scope so as to include especially the results of philosophical inquiry and scientific investigation in Germany, and changed its name to *Bibliothèque Universelle*. Since 1893 it has been published in Lausanne, where the centennial festival was held on September 7. It is from the addresses delivered on this occasion by Profs. Ernest Naville and Philippe Guye that our information concerning the review is derived.

Recent issues of the *Beilage* to the *Munich Allgemeine Zeitung* (Nos. 210-212, 216, 218, 220, 221), contain a series of seven articles by Prof. E. P. Evans, entitled "Die Bücherschätze eines Amerikanischen Bibliographen," and giving a full historical and critical account of Prof. Willard Fiske's Icelandic and Petrarch collections of printed books and manuscripts. These articles cover nearly fifty columns of the German journal, and present the first exhaustive bibliographical and literary description of this rare library ever published. The Rhæto-Romanic and Dante collections of Prof. Fiske, now in the library of Cornell University, are only incidentally mentioned in a footnote. We may state, by the way, that the *Beilage*, which appears six times a week and is devoted to literature, science, and art, may now be subscribed for separately, and is also published in a weekly edition, which costs seven marks a quarter for all countries in the Postal Union, and is certainly the most convenient form for foreign subscribers and libraries.

—No part of President Eliot's Chautauqua address on "Five American Contributions to Civilization," now printed in the October *Atlantic*, is more important than that which points out the advance this country has made towards the substitution of discussion and arbitration for war and the avoidance of armaments. There is a raking fore and aft here of the arguments of those persons of misdirected sensibility who have worked themselves into a belief that a war is needed now and then to develop the heroic virtues, such as courage, loyalty, and self-sacrifice. The crop of financial and political evils developed by war will flourish in the future as freely as ever; but with modern appliances for wholesale slaughter the brunt of battles will fall on warchests and treasuries, and heroes will have perforce to find their opportunities in the walks of peace. Some of the peaceful occupations which President Eliot instances as always calling for skill, fidelity, and resolution, and at times for heroic self-sacrifice, are those of the locomotive engineer, the electrical lineman, the policeman, the city fireman, and the trained nurse. The craving for war as an incentive to extraordinary exertions is met by the suggestion that there is no department of national life in which we could not advantageously put forth more force than we now expend. The post-office, national sanitation, and education are several of the fields in which there is still room for the largest appetite for abnormal activity to satisfy itself.

—An article in *Scribner's*, "From Light to Light," by Kirk Munroe, calls attention to still another of the avocations of peace in which constant vigilance and occasional displays of heroism are called for. The lonely light-houses scattered along the coast, from Maine to Texas, shelter lives which escape the notice of the world at large, and to most readers this account of the supply-ship *Armeria*, which once in the year carries oil and provisions to each, will give some novel and interesting impressions. But something more than a curious interest attaches to an article on "The Government of the Greater New York," by Francis V. Greene. Reduced to its last terms, the problem of good government appears here as the getting of good men. The position of the Mayor of the consolidated city will, it is argued, be second in responsibility and importance only to that of the President of the United States, and should be surrounded by every possible dignity. Fame and honor will, in fact, be the only rewards that will suffice to tempt the ablest and best men to the arduous task of administering the affairs of such a community as the Greater New York. In the formation of its charter, aid from three sources is suggested—from the Federal and State political systems, the government of great cities abroad, and the management of large business corporations, although the experience of these varied sources combined is not sufficient to cover the complicated and unprecedented problems presented by this great corporation, with its public income of $50,000,000 a year, and its population "nearly equal to that of the original thirteen States at the time the Constitution was adopted." A prime factor in the difficulties to be overcome by the Charter Commission is, of course, the mixed nature of the population, of which but twenty per cent. is American by birth and parentage. Now that more than one-third of the entire population of the United States is living in cities, and these among the worst governed in the world, this article of Mr. Greene's, with its careful consideration of civic problems from various points of view, recommends itself to all serious students of municipal government.

—In the current number of the *Century*, a study of mental epidemics by Boris Sidis furnishes a psychological key to some of the social and political spectacles of the day. Man, in common with other gregarious animals, is susceptible to the movements of his companions, and this "suggestibility," as it is called in connection with the human animal, increased to an extraordinary degree, results in nothing more nor less than "a stampede, a mob, an epidemic." The behavior of bodies of men in a state of abnormal susceptibility to suggestion, or the hypnotic state, is illustrated by the crusade, the flagellant, the dancing and other manias of the middle ages, and by the camp-meeting revivals not yet obsolete. Political conventions and crazes naturally add themselves to this list in the mind of the reader, and an excellent editorial article on "Government by Hysteria," under the head of "Topics of the Time," carries out the train of thought started by the idea of epidemic insanities to its practical issue for the voter. In this number of the magazine Prof. Sloane brings to a conclusion his lengthy history of the Napoleonic wars, and Mrs. Humphry Ward drops the curtain on the dramatis personæ of her novel "Sir George Tressady." Mme. Blanc (Th. Bentzon), assisted by the numerous illustrations of Maurice Boutet de Monvel, and drawing on her recent travels in this country for comparisons which give animation without invidiousness to the treatment of her subject, contributes an entertaining account of French children. The undercurrent of pardonable partiality that may easily be detected for the grace and suavity of the little girls of her own race, interferes in no way with the openness of mind and freedom of judgment with which Mme. Blanc views the juvenile world; while the lively designs of boys and girls are full of the artistic

government remarkable for their enlightened wisdom—the best, perhaps, considering the circumstances of the time, that were ever conceived by an English statesman. He turned a deaf ear to the argument of force, and refused to listen to plans for conquering Ireland with the sword, and for 'planting' the whole country with English colonies. He wished, indeed, to be a real king in Ireland, and to make his kingship a good influence."

Judge Morris's virile exposition of past wrongs and misgovernment is strengthened by the fact, patent in his latter chapters, of his being a Unionist. We have, as the result of the latest and fullest historical inquiry, the fateful bogey of the "Massacre of 1641" fully laid:

"This is a myth devised by passion and self-interest. Unquestionably much that was atrocious was done, as has always happened in crises of the kind; there were cruel scenes of revenge and blood; but the deaths of the settlers caused by violence seem not to have been more than a few thousand, though doubtless numbers perished from other causes—cold, exposure, and the hardships of winter. . . . The colonists, stricken down at first, had ere long stood savagely at bay; and, after the fashion of a dominant race, they were guilty of barbarities of all kinds, probably worse than any inflicted on them."

Our author does not appear to us altogether fair to the Irish Parliament. He is too much inclined to compare its faults of omission and commission, not with other parliaments of the same time, but with those of to-day; and, unconsciously, we believe, he does not bring out with sufficient clearness the degree to which it would have followed a liberal and wise policy in relation to the Catholics had it not been baffled and thwarted by the British Ministry. On the other hand, he is right in his estimate of the want of wise statesmanship shown by Grattan and his compatriots in believing that the arrangement of 1782 was one that was likely to stand without modification. Had they recognized the necessity for union in essentials, Ireland might have retained her liberty in local affairs.

In describing the Repeal agitation we perceive one of the few blots into which partisanship regarding present politics has betrayed Judge Morris. He speaks of home rule as the "same thing" as repeal. No statement could be more misleading. The arrangement of 1782 was thinly veiled independence, with rights and duties, in so far as union was concerned, ill defined. "Repeal" meant a reversion to such a state of things. No one could read either of Mr. Gladstone's home-rule bills, or the debates and discussions relating to them, without recognizing that home rule as now understood implies the continuance of a union more rigid than that between our States, and the supremacy of the Imperial Parliament. The report of the Financial Relations Committee had not appeared when Judge Morris wrote, or he would scarcely speak so tentatively concerning the fiscal policy pursued towards Ireland since 1800. We are curious to know what grounds there are for the statement, on page 306, that Grattan, "in his later years, . . . seems to have approved of the Union he had so fiercely denounced."

According to our author (page 335), Irish landlords have "been grossly wronged" by recent legislation. That an Irish county court judge, often exercising functions in regard to land cases, can so write, furnishes us with a key to the extent to which legislation passed for the benefit of the Irish masses has, in its administration, been invariably stretched as far as possible against them. All recent statistics tend to prove that the English landlords, by the quiet force of surrounding public opinion, have, in the land depression affecting the whole world, had to give way more than their Irish brethren, free from surrounding public opinion, through the force of law. We might cite numerous passages in which Judge Morris admits the incapacity shown by England to legislate satisfactorily for the internal affairs of Ireland. He suggests no remedy. He knows little of the character and intentions of most of the Irish leaders of his day, or he would not have written so severely concerning them. Ireland has passed through a fiery ordeal within the past sixty years. She has lost nearly half her population. It is but ten years since a degrading Coercion Act was permanently riveted upon her. Yet he can speak of the present as "a most glorious reign." How little has he, under a union that has subsisted for ninety six years, been brought into sympathy with the mass of his fellow-countrymen!

These are, however, but slight blemishes in what is, upon the whole, a valuable book, and one which all classes of Irishmen might read with profit. We cannot conclude without a word of praise as to the preparation of this series of books. They are pleasant to handle, pleasant to read; condensed, yet clear. We trust that in a second edition the provincial divisions on the otherwise excellent map of Ireland will be made clearer.

A PROFESSOR'S SHEAF.

Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. VII. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1896.

THE latest volume of the Harvard Studies is dedicated to Prof. Lane, and is made up almost exclusively of articles by his former pupils. It was presented last commencement, under circumstances of ideal fitness and propriety, to the professor whose long and useful services it commemorates. It was the fiftieth anniversary of his A.B. degree; and, at the noon meeting of the class of '46, Mr. Greenough, in a Latin speech, presented him a specially bound copy of the dedicatory volume. The affair was a great surprise and pleasure to the Emeritus Professor, who expressed his thanks also in Latin, in the presence of a dozen classmates. No one of Prof. Lane's pupils can forget the grace, the neatness, the succinctness with which he wore his ample learning; no one of his older pupils can forget that he was above all a teacher, with inspiring manners and methods, and perfectly definite aims, at a time when the old-fashioned Harvard College possessed in its faculty many scholars—some geniuses, in fact—but very few genuine teachers. A genius is well worth catching and displaying in the environment of a university, even though he appear to be an expensive extravagance, like a magnificent orchid; a genuine teacher deserves equally to be coddled and cultivated, though he may expend his energy exclusively on kindling other minds instead of writing and publishing.

This is what Prof. Lane preferred to do, and, for the good of his pupils, was permitted to do. The complimentary preface expresses a wish that he had not been so sparing of ink and paper; but really in this very matter he has set an example of self-restraint and self-denial to the younger generation of scholars which they will find it hard to imitate. Make haste—write—publish—edit—advertise your names, and you will receive promotion—this is what the universities practically say to the young men whom they invite and urge to publish their hasty views of some Lilliputian horizon. The invitation sets a premium on immaturity and inaccuracy, and multiplies raw work and fragmentary publications. Mr. Lane preferred to ripen his pearls at leisure, and let them be worn by others; or, rather, he chose to play the Socratic midwife and assist at the birth of scholars. What we gain by such a rôle is exemplified in this dedicatory volume.

The Studies offer an embarrassment of riches from which it is hard to restrict one's self in choosing nuggets. Prof. Goodwin's subtle distinctions, Prof. Herbert Weir Smyth's elaborate discussion of Æschylus's use of anapests, and some other valuable papers must, we regret to say, remain "caviare to the general." Prof. Greenough, in remarking on the "construction contrary to fact" in cases where no condition is expressed, represents ingeniously by diagrams the difference of voice inflections with which we say "I *meant* to go to town" according as we did or did not go; he reminds us that the Greeks and the Latins must have used similar varieties of tone to intimate the double meaning in this class of sentences. Dr. Everett contributes some clever emendations and sound criticism apropos of Brieger's useful but vulnerable, and sometimes glaringly careless, edition of Lucretius. Most scholars will agree with Prof. Morgan's sensible conclusion and proofs that Persius was not obliged to resort to his *Gradus* in writing hexameters, and that he knew his quantities, and followed satisfactory usage when he wrote *rūdere* (cf. *Bithyni*, Juv. 7, 15), and probably even *rŏgās*. The expression *numeros scribere* is just as natural as the English *to write metre*. Dr. Morgan is right in regarding *sitiat* (i. 60) as a true potential—that very rare usage in Latin; but his illustrations from Horace and Juvenal are not strictly pertinent, as the subjunctive in these cases is influenced by an implication of purpose or result. In iii. 29 we would read "Censorem vetulum vel quod trabeate salutas." *Vetulum*, the "good old" Censor, seems to us tolerably *Persian*, while the vocative *trabeate* is a mannerism.

Prof. Hale makes out a very strong case in controverting the ordinary Latin rule for syllabification which requires the syllable to end with a vowel and begin with a consonant or any pronounceable combination of consonants. He maintains that this rule applied mainly to the written, not to the spoken, word; and he shows that the same is the case with the Romance languages, which have been cited in support of the supposed ancient Roman practice. He finds that in daily speech the Romans and the Florentines actually say *bas ta, capis-co, tec-nico*, not *ba-sta*, etc., as the phonetists assert. The testimony of our own ear agrees with this conclusion; and, indeed, some carefully printed Italian books and dictionaries do not follow strictly this rule of division.

Prof. F. D. Allen's excursus on Plautus's "Os Columnatum," illustrated by the modern pillory and the African slave-stick, throws new light in many points on the subject of ancient appliances for punishment, and on the dark and savage side of slave life among the Greeks and the Romans. The excellent facsimile of Coronelli's rare map of Athens, preserved in the German Institute, and dating about 1690, is here presented and discussed by Prof. J. R. Wheeler, and is an interesting token of the spread of Greek studies at that period, as well as of the Venetian conquests which culminated in the bombardment and ruin of the Parthenon. It has next to no topo-

graphical value, the orientation being in some portions 90 degrees out of the way.

The austere scientific and philological tone of these studies is relieved by the literary interest of Prof. Dyer's paper on the "Plot of the Agamemnon." It touches the same difficulty as to the sequence of events which was raised by Dr. Verrall some years ago and received from him a somewhat mechanical solution. He doubted the possibility of the beacon-message from Troy; but the late Prof. Merriam, in his paper on "Telegraphing among the Ancients," has proved the ideal plausibility of such a message. There is, besides, another apparent difficulty. The action of the greater part of the play belongs evidently to the day of Agamemnon's reaching home; but the action begins on the night of the capture and sack of Troy, of which Clytemnestra gives us an imaginative vision. It is continued by the arrival of Agamemnon's herald in the morning of the same day, his announcement of victory, and his circumstantial narrative of the shipwreck of the Greeks. Now, as a matter of prosaic fact, the herald and Agamemnon ought to have required at least a week to sail home to Argos; and one who measures time by the watch might criticise the poet, as a certain scholiast did, for "making the Greeks arrive on the same day." The general answer to this objection is that the earlier action of the play is managed with such dramatic power and imagination that the anachronism does not occur at all to the reader or spectator who has yielded to the poet's spell. But in particular Mr. Dyer points out how skilfully the dramatist has bridged the gap between Clytemnestra's vision of the sacked city and the herald's entrance, by the foreboding of the chorus and their lamentations for their lost countrymen—a lyric strain which must have swept away the hearts of his Athenian audience as they recalled many similar bereavements that had just befallen them at the time when the "Agamemnon" was first produced.

Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française, des Origines à 1900. Publiée sous la direction de L. Petit de Julleville. Tome I.: Moyen Âge; Première Partie. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1896.

To judge from this initial volume, the result of the task undertaken by M. Petit de Julleville and his fellow-workers will be an invaluable addition to the history of the French language and literature. The work, to be completed in eight volumes, of which the last will appear only some years hence, while it purposes to treat the subject comprehensively and minutely from the Strassburg Oaths in 842 to the end of the nineteenth century, is not intended for strictly special or for merely popular use, but is addressed to the general class of educated readers in all countries. If the volumes yet to come fulfil the promises of this first issue, we shall at last possess, in not too bulky a shape, the best conclusions of contemporary learning and judgment in France on the vast subject with which the work professes to deal. Accuracy of scholarship was, indeed, to be expected from the list of distinguished names prefixed to the table of contents; the expectation is fully justified by the character of the treatment, as well as by the admirably selective bibliography at the end of each chapter; but it is more than gratifying to find that incongruities of method and style, usually thought to be inseparable from work done in collaboration, have thus far been successfully avoided, save in one instance, to which particular attention will presently be drawn.

Two striking features of the general conception of the work call for special notice. For the first time in a complete history of French literature on a grand scale, the productions of the Middle Ages are to receive the ample space they deserve, instead of being, as in most treatises, summarily disposed of in one or two half-contemptuous, often perfunctory chapters. Further, literature and philology work here side by side, each great literary epoch being preceded by a broad yet thorough exposition of the development of the language during that time. The present volume shows the application of the plan to the period included between 842 and the time when strictly mediæval influences began to wane. From this are omitted all works written in Latin, whether scholastic or other, "as not properly belonging to the national literature, but to the general literary history of Latin Christianity."

It is not possible to speak otherwise than with unstinted praise of M. Ferdinand Brunot's masterly introduction on the origin of the French language, perhaps the ablest, and certainly to us the most interesting, chapter in the book. Though the subject bristles with controverted points, the writer has done justice to every hypothesis, all the while maintaining his own positions firmly and without a lapse into the unnecessary vivacities of expression which philological discussion seems to have an unfortunate tendency to provoke. This introduction is far too detailed to be called a sketch, and would deserve separate publication. Among other excellences it contains a comparative table of the different stages through which the French language has passed, illustrated in renderings of part of the Strassburg Oaths from the original form to that of the present day.

The literary part of the work is divided into five chapters, each of which has been assigned to a separate writer. Their subjects are as follows: religious narrative poems, national epics, epics based on ancient classical stories, epics (so called) of courtesy, and songs. In spite of the relative dulness and meagre literary importance of much of the matter here examined, not one of the writers has failed to make his share attractive; two of them, MM. Clédat and Jeanroy, who have respectively treated the subjects of the last two chapters, handle their material with rather more grace than their collaborators, probably because of the greater intrinsic interest it contains, for no competent critic can feel hampered in having to speak of Tristan and Iseut, of the lays of Marie of France, of the work of Chrétien de Troyes, or of mediæval song. The less inviting topics of religious narrative and pseudo-classical epic allotted to MM. Petit de Julleville and Constans, have been examined with scholarship and criticised with laudable sobriety of taste.

We wish that we could say the same thing of M. Léon Gautier's work on the Chansons de Geste, by far the bulkiest chapter in the volume, filling one hundred and twenty-two pages of the text. Of the erudition here displayed we cannot speak but in praise. Few passages in the book are better worked out or more interesting than his exposition of the rise and development of the epical romances that hold so important a place in the literary history of France during the Middle Ages, and in their time did so much towards keeping alive the spirit of chivalry through their presentation of heroic and national ideals. But less commendable is the enthusiastic fervor which M. Gautier thinks fit to show in upholding the *present* æsthetic merit of the 'Chanson de Roland,' of Aliscans, and all the rest—with only trifling reservations. We note, by the way, that he quotes very sparingly indeed. Not much good comes to any cause from the studious cultivation, in its defence, of an almost uniformly hyperbolical, and at times ejaculatory, style. To do this is, as has been said, to run the risk of forcibly displacing the centre of interest of a great literature. On the point in question, it is possible, even permissible, to hold a diametrically opposite opinion to that expressed by M. Gautier, for many a student of these romances timidly admits, in private, that much reading of them is a deadly weariness to the spirit. No one to-day contests their historical and linguistic importance. As M. Gautier has contented himself with merely alluding to differences of view, we venture to refer readers who may care to examine a vigorous polemic on the other side to M. Brunetière's article entitled "L'Érudition contemporaine et la littérature française au moyen âge," in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for June 1st, 1879. The fact that this paper now stands first in the recently collected "Études Critiques" constitutes a fair presumption that the author's opinion remains unchanged.

But, notwithstanding the discrepancy, to which sufficient reference has now been made, the literary part of the work is unusually excellent; its writers have collected and classified a mass of material most of which is hardly known, even by name, to the general reader, and only imperfectly understood by many who profess familiarity with the literature of France. New conclusions were scarcely to be expected from men whose special work and ways of thinking have long been known to the world of letters, and yet each one of them has found something to add to his subject in the matter of information or of commentary. From one point of view, M. Gaston Paris's admirable preface to the first two volumes stands higher than any other division of this treatise. The sweeping generalizations, dear to the French critic, with which it abounds are not of a character to arouse hostility; they rank among the most generally accepted of critical "formulas," whether in France or out of it. What especially recommends his portion of the work to our notice is the uniform correctness and eloquent precision of his style. There is no doubt less difficulty in selecting expression for somewhat familiar propositions than in finding new ideas, the search for which is apt to interfere with what some of M. Paris's collaborators scornfully term "rhetoric"; but we may well wish that the latter had been alive to the demands of the situation in this respect, on all occasions. Surely, without cavil, it is not too much to ask that a work dealing with matters literary should be free from such cacophony as "mélange étrange" (Introd. p. lxxx.); from such a barbarous hybrid as "monoassonancé" (p. 116), which is not atoned for by its inverted commas; and from such inelegant constructions as the following: "Chacun dans *leur* langue" (Introd. p. lxxvii), "Héroïsme ou folie, l'un et l'autre *est* loin de nous" (p. 18), and "*est* une satire *et* qui n'épargne personne." The last of these clumsy constructions is repeated several times.

The book itself is a superb specimen of the best that French publishers can produce in regard to paper and type. It contains several illustrations, consisting of facsimiles of manu-

scripts and exquisite reproductions of antique illumination, rivalling the originals in delicacy and purity of color. Those, however, serve rather to embellish the volume than to elucidate matters contained in the text. It is not too much to say, in the words of the preface, that those who have aided in the preparation of this great work "have deserved well of learning and of their country," and earned the thanks of all who take pleasure in the union of sound learning with literary discrimination and skill.

State Railroad Control, with a History of its Development in Iowa. By Frank H. Dixon. With an introduction by Henry C. Adams. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Prof. Adams's introduction to Mr. Dixon's historical résumé divides the history of inland transportation in the United States into four periods—first, that which came to a close in 1830, marked chiefly by schemes of internal improvement at federal expense; second, the period from 1830 to 1850 (internal improvements carried on by States); third, 1850 to 1870 (railroad development by private corporations); fourth, 1870 to the present time (the period of commissions—State and interstate). Of commissions there are two sorts, weak and strong, the chief difference being that the first confines itself to investigating and making reports, while the second has authority of some kind over rates. The Massachusetts commission is the best known example of the first kind; in Iowa both sorts of commission have been tried. For the future the choice, Mr. Adams thinks, is between commissions having considerable power of control and Government ownership and management. He is opposed to Government ownership, not because it would be bad for the railroads, but because it would be bad for the Government. It would make the national administration so powerful that the legislature and judiciary would be swamped.

Prof. Adams is followed by Mr. Dixon, who gives a detailed history of the commission system in Iowa, shows how the Granger movement originated in "the feeling"—not in the fact—that "rates were too high" ("a careful study of the rate question will disclose a rapid fall in rates from the close of the war down to the end of 1870"); that the first Granger law was repealed after four years' trial, in 1878, the only intelligible reason given being that the Grangers had overshot the mark and made their law so oppressive that it could not be continued in force; that this was followed by an advisory commission, and this in 1888 by a commission with power to establish reasonable maximum rates. Meanwhile it has been made clear that the most important part of the railroad business of the country is not that subject to the States, but interstate. The supervision of this has been relegated by Congress to an Interstate Commission, so that we now have a double system, that of State commissions as to local business, and a federal commission as to through business. The history of this last system of Government supervision remains to be written.

The book, though valuable for its collection of facts, is inconclusive. It discusses a problem, as serious and comprehensive as any that can engage the attention of man, which has been approached as if it could be settled by the application of a few general principles. Rates should not be exorbitant; let us have them all fixed by a commission. It is unfair that one shipper should pay ten dollars for a shipment from New York to Chicago, and another fifteen for a similar shipment from New York to Cleveland; prohibit it by a law against discrimination. Pooling through business tends to prevent competition; prohibit pooling. To put the whole matter in a very few words, the business of the railroads might be managed better than it is; call a Government commission into existence to manage it. The question which now needs discussion first above all, especially after twenty-five years' experience of commissions, is what they have actually accomplished.

That they have not reduced rates except here and there, and temporarily (these having been steadily forced down by general causes connected with the business itself), seems to be admitted by the author; that they have introduced any new principle for determining what is a "reasonable" rate is nowhere apparent; that they have abolished the test of "what the traffic will bear" does not seem to be asserted; that they have enabled every one to get his goods shipped for a rate determined by the mere cost of transportation is clearly not the fact. What have they done? So far as appears from this volume, they have accomplished little except to give publicity to all facts connected with what is called the "railroad problem," and to have produced a good deal of important litigation which has thrown into bolder and bolder relief the one underlying fact of all, that railroad charges are regulated in the end by economic causes over which legislatures and commissions have no control. If we were to say that thus far railroad commissions had had very much the same effect on the railroad problem that labor commissions have had on the labor problem, we should not be far out of the way. Curiously enough, there is some evidence now that the commissions are being utilized for an object exactly the opposite of that for which they were introduced—not to lower rates in the interest of shippers, but to make rates more stable in the interest of the railroad owners. To the latter for twenty-five years these commissions have been a standing socialistic menace.

The author, though he refers to the decisions of the Supreme Court (p. 28), does not seem to be aware that they decide anything more than that the States have the power to establish limitations of the right of railroad companies to fix rates. The Supreme Court has laid it down in repeated decisions that this is not an arbitrary power to confiscate and destroy, and that it cannot be used to strike at the root of property and contract. In other words, the power must be reasonably used, and of this reasonableness the courts are to judge. In the case of Reagan vs. Farmers' Loan and Trust Company (154 U. S., 362) it was held that a State Commission could be enjoined by a court of equity from enforcing rates shown to be unreasonable; in the more recent case of St. Louis and San Francisco Railway Company vs. Gill (156 U. S., 649) it was decided that if a legislature itself chose to establish unreasonable rates, the defence of unreasonableness might be set up in an action for the collection of penalties.

In conclusion, we may say that if we were to sum up the impression produced by the history of the relation between Government and transportation in this country, it would be that Prof. Adams's first period was one of schemes, and nothing else; that the second was one of State construction ending in bankruptcy; that the third was one which showed that private corporate construction and management produced great prosperity, accompanied by a declining cost to the public; and that the fourth—that of commissions and State supervision—had thus far been, among those who had actually built the railroads, one of great suffering and of constant struggle for the right to enjoy the profits guaranteed them by their charters, aggravated by wild attempts to escape the effects of depression by unnecessary construction of unproductive lines. Certainly no argument in favor of public control of rates or Government purchase can be extracted from such facts as these.

Introduction to Sociology. By Arthur Fairbanks. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

The aim of Mr. Fairbanks's volume is, he tells us, rather practical than theoretic; by this he means, apparently, that it is designed as a groundwork for the study of the subject. It certainly contains a good deal of information about the development of human society, derived from the author's reading of Spencer, Darwin, Bagehot, Comte, Giddings, Malthus, Bluntschli, Montesquieu, and other writers; but when we ask what he adds to what they tell us, or what he maintains that sociology teaches, we are somewhat at a loss for an answer. The reason is that he has no very clear conception of what he means by sociology. The great discovery of Spencer was that progress is produced by the development of the heterogeneous out of the homogeneous, and the law of natural selection shows, in one field, how this takes place. Maine has explained that *status* precedes contract, and it is generally believed that all over the world common ownership of land preceded individual ownership, and the clan, the State. All this is sociological knowledge; but what is sociology? If it is merely the sum of all the sciences of man, it is no new science. If it is something different from this, what is it? Does it exhibit any law or laws not economical, not anthropological, not political, governing the development of society?

The author seems to think that it differs from political economy because it studies groups, while economics deal with man as an individual. But these groups are mere aggregations of individuals, and the author himself explains very clearly that treating the group as an organism is a mere figure of speech. The family, clan, state, or church is merely a collection of persons acting together for a common purpose. The common purpose is what determines the behavior of the group, and this common purpose is founded upon the desires, wants, aims, and beliefs of individuals. A group of great importance in our day is the corporation. Does Mr. Fairbanks really suppose that we can discover a law of the evolution of corporations without considering the purpose and aim of the half-dozen human beings who obtain the charter? Probably not. Probably he has, at bottom, a hope of discovering some law by which, at a given stage of civilization, corporations become important and common. But he can only get at it in one of two ways—either by showing that in the past corporations have always made their appearance in connection with certain surrounding phenomena, which warrants the inference of a connection between them, or that they answer some want, desire, or necessity of man as we know him. What light will sociology throw on these matters, *qua* sociology? The *subject* of sociology is as old as man. What the science professes to teach is a

new method of studying society, but what is it?

Sociology, as it appears in Mr. Fairbanks's book, has for its content the *omne scibile* about Man as he appears in groups. We are to believe that, after the study of the individual, the study of persons grouped into "organisms," such as the family, tribe, and state, will come to crown the work. But this is a mere prediction. So we might predict a science of cosmology; but we should not feel warranted in calling the forecast practical in its aim.

Republican National Convention, St. Louis, June 16th to 18th, 1896. Illustrated. With a History of the Republican Party, and a Survey of National Politics since the Party's Foundation, etc., etc. By Charles M. Harvey. St. Louis: I. Haas Publishing and Engraving Co. 1896.

Mr. Harvey is associate editor, as his title-page announces, of the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, and his book is a campaign history and text-book "for permanent reference." There is a quantity of the usual campaign information, and a skeleton history of the Republican party, all of which, as far as it goes, seems to be accurately compiled, while the volume is enriched with numerous portraits of eminent contemporary Republican statesmen. These include men of such distinction as to forbid the idea, so often suggested by books of this sort, that they have been induced to become promoters of the volume by the hope of making the public familiar with their features. Possibly in some cases the portrait may slightly over-accentuate the trait which has endeared the person represented to the public, but this is no doubt owing to its having been selected by friendly, not critical hands. If straightforward frankness, rugged honesty, virile candor, and boyish *bonhomie* typify the prevailing party expressions, where should we look to find them emphasized if not in a campaign handbook? The illustrations are, for the most part, nearly equal in size and in artistic merit, and except in the few cases in which we are unfortunate enough never to have looked upon the original, we can vouch for them as unmistakable likenesses. Of those of the committee which "secured the convention for St. Louis," so much cannot fairly be said. With the exception of Mayor Walbridge, the committeemen are not treated as handsomely as the Senators and other party leaders, though this cannot have been the author's intention.

The history possesses comparatively little general value, as there is no proper examination of the merits of the questions passed in review. Reciprocity is mentioned, for instance, but we can find no explanation of what reciprocity is. The independent Republican movement of 1872 is alluded to, as is also the "Mugwump" bolt of 1884, but the author does not seem to be aware of any historical connection between the two. The Liberty party's relation to the Republican party, if only as chronologically antecedent, is not so much as hinted at.

The Hastings Chess Tournament. Edited by Horace F. Cheshire. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

The Principles of Chess. By James Mason. London: Horace Cox. 1896.

The story of the Hastings chess tournament is very completely told in Mr. Cheshire's volume. The score of every game is given in full, and in nearly every instance the turning-point of the game is illustrated by a diagram. The annotations, instead of being by one hand, are the work of a dozen of the leading players, the idea being that no player should annotate his own games. The result of this arrangement is a mass of valuable and sometimes rather amusing criticism. Chess-players familiar with the predilections of the different masters who took part in this tournament will note, here and there, a personal flavor in their annotations which makes them more entertaining than such commentaries usually are. Mr. Cheshire has also provided likenesses and brief biographies of all the players, and has done his editorial work so carefully that, after a thorough examination, we have failed to detect a single misprint in the scores of the games.

The Hastings tournament was one of the most successful meetings of its kind. With one or two exceptions, the twenty-two players who competed were in the front rank of living players, and the games played were of excellent quality—superior, in the opinion of good judges, to those played during this summer at Nuremberg. Few finer games have ever been recorded than those played at Hastings by Steinitz against Bardeleben, by Tarrasch against Walbrodt, and by Pillsbury against Janowski; and in these particular cases the annotations of Tarrasch and Pillsbury are quite worthy of the text. One of the best innovations tried in this tournament was the giving of consolation prizes for games *won* rather than *drawn*, in order to encourage the players to finish out their games; yet, in spite of this inducement, Schlechter, who has been dubbed the "Viennese drawing-master," managed to play twelve drawn games out of his twenty-one! Another striking result of the influence of the Vienna school on the players of the day is to be found in the fact that the queen's gambit, the Ruy Lopez, and the French defence were the openings adopted in 142 games out of a total of 230. It is certainly to be regretted that the tendency of the modern game is in the direction of safety rather than of brilliancy.

Mr. James Mason, who began life as a New York newsboy, has been for twenty years one of the best known expositors of the game, and in his little book on the 'Principles of Chess' he puts into convenient shape much information about position play and the openings which the beginner will find useful. But, after all, chess is like other games, and the best way to learn it is to practise with stronger players.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Rev. Lyman. Christianity and Social Problems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Amicis, Edmondo de. Constantinople. Putnams. $2.25.
Andrews, Prof. C. M. The Historical Development of Modern Europe. Vol. I. 1815-1850. Putnams. $2.50.
Angling. [The Out-of-Door Library.] Scribners. $1.50.
Arpinwall, Alicia. Short Stories for Short People. E. P. Dutton & Co.
A Year in the Fields: Selections from the Writings of John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Baldwin, James. Fifty Famous Stories Retold. American Book Co. 35c.
Bally, S. E. A Manual of German Commercial Correspondence. London: Methuen & Co.
Barrie, J. M. Auld Licht Idyils. When a Man's Single. [Thistle Edition.] Scribners.
Bendire, Capt. Charles. Life Histories of North American Birds, from the Parrots to the Grackles. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Benzon, Th. Un Divorce. Paris: Lévy; New York: Brentanos. 75c.
Blyth, A. W. Foods: Their Composition and Analysis. 4th ed., revised and enlarged. London: Charles Griffin & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $7.50.
Bodge, G. M. Soldiers in King Philip's War. Leominster, Mass.: The Author.
Boissier, Gaston. The Country of Horace and Virgil. Putnams. $2.
Braine, Sheila E. To Tell the King the Sky is Falling. London: Blackie & Sons; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Brooke, Stopford A. The Old Testament and Modern Life. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Brooks, E. S. The Century Book of Famous Americans. Century Co. $1.50.
Briefe hervorragender Zeitgenossen an Franz Liszt. 2 vols. 1824-1854, 1855-1881. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Bruce, Prof. A. B. With Open Face; or, Jesus Mirrored in Matthew, Mark and Luke. Scribners. $1.50.
Buchan, I. Musa Piscatrix. London: John Lane; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Cajori, Prof. Florian. A History of Elementary Mathematics. Macmillan. $1.50.
Campbell, Rev. Wm. The Articles of Christian Instruction in Favorlang-Formosan, Dutch, and English. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Carlyle, Thomas. Sartor Resartus. London: Service & Paton; New York: Putnams. $1.
Case, R. H. English Epithalamies. London: John Lane; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.75.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Witch Winnie in Holland. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Channing, Prof. E., and Hart, Prof. J. M. Guide to the Study of American History. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.15.
Chodsko, Alex. Fairy Tales of the Slav Peasants and Herdsmen. London: George Allen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Conway, M. D. The Writings of Thomas Paine. Vol. IV. Putnams. $2.50.
Corson, Prof. Hiram. Selections from Chaucer's Canterbury Tales. Macmillan. 90c.
Cowan, James. Daybreak: A Romance of an Old World. G. H. Richmond & Co. $1.50.
Cowden-Clarke, Mary. My Long Life: An Autobiographic Sketch. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Cranoch, Frank. The Method of Darwin: A Study in Scientific Method. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Crockett, S. R. The Gray Man. Harpers. $1.50.
Daudet, Alphonse. Robert Helmont. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Defoe, Daniel. Robinson Crusoe. Condensed. American Book Co. 50c.
Douglas, Amanda M. A Little Girl in Old New York. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Douglass, Amanda M. The Mistress of Sherburne. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Douglas, Theo. Iras: A Mystery. Harpers. $1.
Drake, Jeanie. The Metropolitans. Century Co.
Drysdale, William. The Fast Mail. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Earle, Mrs. Alice M. Colonial Days in Old New York. Scribners. $1.25.
Ellis, E. S. Shod with Silence: A Tale of the Frontier. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Farrow, G. E. The Wallypug of Why. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Fitz-Gerald, Edward. Rubáiyat of Omar Khayyam. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Gardner, Celia E. Won under Protest. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Gerstäcker, F. Irrfahrten. Henry Holt & Co. 30c.
Gillet, Prof. J. A. Euclidean Geometry. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Gray, N. D. '96 Charades. Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Halleck, R. P. The Education of the Central Nervous System. Macmillan. $1.
Harding, B. F. Greek Inflection. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Harris, J. C. Daddy Jake the Runaway, and Short Stories Told after Dark. Century Co.
Harris, J. C. The Story of Aaron. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hartland, E. S. The Legend of Perseus. Vol. III. London: David Nutt.
Hassall, Arthur. The Making of the British Empire. 50c.
Haswell, Chas. H. Reminiscences of an Octogenarian of the City of New York. Harpers. $3.
Hawels, Rev. H. R. Travel and Talk. 2 vols. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Hervey, M. H. Amyas Egerton, Cavalier. Harpers. $1.50.
Hirsch, Dr. William. Genius and Degeneration. Appletons. $3.50.
Hocking, Joseph. The Mist on the Moors: A Romance of North Cornwall. London: James Clark & Co.; New York: R. F. Fenno & Co. 75c.
Hopkins, Tighe. Nell Haffenden: A Strictly Conventional Story. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Hornung, E. W. The Rogue's March: A Romance. Scribners. $1.50.
Howell, Dr. W. H. An American Text-Book of Physiology. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders. $6.
Huard, Lucien. Cherchons la Femme! Paris: Librairie Illustrée; New York: Brentanos. 75c.
Hudspeth, Rosa. The Juggernaut of the Moderns. Boston: Arena Publishing Co. $1.
Johnson, C. W. Songs of the Nation. Silver, Burdett & Co. 60c.
Jordan, Prof. D. S. Science Sketches. New and enlarged ed. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Kernahan, Coulson. Captain Shannon. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Kingsley, Charles. Hypatia. London: Service & Paton; New York: Putnams. $1.
Lang, Andrew. The Life and Letters of John Gibson Lockhart. 2 vols. London: Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $12.50.
Lewis, W. H. A Primer of College Football. Harpers. 75c.
Little Journeys to the Homes of American Authors. Putnams. $1.75.
Lock, Rev. J. B. Trigonometry for Beginners. Macmillan. $1.10.
Maclaren, Ian. Kate Carnegie. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Marburg, Theodore. The World's Money Problem. Part I. Baltimore: Cushing & Co. 15c.
Matthews, Prof. Brander. Aspects of Fiction, and Other Ventures in Criticism. Harpers. $1.50.
Maurice, C. E. The Story of Bermuda. Putnams. $1.50.
Maynard, Cora. Some Modern Heretics. A Novel. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
McKay, F. E., and Wingate, C. E. L. Famous American Actors of To-day. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Medé, Mlle. Rosine. Morceaux Choisis de Jules Lemaître. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Merington, Marguerite. Daphne; or, The Pipes of Arcadia. Century Co.
Molineux, Marie A. A Phrase-Book from the Poetic and Dramatic Works of Robert Browning. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Monachesi, Mrs. N. di R. A Manual for China-Painters. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Moulton, Louise C. Lazy Tours in Spain and Elsewhere. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Moxon's Mechanick Exercises; or, the Doctrine of Handy-Works Applied to the Art of Printing. [1683]. With preface and notes by Theo. L. De Vinne. 2 vols. New York: The Typothetæ of the City of New York.
Newell, P. S. A Shadow Show. Century Co.

Nichols, E. L., and Franklin, W. S. The Elements of Physics. Vol. II Electricity and Magnetism. Macmillan. $1.50.
Ochiltree, Henry. Redburn. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Ormsby, John. The Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote de la Mancha 2 vols T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.
Otis, James. Admiral J. of Spurwink. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co.
Peard, Frances M. Mother Molly. Putnams. $1.
Pease, Howard. The White Faced Priest, and Other Northumbrian Episodes. Newcastle-on-Tyne: Mawson, Swan & Morgan; London: Gay & Bird.
Phelps, Elizabeth S. Gypsy's Sowing and Reaping. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50
Phelps, Virge R. Little Nip: A Story for the Young. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co.
Pierce, E. D. Problems in Elementary Physics. Henry Holt & Co. 60c.
Platt, C. D. Ballads of New Jersey in the Revolution. Morristown: *Jerseyman* Print.
Pollard, Eliza F. The Green Mountain Boys. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Pratt, Miss Cornelia A. A Book of Martyrs. Scribners 75c.
Rae, W. F. Sheridan: A Biography. 2 vols. Henry Holt & Co. $7.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 22, 1896.

The Week.

THE statement of this country's total foreign trade during September, issued on Thursday by the Bureau of Statistics, makes without question the most remarkable showing, for the autumn season, in the history of American commerce. It was in September, 1891, that the failure of the European and Asiatic wheat crops started the huge export movement of American grain to Europe. Our export record of that year has long been proverbial in the records of United States commerce. Yet, though our total export trade of September, 1891, reached the large figure of $82,954,085, the exports of last month rise materially above it, reaching the quite unprecedented total of $85,098,594. To appreciate the bearing of such a movement on the present situation, comparison with more recent years is necessary. This September export trade of 1896 rises $26,558,531 above that of September, 1895, and $26,059.731 above 1894. When the almost equally remarkable shrinkage in merchandise import trade last month, as compared with previous years, is taken into reckoning, the contrast becomes even more impressive. Our exports last month exceeded imports by $34,272,889, whereas in the same month of 1895 there was an actual excess of imports reaching $6,765,257. There is little cause for astonishment in the favorable movement of the foreign exchanges when such a radical alteration in our trade situation has occurred.

It is sufficiently well known that a large part of this enormous export trade has been caused, in 1896, as in 1891, by a shortage of certain European grain crops, against a very generous harvest in this country. But it would be a great mistake to ascribe entirely to the grain movement the present heavy export trade. The record of September's grain exports, by quantity and by volume, is issued by the Bureau simultaneously with its general trade report, and throws great light on the details of the movement. Comparison of these figures with those of the corresponding month in 1891 shows very plainly that other commodities have combined with breadstuffs in raising this year's export average to its heavy total. It is true, the breadstuffs export movement of September shows an increase of fully 51 per cent. over last year; but as yet it makes no such comparison with 1891. Although our total exports of all kinds exceed the record of that year, the breadstuffs trade of 1896 falls materially lower. Last month, for instance, the country's total wheat exports were 9,649,253 bushels; in September, 1891, they were 19,496,165. The corn exports, to be sure, were this year nearly double those of 1891, and flour exports are slightly larger; but rye falls very far below the record of five years ago. In brief, the value of all breadstuffs exports in September, 1896, was $17,054,222; in September, 1891, it was $31,462,021. But in 1891 the breadstuffs exports made up nearly 38 per cent. of the total September exports; this year their percentage of the total is barely 20. From this the necessary conclusion is, that our export trade this season, in all branches of general products and of manufactures, has not only vastly exceeded that of a year ago, but has passed far beyond the record of 1891. In other words, the country's manufacturing export trade, after two years of the Wilson tariff act, has reached a volume quite without precedent in our history.

We have received from a puzzled correspondent a copy of a campaign document of the Bryan kind entitled "Sound Labor Questions," some particular parts of which we are desired to answer. The first part which calls for attention is this:

> "Can one business man who gets 68½ cents for wheat, for instance, compete with a business man getting $1.37 for the same quality and quantity of wheat? Of course not, you say; but 68½ cents in money is what the American farmer gets when his competitor, the Hindu farmer, gets $1.37 in money for identically the same quantity of wheat."

This brilliant argument was scarcely dry from the press when the American farmer who could not possibly compete with the Hindu farmer in raising wheat, began to export wheat from San Francisco to India in large quantities, showing that he could easily compete, not only in the Liverpool market, but in the Bombay market also. This, it may be urged, is an exceptional condition, due to a short crop in India, but does it not suggest that the price at any particular time is due to the law of supply and demand, and not to the kind of money in use?

The writer of "Sound Labor Questions" goes on to say that

> "if an ounce of silver can be bought in London for 68½ cents, that is all they will pay for an ounce of coined money—silver rupees; but the money value, in India, of an ounce of rupees is $1.37, or double the price of silver metal uncoined. As you can buy nearly double the number of rupees to-day with gold that you could twenty years ago, so you can buy in India two bushels of wheat or double the quantity of cotton that you could twenty years ago with the same amount of gold, because the market value of the silver in the rupee has nothing to do with its money value in India."

This is puzzling because nobody can understand it. It implies that anybody can buy silver in the London market at 68½ cents per ounce and have that silver converted into rupees, which he can use in wheat-buying at the rate of $1.37 per ounce. This is not true. The mints of India were closed to the coinage of rupees more than three years ago. Nobody can buy silver in London for conversion into rupees at any rate whatever. Therefore the whole argument falls to the ground. But the argument was unsound even before the Indian mints were closed. The commission who examined the question reported that the export trade of India was more active and prosperous when the rupee was steady in value than when it was declining. They reported also that any advantage gained by the exporter of wheat in India by the fall in the value of silver was at the expense of labor, and that the depreciation of the currency had been a great hardship to the wage-earning class. So it would be here.

It is evident from Bryan's speech to the women, as well as from several other speeches, that he has in his mind two silver dollars, one of high purchasing power and hard to get hold of. This is for the use of the people who have something to sell. The other is to be of low purchasing power, and easy to get, for the use of people who have debts to pay It is, of course, very hard to recommend both these dollars to the same people, but he seems to act on the same principle as the man who aimed his gun so as to miss if it was a cow, and kill if it was a deer. The new Bryanite dollar is to have the quality of becoming very valuable and high-priced in the hands of a man who has wheat to sell, but in the hands of a debtor it is to become quite cheap and plentiful. We can hardly think of a better arrangement than this. The only fault we find with it is that it does not go far enough. We think that there ought to be dollars for each class in the community, just like clothing and food—a dollar for men, a dollar for women, a dollar for the workingman, and a dollar for the idle rich man. There will never be true happiness till every man has his and every woman has her own dollar, suited to his or her circumstances in life. There would then be no complaints. And we would have it an American dollar, of good American silver and coined in the best manner. Only, of course, all dollars would not have the same value. Why should the poor washerwoman have the same dollar as the Fifth Avenue lady, any more than the same gown or boots? Bryan has not yet hit on the real thing, but he is marching in the right direction, and he will "get there." This compulsion of the poor to use the same dollar as the rich is the worst feature of the régime which is shaking under his blows. A

dollar suited to each man's individual needs is what the times call for.

Chairman Jones of the Popocratic national committee has aroused the country with another call to arms against perils which it does not suspect. He says that the "great corporations, with scarcely an exception, and many of the large employees of labor are engaged in a concerted effort to coerce their employees into voting at the approaching election against their own convictions," and declares his solemn belief that if the conspiracy prospers, "government by corporations will have succeeded government by the people." Jones says he shall do all he can to prevent it by having "every scoundrel, whether public officer or private citizen, who is detected in any violation of the law, vigorously prosecuted and sent to the penitentiary if possible." There will be no trouble about doing this. The election, in all except a few Southern States, will be held under the Australian ballot system. No voter can be coerced unless the coercer forces his way into the booth with him and bulldozes him there in the marking of his ballot. Jones can catch any "conspirator" who tries to do this and can land him in the penitentiary without difficulty. He need not make public disturbance now about this, for the public is with him everywhere. Nobody has ever tried to violate the booth law since its adoption, except some of Jones's Tammany Hall friends in this city a few years ago, and it should calm Jones to reflect upon the fact that they *were* all sent to the penitentiary without the aid of a "call to the people."

Election bets are not safe criteria of the state of public opinion, but if they could be considered in this light, the bets made every day in Wall Street would settle the matter against Mr. Bryan decisively. Here, for example, is a firm of substantial resources offering to sell "calls" for gold, good until November 6, at 1⅛ premium, or until December 15 at 1¾ premium. All calls sold will be guaranteed by the American Surety Company. It is not necessary that the buyer of these calls should deposit anything except the 1⅛ per cent. If he wants to insure himself to the extent of $10,000, he can put up $112.50, and then the firm will give him $10,000 in gold after the election in exchange for $10,000 in United States currency. The latter may be all silver certificates if he chooses, or it may be a certified bank check. There is no limit to the amount of business that can be transacted on this basis. Sums smaller than $10,000 are not offered, because the amount of the premium is not large enough to warrant the expense of getting the contracts guaranteed by the surety company for sums less than that amount. [illegible]y larger sum the door is open [illegible]usiness hours. Now if Mr. Bryan were to be elected, the premium on gold immediately after that event would be much greater than 1⅛ per cent. It would be much greater on the 15th of December than 1¾ per cent. Therefore these offers to sell gold for future delivery, while purely business transactions, are virtually bets that Mr. Bryan will not be elected. Of course the firm which makes these bets takes no risk. All that it needs to do is to buy sterling exchange at the same time that it sells the call. It can buy sixty-day bills at a rate which will save the interest meanwhile. This means that the whole commercial world takes the same view of Bryan's chances of election that this particular firm does.

The exceptionally large registration throughout this State, especially in all the cities, affords the usual amount of satisfaction to the "arithmetic men" of both parties, but the claims of encouragement which the Bryanites put forth come chiefly from the mouth of Johnny Sheehan and have a very empty sound. Nobody knows better than Sheehan that there is no encouragement for him in the registration figures, or in any other aspect of the campaign in this city and State. For the first time in the city's history, money is wagered on the size of the Republican majority here. It is generally believed that McKinley will carry the city—an assumption that is not at all unreasonable in view of the fact that there was a majority cast against Hill for Governor here in the election of 1894. Hill's vote was 127,000, and the combined vote of Morton and Wheeler was 133,000, or 6,000 greater. Nobody expects that Bryan will poll as many votes as Hill did, for Tammany was united and enthusiastic for Hill, while it is completely demoralized over Bryan. The registration in this city is in some respects a disappointment, but there is no doubt that the chief reason why a larger increase was not made is to be found in Democratic dissatisfaction. Believing that the State is certain to go for McKinley by an overwhelming majority, many Democrats decided not to register. Whatever gains there are here and in other cities may be set down safely, therefore, as in favor of the Republicans.

The decision of the Court of Appeals in favor of allowing the ticket of the National Democrats to be printed upon the ballots in this State is a verdict of great value. Being unanimous, it cannot be disputed as sound law, and as sound common sense it is above question. The first object of the secret ballot system, with all ballots printed and distributed at the public expense, is to give all candidates a just and equal standing before the voters at the polls. The object of the efforts that the Popocratic managers in this and other States have been making to keep Palmer and Buckner electors off the ballots, has been to prevent the people from having this free chance to express their will. They were afraid that if the National Democratic ticket was before them, many voters might prefer that to the Bryan ticket. There was no other purpose in their opposition. They have been defeated in nearly every case, we believe, and the judicial verdict in this State is so emphatic that it will stand as a precedent and will discourage the repetition of such efforts in the future.

Gov. Altgeld's speech at Cooper Union on Saturday was principally a defence of what is called the "free-riot clause" of the Chicago platform. His allusions to the silver question were few, and of a kind to show that he understands free coinage to be something very obnoxious to rich people, and therefore presumably right. He attacked President Cleveland for not waiting till he (Altgeld) was ready to suppress the Debs riots—if there really were any such riots, of which there is grave doubt in his mind. He says that he had suppressed some coal riots in Illinois before, and he thinks that that fact ought to have convinced the President that he intended to suppress the Debs disturbances, admitting, for the sake of argument, that there were any. If there were any riots in Chicago, Altgeld holds that they were not of a kind to warrant interference by the President. The mails had not been stopped, interstate commerce had not been blocked, nothing had occurred which could be called a breach of federal law. In laying down these premises, Gov. Altgeld differs from the judges who passed upon these questions afterwards, including the judges of the Supreme Court. But his speech was so largely directed against judges that this point of disagreement is trifling in comparison with others.

Mr. Lucius B. Swift of Indianapolis has for eight years edited in that city the *Civil-Service Chronicle*, a monthly journal devoted to the cause of civil-service reform. He announces that with the defeat of Bryan, which he confidently expects, he shall suspend its issue. The Indianapolis *News* makes this announcement the text for a well-deserved tribute to Mr. Swift. The conduct of the *Chronicle* has been an admirable illustration of the effective work in the interest of good government which can be done by a public-spirited citizen. For eight years Mr. Swift has made this little journal a scourge for the spoilsman wherever he found him, attacking Republican and Democratic offenders with equal vigor. There was no State in the Union where the doctrine of reform in the civil service more needed to be preached than Indiana when he began his work, and no place in the nation that offered a better field for such a

publication than a city in the heart of the interior region of the country, which was slower than the Atlantic seaboard to recognize the significance of the movement. At first ridiculed and then abused, Mr. Swift has at last come to see the importance of his work recognized even by the spoilsmen, and its value to the community confessed by all friends of good government.

An appeal reaches us from a "Distressed *Tribune* Reader" for help against the impending "Serio-Comic Supplement of sixteen pages" with which the editor of that journal threatens him in future. He calls attention to the fact that if the *Tribune* adopts it, there will be no Sunday paper left in the city which a respectable, intelligent man can see come into his house without groans of anguish, and asks if something cannot be done to "bring the editors of our great dailies to their senses." He adds: "The *Tribune's* conduct strikes me like that of an eminently respectable lady who, having reached advanced age in an entirely decorous manner, suddenly dons bloomers and takes to the bicycle." We are sorry to say that we are powerless in this matter. The journalistic view which impels the *Tribune* to put on the cast-off clothing of a deceased journalistic mountebank, who died of starvation through public neglect, is something beyond our powers of comprehension. We should very much like to have Horace Greeley restored to us in full vigor for a few minutes in order to hear his opinion of it. What he would say to a "Serio-Comic Supplement of sixteen pages, some of the pages in colors, devoted to wit, humor, and satire, and containing a profusion of political cartoons, half-tone pictures, pen drawings, etc.," issued from the *Tribune* office, any of his old acquaintances can imagine. Were he to reappear, we fancy that his successor would do what the gentleman did who was overtaken by the irate father whose daughter he was eloping with—put a broad table between them "lest acts might be committed which both of them would regret for ever afterwards."

Under the treaty of Berlin, the Porte promised to provide satisfactorily for the protection of the Christians, and Great Britain was to insist on fulfilment in return for its protection of the Porte against Russia. At Edinburgh, Lord Rosebery took up this separate agreement, and said England was not bound in honor to intervene in consequence of it. He declared that he always understood that, "the Sultan not having fulfilled, or tried to fulfil, any one of his pledges under that convention, England had been equally released from hers," and "that the convention had been a dead letter ever since it was signed." So that "the peace with honor" treaty was pure humbug, and bound the Sultan to nothing, while it was used to persuade the British public that its fleets and armies had accomplished a great work for humanity. From this fact, the deadness of the treaty for eighteen years, Lord Rosebery deduces the conclusion that the present Government is no more bound to interfere than those which have preceded it since 1878, in spite of the fact that this year the evils against which the Cyprus convention was intended to guard, and which England then, to all outward appearance, pledged herself to prevent, have assumed an acute form, and have caused the death, it is estimated, of 100,000 human beings. In no year since the convention was made has this, or anything like this, happened. What it proves is, not that the treaty should now be treated as null and void, but that it was a shameful thing not to have enforced it from the beginning, because, had it been enforced, these horrors could not have taken place. Lord Rosebery's argument, if sound, means that as long as England keeps Cyprus the Sultan may do what he pleases to the Christians. This is a nice little argument, but it is hardly one for the chief of the Liberal party to make.

Lord Rosebery's account of the treaty throws an interesting light on the "concessions" Mr. Terrell has secured from the Porte, and on the treaty the Porte is going to negotiate with us. It appears that the Porte has agreed to let the wives and children of Armenians naturalized and living in America join their husbands and fathers in this country. Just think of this. See what comes of patient negotiation, and how the old man loves America and Mr. Terrell. The Porte has agreed also to negotiate a new treaty affirming and explaining the treaty of 1830, giving our consuls complete exterritorial jurisdiction over our citizens in Turkey, native as well as naturalized. As the Porte has broken this treaty constantly with regard to naturalized citizens, the importance of getting it to make another cannot be overestimated. It must be said for the Porte that it has hardly ever refused to make a promise or a treaty, and we trust Minister Terrell will get a good lot of them out of it.

At the close of Sir William Harcourt's address on the Armenian difficulty on the 5th, he took up the old question why England is not liked. That she is not liked he admitted, and said that the tone of the Continental press seemed to indicate that the Powers were much more likely to combine to menace England than to aid Armenia. Sir William frankly declared that one cause was bad manners and lack of cordiality on the part of those responsible for English diplomacy. Then he added that England, while resolute to advance her own empire in every way, had shown unreasonable jealousy of the successes of other countries. It had not been perceived that the advantage of another nation might also be the advantage of England. Hence had come the succession of panics in England over the alarming growth of some foreign power. In the sixties it was France that was going to invade England, and after 1870 no true-hearted Englishman could sleep without dreaming of the Battle of Dorking. Later on, Russia became the great national bugbear, and had remained such till the present time. All this was as absurd as it was undignified, argued Sir William, and it was high time that England, after having tried overbearing manners and international suspicion all these years, should see what a conciliatory tone and a true *entente cordiale* would do.

Statues to public men have been the theme of much artistic and moralizing discussion in the French papers of late, and a good deal of speculation has been indulged in respecting the reasons why some men are favored at the expense of others. Merit, or even popularity, does not always seem to determine why one popular subscription for a statue to a poet or philosopher should be successful and another fail. Why, for example, should a monument be erected to Mürger, while Chénier and De Vigny still go uncommemorated? It cannot be that the admirers of the former outnumber those of either of the latter, or that they are richer or more enthusiastic. M. Ed. Rod seems to have hit upon the solution of the puzzle, and to have developed, at the same time, a fruitful principle governing in such matters. It is not that Mürger is so much worshipped, but that he is a convenient club with which to whack unpleasant people over the head. His statue is not erected *to* him, but *against* others. His works are pure mediocrity, and no one knows that better than the subscribers to his monument; but he was most annoying and offensive to people whom they heartily dislike, and what could be more delicious than to carve his figure and put it in a public place in order perpetually to remind them of their enemy? The principle is obviously capable of wide expansion. You might not be willing to give a sou for the purpose of placing a bust of Montesquieu in a library, but if you were shown one of Diderot across the room, and were appealed to as against him, you might put your name down for three figures. In other words, a public statue as an expression of hate or revenge has a great future before it. Only get it into people's heads that monuments may be erected to spite somebody, and the offers to fill up Central Park with specimens of the lapidary art would fairly rain upon the Board of Aldermen: a statue to Whitman in order to exasperate his detractors; one to Platt in order to see the *Tribune* writhe; one to Dana for the sake of making Tammany yell, and so on.

WHEAT ADVANCES, SILVER DECLINES.

THE rapid advance in the price of wheat and the persistent decline in the price of silver have arrested public attention more than any other fact in the course of the present campaign. This is very natural when we reflect that the main argument of the Popocrats at the beginning of the campaign, and indeed for several years past, has been that the gold standard has depressed the price of wheat and everything else. To prove this, they have paraded figures to show that the downward price of silver has kept pace with the downward price of wheat, that the two have run in parallel courses, and that such a phenomenon could be due only to the "grip of gold." 'Coin's Financial School' is full of this, and Mr. Bryan echoed the same argument repeatedly during the earlier months of the campaign. When wheat began to advance a few weeks ago, he said that the rise was due to the prospect of his election. There was no way to disprove this, although it was evident to all persons acquainted with the conditions of the market that the rise was due to the cessation of wheat exports from India, and the bad crop conditions in other countries which are usually our competitors in the production of that cereal.

A new element has since forced itself upon Mr. Bryan's notice, although he has not yet told how he explains it. Silver has fallen more than 4 cents per ounce, while wheat has advanced more than 22 cents per bushel. If there is any article of commerce which ought to advance on the prospect of Mr. Bryan's election, it is silver. He says that free coinage will cause it to rise to $1.29 per ounce, and that his election means free coinage; it ought, on his own theory, to show a considerable advance now, instead of which it has fallen to the lowest price known in the past two years. Mr. Bryan will probably explain that the bankers and syndicates have conspired to put up the price of wheat and to put down the price of silver for political effect, and very likely he will make many of his followers believe it—especially those who believe that bankers and syndicates are in the habit of cornering gold in order to oppress the debtor class.

The causes of the present advance in wheat and decline of silver are to be found, as heretofore, in the law of supply and demand. Not only has India ceased to export wheat, in consequence of the drought, but she has begun to import it from Australia and even from California, according to recent reports. The Russian supply is also short. Foreign purchases in our market to make good these deficiencies have put up the price. There is nothing simpler, nothing more easily understood. On the other hand, the demand for silver in China and Japan has fallen off. The following explanation of the decline in demand is given by the *London and China Express* of September 25:

"The speculation which had held silver above the parity of rates of exchange in the East has died out, while only disturbing elements remain. We refer to the uncertainty attending matters in the United States, to which have to be added the almost total absence of shipments of silk from Japan, and the very small purchases of this commodity made in China. The position in the Far East, which, being the ultimate consumer of most of the white metal produced, has a considerable say in fixing its value, is that bills are all going one way, and that, consequently, little support is accorded. Shipments of Straits produce also continue on a small scale, and therefore lend no assistance."

In other words, the price of silver has been governed by the law of supply and demand, just like the price of wheat. If India is unable to export wheat, she is less able to buy silver. If the Straits Settlements are not exporting so much of their produce as formerly, they are under the same disability. If China and Japan for any reason are not sending as much silk abroad as usual, they too are disabled from buying silver in the customary amounts. The two phenomena, which have come to pass just at a time when they were most needed to confound the silverites, are explainable in the simplest possible way, and they show conclusively that the other movements in the price of wheat and silver, which played so great a part in 'Coin's Financial School,' were due to like causes, and that the "grip of gold" had nothing to do with them one way or the other.

There is now every prospect that Mr. Bryan will be beaten overwhelmingly. If the business world did not think so, both East and West, not only would silver advance, but gold would be going out of the country, instead of coming in, and business would be growing worse instead of better in every quarter of the Union. When he is beaten, and all elements of uncertainty as to the standard of value are eliminated, there is every reason to expect a season of prosperity akin to that which followed the resumption of specie payments in 1879. Every tradesman knows that his customers are holding back their orders for goods till after the election. They are buying the very smallest quantities that they can get on with. If a man thinks of furnishing or refurnishing his house, or buying anything beyond what he must eat and wear from day to day, he puts it off till after the election. He wants to know what he can expect after that momentous event, and although he may feel very sure that the Popocrats will be defeated, he wants to have absolute certainty before he risks his money in anything. This state of mind is reflected in the hoarding of gold which is going on in all parts of the country. These hoardings are in small amounts to each individual hoarder, but are large in the aggregate and have caused a small premium for the yellow metal over paper currency. When the silver craze is smashed, these hoards will be unlocked, and the long-withheld orders for merchandise of every kind will come forward, and we shall have once more a period of active trade, confident enterprise, and large demand for labor—conditions that can never come so long as a doubt remains whether the dollar is to be worth one hundred cents or only fifty.

THE OFFICES, AND INTEREST IN POLITICS.

ONE of the extraordinary features of this extraordinary campaign has been strangely overlooked by some of our ablest thinkers and publicists. We refer to the fact that the offices to be striven for were never so few, while political interest was almost never so great. This surprising state of affairs certainly calls for explanation. Our gravest and most experienced instructors in the principles of public life, under a democracy, have assured us for years that what we are now seeing we never should see. As the offices were made competitive, interest in politics would gradually decline, until, if the civil-service reformers had their way and got all the offices under the rules, no one would go to the polls except a few dyspeptic professors and valetudinarians. To the men who have been solemnly telling us this all the while, the spectacle the campaign now affords must excite special wonder.

As to the facts there can be no question. President Cleveland's order of last May, together with the subsequent regulations made, removed practically the whole federal civil service from its time-honored place in the quadrennial pig-trough. Something like 90,000 "places" are now under the rules, their occupants protected from intimidation, assessment, or partisan displacement. And, what is more, McKinley approves of this work and promises to sustain and continue it. He is thoroughly pledged to "extend the civil-service laws wherever practicable," to "take no backward step," and to "improve, but never degrade, the public service." Now, according to the leading authorities on American politics, this should have been fatal to the McKinley canvass. No offices, no interest; no "places," no organization, no votes. Especially might this have been expected to be the result in view of Bryan's attitude. In this respect he is up to the level of old-fashioned American patriotism. No "life tenure" for him. No "aristocracy of office-holders" under his administration. As it was the President's order that removed the offices from the scramblers, another Presidential order can restore them, and such an order Bryan tacitly promises to issue. His opponent has no offices to hold out as bait; *he* holds them all out. On the theory in which we have been carefully educated, this should have meant at once a dispirited and flagging campaign for McKinley, an enthusiastic and cumulative rising of the masses of free-

men for Bryan. But the plaguey thing has not worked that way, and we think our old political philosophers are bound to tell us why.

We shall not let them off with the excuse that the issue this year is one of absorbing interest and transcendent importance. It is precisely that kind of an issue which required and justified the spoils system. Confound it, with your country in peril, were you going to haggle about giving the bosses a few offices? Didn't you see that, while your theories might be all very well, you really could not, you know, in practical politics overlook the actual forces that decided elections, and you should say now, as an honest man and a patriot, whether you would prefer to have the rebel debt assumed, with slavery very likely reëstablished, all the mills closed, and business ruined, instead of waiting a few years until the public mind was ripe for your civil-service views? Of course, we should not get angels in *all* the offices—no reasonable man would expect that—but just consider the tremendous importance of carrying this election, and do be practical for this once.

Everybody knows, in fact, with what enthusiasm the spoils politicians would have welcomed the critical issues of this campaign as just the strongest arguments against reform. "*This* year of all untimely years," they would have said. "Think of the millions of wage-earners in terror at the threat to cut their pay in two, and then tell us if you have the heart to take the offices away from us and so break down the gold standard. Oh, those widows and orphans, whose little all is endangered while you cold theorists are calmly discussing utopian plans, without seeing that this is the time for urgent action by strong men, using every available means, ready to pledge every office five times over in order to avert the distress of innocent and helpless women and children."

All such humbug has been given the lie in this campaign in a way that ought to serve for all time. We have seen unequalled enthusiasm for the candidate who promises no offices, while his opponent, who does not conceal his aim to loot the public service to reward his followers, has thereby made his canvass but so much the more hopeless. The keenest and most general political interest that we have witnessed for a generation has been, in short, aroused without a particle of what was so long alleged to be the necessary stimulus. Some of the most enthusiastic workers in the campaign—the gold Democrats—have, by their action, positively cut themselves off from every hope of getting office. The spoilsmen were all along the real theorists. Moreover, as is now clear, they were wretched slanderers of the American people in asserting that there could be no interest in politics without the motive of personal profit and greed; and one of the great achievements of this campaign will be the final disposing of that slander for the brainless and degrading thing it is.

INTERNATIONAL MISUNDERSTANDING.

THE difficulty nations have in understanding each other was never better illustrated than by the explanations and predictions in regard to the present crisis in America which reach us from the other side of the water. In the first place, there are currents of thought and feeling in every country which escape the observation of a stranger, and can become known to him only by long residence and by daily contact with a large number of natives. He finds out in this way, little by little, by an infinite variety of small incidents, why certain things which cannot and will not be in any given country, seem quite possible and likely to a foreigner reasoning on the matter à priori. A Frenchman's account of an English girl, or of the relations of the sexes in England or America, is an example of this. It may be logically deducible from a considerable number of undeniable facts, and yet the Englishman or American knows it to be absurd. In the same way it would have been (and has been, we may say) impossible during the last twenty years to explain to an American silver man or bimetallist why there was no likelihood that England would adopt the double standard. He would go to England, see a certain number of ardent bimetallists (bimetallism is a kind of religion), one or two of them ex-Governors of the Bank of England, hear that Mr. Balfour, the great English statesman, was a bimetallist, and come back with the conclusion that the old pound sterling was doomed. But the average English business man would feel in his bones that it was all nonsense, and that the pound sterling was as safe as the pyramids. He would tell you that it was to her dislike of such "fads" that England's commercial greatness was due, that Mr. Balfour was not a financial authority, and that his opinions on finance made no impression on that portion of the English public which knows and feels, through daily use and wont, the importance and value of the gold standard.

In the second place, foreigners naturally find it impossible to estimate the weight and importance of men who profess to speak for their own country abroad, explain its motives, and record the drift of its popular opinion. It is not unnatural that a man's official position, such as Mr. Balfour's, or Senator Lodge's, or Senator Morgan's, should seem to arm him with authority on all subjects whatever; and yet only a native could tell accurately on what subjects he was to be listened to, and on what laughed at, and how much importance should really be attached to his official position. This difficulty is increased in England with regard to America by the English practice, due mainly to the absence of well-defined social classes in this country, of lumping all Americans together as essentially the same thing. This is carried so far that often there are assumptions in England that any American would be glad over there to meet any other American; that any editor would fly to the arms of James Gordon Bennett, Joseph Pulitzer, or Mrs. Frank Leslie; that Mr. J. C. Carter would be delighted to come across Howe & Hummell in London, or President Eliot to hobnob with Edward Lauterbach. Why not, they would say; is he not an American? Consequently, anybody who can put "U. S. A." to his name, finds ready access to a prominent place in the London papers, whether he comes from Montana or New York, and whether he has kept a gambling-house or preached the Gospel; and is listened to with equal deference. Not the slightest trouble is taken to gauge him, or weigh him, or ascertain by what right he speaks for one of the largest and most heterogeneous countries in the world.

It is to this curious state of mind that we owe the attention given to Mr. Thomas G. Shearman recently in the London *Times*. He wrote one or two long letters explaining the Bryan trouble and the condition of the West. As facts, they were a mass of blunders and exaggerations, as was shown conclusively a day or two later by Mr. Parker, our consul at Birmingham. As opinions, we shall only say that, produced at Mr. Shearman's habitat, Brooklyn, they would not have attracted the smallest attention, and we can say all this without denying that Mr. Shearman is a man of ability. Nevertheless, the *Times* had two editorials on the letters as a revelation. The *Spectator* had another, and thanked him for letting light in on the Bryan question. This same method of weighing authorities has led some of the London journals to discredit the Eastern papers, as not knowing what they were talking about when they predicted Bryan's defeat, in that they were under the influence of the "money power" and paid attention only to what was passing in their immediate vicinity, for had not William C. Pink of Arkansas, U. S. A., or Moses J. Cheever of Oklahoma Territory, U. S. A., explained fully why Bryan would carry every State in the Union except New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts?

We do not know that there is any remedy for this state of things but inquiry. In these days, when every man who wishes can find an organ, if the mere wish to write on any subject is taken as competence to write, confusion must always reign. There could hardly be a more potent cause of blunders about America than the habit of taking for granted that any American who, happening to be in London, chooses to lift up his voice for the "U. S. A.," is to be

listened to with attention and respect. Before keeping silence in the presence of a fluent talker or writer about American affairs, it would be always well to ask, What attention is paid to him at home? Do people listen to him there with respect? Whom does he persuade? What proof has he given of honesty and perspicacity? Have his predictions ever come true? What was he doing in Arkansas or Oklahoma before he took up the business of enlightening Englishmen about affairs in his native land?

THE ISOLATION OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

THE past ten or fifteen years have seen a remarkable awakening of interest in the academic study of American history. Formerly the subject was one to which colleges paid not much attention; a single brief course, usually neither thorough nor interesting, being all that most institutions offered. But with the development of universities and the increase of facilities for advanced work, courses of instruction in American history have come to occupy a place of especial prominence in the historical curriculum, while significant fruit of the new enthusiasm appears in a long list of monographs, annotated reprints of historical documents, and "topical outlines" for the use of students, all testifying to earnestness and industry, and often fairly bristling with an array of "critical apparatus." No field of historical inquiry in the United States now calls out such widespread interest or enlists so many workers as does American history, and in scarce any department has zeal for publication run such lengths.

Something of this quite exceptional popularity is doubtless attributable to patriotic impulse, and the natural attractiveness of an accessible and not much wrought vein. Something, also, is certainly due to the fact that American history, in comparison with many other departments of historical investigation, seems to offer an "easy" field. A considerable amount of valuable work can be done in it by a student unacquainted with any foreign language, ancient or modern, and quite ignorant of the science of diplomatics; and a university man who fancied that he could have the form of historical learning without the substance might think that here was his opportunity. It can hardly be said that the universities, notwithstanding all their efforts, have been quite successful in combating this idea. Few of them as yet require any very extended special preparation on the part of intending students of the subject; an elementary course or two, or even a small amount of "general reading," being usually enough to satisfy all demands. An examination of catalogues and other official publications is pretty certain to leave the impression that American history is still too often looked upon as in some way a distinct and separable branch of historical study, capable of a large measure of isolation, and for whose profitable pursuit any tolerably well-informed young person who has passed the sophomore year is, presumably, fitted. More than one institution calling itself a university, and justifying its name by the high character of its work in some other lines, will this year admit to "original research" in an American history "seminary" some students, both graduates and undergraduates, who would have difficulty in framing a creditable account of the main events in any Presidential administration, and whose knowledge of the "sources" is hardly sufficient to enable them to trace a bill through the pages of the *Congressional Record*, or interpret a reference to the Statutes at Large.

This tendency to isolation is undoubtedly a serious danger to the future of historical work in the United States. While the comparative method of modern science has been appropriated by nearly all departments of learning, its application to the treatment of our national development has thus far been infrequent. No one, for example, doubts that the student of Germanic philology must know Greek and Latin, and the student of medicine learn something of chemistry and physics, but it is still possible, in some quarters, for the student of American history possessing a very meagre knowledge of the history of any country except his own to be lifted into the company of scholars. It is this, doubtless, that makes some college presidents hesitate to call to permanent professorships young men whose advanced degrees have been obtained by a course of study in American history alone; not that the importance and the educational value of the subject are in any way undervalued, or that there is any lack of eminent scholars filling chairs of American history in this country, but because the training, where the subject is isolated, is very likely to be insufficient and unsatisfactory.

The logical consequences of this inadeqate preparation are manifest also in the innumerable publications which illustrate its methods and embody some of its results. Here and there, in the apparently endless series of "studies" and "contributions" which one university after another now feels called upon to issue, one comes upon work of real distinction, creditable alike to its authors and to American scholarship; work, for instance, like Miss Follett's recent study of the Speakership, a notable example of learning and industry wisely directed. Of such work there can never be too much. The trouble is that anything comparable to it in excellence is as yet the exception rather than the rule. One is impressed, in examining many of these serial contributions to American history, by their rather indiscriminate character. There is no end of industry and learning, only the industry is a bit desultory and the learning ill-digested. To accumulate a great mass of information, from all sorts of sources, upon some topic which has not yet happened to be sufficiently "investigated," to help out the text with liberal quotations and weight it heavily with foot-notes, to append a so-called "bibliography" and extracts from more or less relevant "documents," and then to get the whole published as part of a "series," may serve to advertise the author and help him to a "call," but it rarely produces a work that illustrates either the method of science or the spirit of sound learning. The intentions of the writers may be excellent enough, and the fruit of their labors often contains much of interest and importance, but its value is distinctly out of proportion to its bulk.

What is needed is a more rational adjustment of the relations between American history and other departments of learning than most of our universities have yet secured. We have no lack of earnest laborers and patient investigators, but there is often occasion for regret that they could not have been better equipped before setting about their ambitious tasks. What the details of that equipment shall be is too broad a question for discussion here; plainly, however, they ought to include a wider study of history, government, and law than is now usually insisted upon. As to the prevailing eagerness for publication, there is a certain manifest reasonableness in asking that a person, whatever his field, shall have something to say before rushing into print, and that he shall give us results rather than processes and "notes." For success in the writing of history does not depend upon the possession of vast learning or a picturesque style, but upon easy mastery of facts, sound judgment, sure sense of proportion, and power of simple and accurate statement. Of these qualities the writing of American history is still much in need.

A PICTURE OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

ST. JOHN'S, September, 1896.

A JOURNEY from New York to Newfoundland in summer is delightful, not only because it transports one to a cooler climate, but as bringing one into contact with modes of life and novel surroundings which are unique on this hemisphere. The island still justifies the name given it four centuries ago, for every traveller has to rediscover it for himself. He can obtain only the haziest information about any spot beyond that on which he stands. A number of steamers sail to St. John's from American, Canadian, and English ports, but, when they have any schedule, departure from it is the rule, not the exception. There is probably not a steamboat agent in a foreign port who can give any information as to the route of the railroads built or building, or supply a time-table. Nor are they to blame. Although there exist three systems of railroads, almost encircling the island, no time-table is published in a railway guide, in a public newspaper, or on a separate sheet. The traveller must therefore constitute himself an explorer, and investigate Newfoundland for himself.

It has been for four centuries a stage for drying codfish, and little else. The fisherman is loath to become a farmer; yet he loves his little garden, and therefore, wherever enough square feet of soil has accumulated in the hollows of the rocky coast, there he, in the intervals of fishing, and the women, who remain at home to wash and cure the fish, grow a few of the dear old-fashioned flowers—phloxes, pinks, and sweet-williams—on narrow beds planted on each side of one central walk, and flank them with hardy vegetables, which thrive in that moderate moist climate. The decennial census, which fills two thick octavo volumes, and which pries minutely into the doings of the 197,000 souls and bodies with which it is concerned, tells us that, though there are only 1,545 farmers on the island, there are 36,301 fishermen and others who cultivate the land, or nearly every head of a family of five.

These same census volumes explain many other anomalies of life in this strange island. The next column of the recapitulation to that which expresses so vividly the love of these weather-beaten fishermen for their tiny garden plot, tells us that 606 members of the farming community are supported exclusively by the Government. In other words, 39 per cent. as many depend on state salaries as derive a living from tilling the soil. There must be, under any system of government, a staff of officials to govern a community, be it large or small; but the number is out of all proportion large when the population is so small and scattered. Newfoundland gathers her revenues in chief part from customs du-

ties, and must defend her shores from smugglers. This is the more difficult as the French islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon are almost within a stone's throw of the south coast of the larger island, and are suspected of thriving on their contraband trade. It is at least suspicious that this group of small French islands, with some 6,000 inhabitants, imports not less than ten million francs of merchandise annually. The capacity of consumption of their population is certainly surprisingly great.

The Post-Office Department of Newfoundland also employs an extraordinary number, for the largest accumulation of population in one locality is by all odds in St. John's, with its 29,000 souls, while the next largest town is Harbor Grace, which can muster only 6,400 inhabitants. The total population of this large island of 40,000 square miles would not fill a second-rate city, and yet it is scattered around a rocky shore so deeply indented by great bays, which again are fringed by so many long promontories, concealing deep coves, that its coast line probably exceeds 5,000 miles in actual length. To supply such an attenuated population with regular mails, and with the judicial machinery for settling their quarrels, involves unavoidably a great waste of force and money. But departments seem to be unduly multiplied. The Government owns and operates the domestic telegraph lines, not, however, through the post-office, but under a separate head.

The most glaring and, to the ordinary secular observer, the most unwarrantable dissipation of energy is in the denominational school system. It seems good to this little body of independent thinkers that religion be taught in their schools, and by religion they mean that peculiar system of theology which each prefers. The population is distributed theologically as follows:

Church of England (Episcopalian)	68,075
Church of England (Reformed)	467
Church of Rome	72,342
Methodist	52 672
Presbyterian	1,447
Congregational	782
Salvation Army	2,352
Baptists and others	37

These stanch sectarians are satisfied by the ministration of only 180 pastors, but, recognizing the importance of instilling pure theology into the infant mind, they pay, in great measure out of the public chest, 601 school-teachers. Looking down the list, we find, for instance, that Cat Harbor, with 30 inhabited houses, has 2 schools; Twillingate, with 587 inhabited houses, has no less than 8 schools, Little Burin, with only 60 inhabited houses, has 3 schools, and other as striking examples might be added to the list. Yet, despite this multiplication of schools, it would seem that 29,400 children under 15 years of age attend them against 37,559 absentees, though there are so few isolated inhabitants on the island that only 8,356 children live at more than one and a half miles from the nearest schoolhouses. If anywhere in the world, here sectarian education is reduced to an absurdity. In some of the smaller hamlets, the Presbyterians and Methodists combine their state contributions, and are able to pay a common teacher somewhat more than a starvation salary. But the Episcopalians and Romanists stand invariably and rigidly aloof from others and from one another. Three of the more numerous denominations even maintain separate institutions for the communication of higher learning and the inculcation of true doctrine.

But the school system is not the only anomaly in this charmingly anomalous island. It is hoped that the interior will be settled, if access to it be given by railroads. As it is, there are no long continuous thoroughfares or highways beyond a radius of sixty miles from St. John's. You may take the railroad car at the head of St. George's Bay on the west coast (now the end of the track, which will next summer be at Port au Basque, its terminus) and travel northwestward until you get a glimpse of the Gulf of St. Lawrence through the beautiful Bay of Islands; then across the island by the picturesque valleys of the Humber and Exploits, and over the weird wilderness of swamp and scrub known as the Great Barrens to the head of Morris Inlet, one of the arms of Notre Dame Bay; then southward through a scanty spruce forest, looking occasionally out on to the Atlantic between the rocky capes which, like magnificent buttresses, support the island, and prevent it from being engulfed by the angry Atlantic, until you reach St. John's. The railroad journey covers more than 500 miles, yet until you are within a few miles of the capital you do not see a graded or macadamized road. The surprise and wonder with which you at length greet one of the excellent highways which radiate from St. John's, if you have been some little time in the interior, must be akin to what a countryman feels when he comes unexpectedly and for the first time upon the iron tracks. This absence of roads had to be supplied, if the island was ever to be peopled. And as nowadays it is as cheap to build a poor railroad as a good highway, it was with reason that Sir William Whiteway, in 1878, proposed that the Legislature should subsidize a cross-country railroad in furtherance of a scheme conceived by Sandford Fleming of a combined rail and steamboat short route to Europe. Whatever force there may have been in the arguments of the promoters of this route, which would have involved at least five transfers before Liverpool could be reached, across Cape Breton, Newfoundland, and Ireland, from the American mainland, has been so weakened by the increased speed attained by the "ocean greyhounds" that now hardly any one can be found to reiterate them. However that may be, this impracticable proposal gave the first excuse for the successful impetus to railroad-building on the island. Since then it has progressed with varying rapidity under two different systems.

First, a contract was given to an American syndicate for the building of a medium-gauge road of three feet six inches (another anomaly), the consideration being an annual subsidy of $180,000 for thirty-eight years, and 5,000 acres of land per mile. The company failed after building so much of the road as entitled it to a subsidy of $45,000 a year. A receiver now runs this—the "Newfoundland Railroad." That plan failing, the Government tried its own hand at building, and constructed twenty-seven miles of road through the Peninsula of Avalon to the old French capital of Placentia. (The euphonious name, it may be remarked in passing, of this, the southeastern pendant of the island, is the only survival of the fantastic nomenclature adopted by Lord Baltimore.) But, after building twenty-seven miles, the Government reverted to the contract system, and advertised for tenders to build a road to almost encircle the island. The contract fell to Mr. R. G. Reid, who has nearly completed it, and has received the stipulated price of $15,600 per mile built. But the building of the road was a less serious embarrassment to the Government than the prospect of having to operate it when built. To relieve itself of this, the Government agreed with Mr. Reid that he should run two trains a week over the Placentia branch and his own road for ten years, for a consideration of 2,500,000 acres of land. The term of the contract has not yet half expired, but so appalling is the prospect of having to take over the railroad, even at that distant date, that it is rumored that the Government already contemplates a renewal of the contract—a suggestive warning to those who advocate state control of railroads without having to face the responsibilities of their management.

Such hesitation on the part of the Administration is not groundless, for Newfoundland railroads, to a degree without parallel even in our own progressive country, where so many a road has been built in advance of its traffic, are developers, which it is hoped and believed will successfully evoke from the blank surface of the island the latent image of prosperity. The interior is uninhabited, though enough good land to support a fairly large population has been rendered accessible by the road, which has already led to the opening of magnificent granite quarries. Moreover, it cuts through an extensive coal field, and passes over the same rocks in which valuable copper and iron ore deposits have been already developed, where Nature has exposed them on the face of the bare sea-cliffs. It is therefore not without good warranty that the colony is creating a three and a-half per cent. interest-bearing debt of some $10,000,000 in favor of railway construction.

Farming will never be prosperous in this northern clime unless to supply a large local mining or lumbering population. But it has been suggested that the island might be, considering its geographical position, advantageously turned into a great grazing ground for fattening cattle en route from the Northwest to Europe. It lies midway on the watery highway, and so near the shores of the consumer that lean cattle shipped on the Lakes might be landed on its shores in the spring; fattened on its nutritious, succulent grasses during the summer months; reshipped at no great increase of transportation cost, and transferred so speedily to the European market that the loss of weight would be trifling. Both Newfoundland and Cape Breton might thus perform, as the fattening pasture-ground for European shipments, the same service that Kansas and other of our prairie States do for the lean carcasses transferred to them from our Rocky Mountain cattle-rearing ranches.

These, or some such, stimuli must be given to maintain even the past industrial status of the island, in view of the waning prosperity of the fishing trade. That it is waning should excite no surprise. Four centuries of fishermen drew on the teeming shoals of cod without endeavoring to replace the drain. As long as hook and line were the instruments of capture, their natural prolificness maintained the supply, but since seines and traps have been introduced, a notable decline in the number and size of the fish has been remarked, and the fishing industry has correspondingly languished. To arrest the decay of this staple of the island's wealth, the Government has established hatcheries. Though the period within which the experiment has been under trial has been too short to determine the extent to which artificial propagation will not only supply the demand, but replace the deficiency, it is generally conceded that the number of small fish inshore has increased. Aside from artificial propagation, there are, it is true, stringent laws against the destruc-

tion of fish below a certain size, which, if stringently enforced, would check the evil; but it is especially difficult, for political reasons, to enforce obnoxious laws in a small community under representative institutions. Politicians cannot be expected to appraise codfish at a higher value than votes. For instance, an officer of the Fisheries Department instructed a magistrate in one of the bays on the east coast to institute proceedings against all who were using seines with a smaller mesh than the law prescribed. Without difficulty or delay, evidence was secured for some forty actions, involving some one hundred voters. But the effect of so many suits, incriminating a large proportion of the voting population of the district, would have had so serious an influence on the prospects of the party in power at the next election that the magistrate, like a prudent politician, before proceeding to extremities, referred the question to headquarters, and was advised to drop all the suits. One benefit of the French concurrent rights along the French shore is, that the French cruisers take a particular pleasure in summarily interfering with any infraction of the international agreement as to fishing methods and fishing rights.

The presence of these French cruisers watching English fishermen is only another of the many anomalies which make a trip to Newfoundland so novel and delightful. Still others are that outside of St. John's you never get a fresh fish to eat, though the island subsists upon their catch, and you never see a Newfoundland dog. As a counterbalance, though we visited the west coast, the east coast, and the interior, the landscape was never once concealed by fog. J. DOUGLAS.

WILLIAM MORRIS.

LONDON, October 6, 1896.

IT certainly seems, as Mr. Gosse wrote in the *St. James's Gazette* immediately after the death of William Morris, "as though the dying century were bent on sweeping its stage clear of all its greatest figures before it makes way for its successor." Perhaps one realizes this the more acutely now since there are few of its famous men it could so ill afford to spare as Morris. Of all the group of artists and poets with whom he must ever be identified, his is by far the most picturesque and striking personality, his the strongest influence. If Rossetti's name has come to be a symbol of picturesqueness, it is only for the elect. If Swinburne's long seclusion in this age of noisy advertisement has its element of romance, future generations will appreciate it more keenly than the present. But William Morris was a man ever before the public, known familiarly to the many as to the few; he was to be found always in the thick of the fight, commercial or political, literary or artistic. And once seen, once known, he was not easily forgotten. His personality impressed itself upon you whether, unbelieving, you listened to him preaching the poetry of socialism in the little, bare, whitewashed hall at Hammersmith, whether you watched him—a short, sturdy figure in blue—leading the socialist procession through the streets of London, or whether you sat under him, still unbelieving, in the lecture-room of the Arts and Crafts Society. You might disagree, you might disapprove; you could never remain unimpressed, unmoved. And there is as little question of the influence he exercised; if any vital Pre-Raphaelitism has survived, it is due to him rather than to the original Pre-Raphaelites themselves.

The strength of his personality exerted itself from the very beginning. He was somewhat younger than Rossetti—he was sixty two when he died—belonging, rather, to the generation of Burne-Jones, his friend and fellow-undergraduate at Oxford. But he had not left the university before he had become one of the most gallant and active champions of the special cause advocated by the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. It was he—for he first studied to be a painter—who, with Rossetti and others, decorated the Union, thus proclaiming the new gospel in the very stronghold of learning; an easy matter, however, where every new thing (in art, at least) good or bad, is accepted with equally rapturous applause. It was he who not only contributed to the *Oxford and Cambridge Magazine*, which aspired to be a second *Germ*, but financed it for a while, its chief prop and support. It is just here, I think, that one great reason of his strength and power is found. Morris was a rich man, the son of a prosperous merchant, really one of the class he despised. It was within his means to put to a practical test, to give definite form to many of the doctrines which Rossetti, Ford Madox Brown, and Burne-Jones could never have carried beyond the stage of theory. His capital, as well as their designs, was essential to the establishment of the house of Morris, Marshall, Faulkner & Co., which helped more to spread Pre-Raphaelite ideas than any work done single-handed in the studio. But for Morris, despite Faulkner, who also had some money, the chances are the firm would never have come into existence, and all the Victorian horrors of horse-hair and antimacassars and wax-flowers under glass cases might have lingered on to the very end of the century.

But do not let me be misunderstood. Money alone could have accomplished nothing; money, backed by good design, could have been productive of but little more. But Morris brought to the enterprise the still more splendid, the still more useful gifts of energy and enthusiasm and daring, tempered by honest commercial ability and sense, inherited from his merchant father. In a word, his was the talent for success, the genius for making things go, that rarely deserted him through life—never, one might say, except when the spirit of adventure and poetry led him to play the socialist.

As an artist I think it is likely that Morris will be remembered less for his own personal accomplishment than for the enormous influence which his position enabled him to extend from his immediate friends to the general public: first, through his shop, and, later, through the Arts and Crafts Society and his printing-press. He made, it is true, designs for wall-papers and carpets and embroideries. He was the fine colorist who converted Burne-Jones's weak black-and-white cartoons into gorgeous pieces of tapestry and glowing, jewel-like stained-glass windows. But the list of his designs might be longer than it is, and it would still be true that it was not so much in these that he displayed his originality (indeed, they were but so many examples of his sham mediævalism) as in the great revolution he worked in the decorative arts of England. If this meant merely that the few who could afford it adorned their houses with "Morris papers" and "Morris hangings" and "Morris chairs" (which, as a rule, were not "Morris chairs" at all), the gain would have been too small to prove worth recording; but he did much more than this. He set people thinking on the subject of decoration, he awakened them to the hideousness of the standards then accepted, he stimulated them to fresh efforts and new departures. His large and often wholesome influence reveals itself not exclusively in designs and furniture that bear the Morris stamp, but in decoration which he probably would have been the first to condemn, for no man was narrower in his artistic creed, and, though he might be responsible for an artist's escape from the yoke of the ugly, he was not therefore ready to accept that artist's idea of the beautiful. If the exhibitions of the Arts and Crafts Society hitherto have contained all to which he was willing to lend his approval, they have by no means exhausted the work that is as truly the outcome of his influence.

With the Kelmscott Press at Hammersmith it is the same as with the shop in Oxford Street. Attention has been called here too recently to the merits and faults of the books he printed for these to be criticised anew. They might be an improvement upon the old printers' work; it is not so certain that they could compete with the modern printer's accomplishment. And yet Morris, even before he had established the Kelmscott Press, from the time Reeves & Turner published his 'House of the Wolfings' (1889), roused printers and publishers and artists to a realization of the possible beauty of type and margins and spacing and title-pages, even as he had forced the public to prize beauty in furniture and all utensils in daily use.

It is too curious a fact to be ignored in any estimate or appreciation of William Morris as an artist, that, while he initiated so healthy a general reaction, his immediate influence was often unfortunately bad. Decorators who have based their style essentially upon his have been as apt to tumble into the pitfall of affected commonplace as the painters who have slavishly copied Rossetti. But it is, above all, in the decoration of books—for he was impatient of the term illustration—that his teaching and example have been most fatal. Surely, he could have no worse crime to answer for than the creation of the Birmingham School! The trouble was that he was for long one of the Examiners at South Kensington; and students, and, more important, masters paid by results, knew well that nothing had so good a chance, if any chance at all, as the drawing made with the Kelmscott book as a model. The result was that the younger generation of designers have all devoted themselves to the manufacture of the Morris border, the Morris initial, the Morris woodcut, not because their sympathies have lain in that direction, not because they have found therein the most natural method of expression, but simply because their object was to win prizes in the schools, and, afterwards, at the publisher's and bookseller's, to cater to a passing fad. A worse master, really, than Morris could not well be imagined, since in his books he was always the imitator, never the original man. And, moreover, no one could have been narrower and more prejudiced in the old standard thus revived. Good printing, good decoration, for him, ended with Albert Dürer, who was as dangerous a red rag to him as any modern illustrator. However, there is no doubt that Birmingham will pass away—it is passing now—and that the good effect of his propaganda will endure. Even as I write I hear that the Kelmscott Press will be stopped for ever: a monument, as it were, to the distinguished man who founded it. This is fortu-

nate. His books, interesting as the intelligent, if mistaken, experiment of an artist, will survive. The foolish phase to which they gave the initiative will come to an end, as Morris, of all men, would have had it cease. He reserved his approbation for work done in accordance with his teaching, but he also withheld it when that work was too successful a tribute. Before he died, had the law allowed it, he would have sought legal redress, it is said, against some of the too flagrant imitations in Boston and Chicago.

If I have spoken, so far, wholly of Morris as an artist, it is because I believe that it is as an artist his greatest work was done. Already, in the few days since his death, his English critics have not been slow to point out that his later achievement in verse never fulfilled the promise of 'The Defence of Guenevere.' Mr. Gosse, the most lavish in his praise, has likened the 'Earthly Paradise' to Spenser's 'Faerie Queene'; the chief point of resemblance is, I fancy, that few people have read either poem to the end. William Morris was too fluent, too facile. It may be wonderful that, writing so much, he wrote so well; but the pity is that, writing so well, his fluency gave him no chance to write still better. He has often been found fault with for his Wardour-Street English, and the reproach is not unwarranted. It is a question whether even the next generation will preserve a taste for such long-winded, consciously archaic stories as 'The Roots of the Mountains' and the 'House of the Wolfings.' But here again, were there but space, it would be interesting to trace his influence for good even when wrought by that work which contributes least to his own reputation.

On the other hand, as a Socialist, I think he will be more admired in the days to come than at the present moment. Now, one sees only the weakness and evils of the cause into which he threw himself heart and soul, only the conceit and silliness and self-advertisement of too many of his "comrades." And never by argument or eloquence could he make good his claim, for he was quite the most illogical and fanatical of speakers. But posterity will remember only the romance of his crusade, will see his political career only in the poetic light through which he himself saw it always. For, perhaps, he was never more the poet, never more the artist, than when he strode through the streets at the head of his weak-kneed, timid followers, when he thundered from his platform at the Hyde Park or Trafalgar Square demonstrations, when he argued with the rabble of Tower Hill or Edgeware Road. It was of art he was ever thinking in his long campaign against capital and commercialism. Change the social conditions, and art would flourish as it had never flourished before—that was his great doctrine. And so it was always in the cause of art he labored, even on that famous Sunday when he descended with the mob upon Westminster Abbey, and all London held its breath, fearing to see renewed in its midst the worst vandalism of the Paris Commune. It is natural that men who feared the follies and worse to which his fanaticism might lead could have no sympathy with his heroism. But in the history of the nineteenth century, yet to be written, he will figure as a very Savonarola among artists.

N. N.

RENÉE DE FRANCE.—II.

PARIS, October 7, 1896.

THE name of Olympia Morata figures among those which surround the memory of the Duchess of Ferrara. She had been admitted at the Duchess's court as a friend and a teacher of her young children. Olympia was born in Ferrara in 1526; she was an infant prodigy, and wrote with elegance in Latin and in Greek at the age of fifteen. She became at the age of thirteen the companion of Anne, the eldest daughter of the Duchess. Olympia espoused with great enthusiasm the ideas of the Reformation; she was allowed, nevertheless, to be a teacher and a companion of Lucretia and Eleonora, the younger daughters of the Duchess. The list of the books which were read in common by them, and which we find in the account-books of Ferrara, would astonish and perhaps frighten many advanced ladies of our time. Olympia was obliged to leave the Court to take care of her sick father in the country. Her absence was long; when she returned, Anne, her pupil, had left Italy to be married to Francis (son of Claude de Lorraine, Duke de Guise), the future conqueror of Calais, who was assassinated by Poltrot de Méré. Olympia, for reasons which have remained unknown, fell into disgrace, and was exiled from the court. It was probably because the Duchess had a new almoner, named Bolsec, who, once a monk, had turned Calvinist, then again Catholic (he returned later to the Calvinistic faith). Olympia had married a German named Grunthler; she left with him for Schweinfurt. The town was besieged and taken by assault; she fled with her husband, and arrived at Heidelberg, where she died at the age of twenty-nine.

The struggle had fairly begun in Ferrara between the partisans and the enemies of the Reformation. The new ideas were making rapid progress at the Court. Renée was more or less openly the centre of resistance to Rome; she was in correspondence with Calvin. The Duke was in constant perplexities, between his wife and the Pope, who urged him to persecute the heretics. The Duchess herself was often uncertain; she had not yet detached herself openly from the Roman religion. "So many excellent Catholics," says with truth M. Rodocanachi, "had fulminated against the Apostolic See, from Saint Bernard to Catherine of Siena, and had with acerbity demanded reform, that it probably still seemed to her that by helping those who were trying to correct the abuses she did not become a heretic. . . . The immediate or remote consequences of the movement in which she coöperated certainly escaped her mind. And who, even among the most enlightened apostles of the Reformation, could at the beginning foresee the importance of the changes which the Reformation was going to make in the world?" The chasm which divided the Duke and the Duchess was, however, widening every day. The Duke had become the instrument of the Holy See; Renée no longer heard mass, even on Christmas day, and spoke of the Catholic religion as an idolatry. In 1554 the Duke made a decree banishing from his states all persons suspected of favoring the Reformation. Several of the servants of the Duchess had to leave, and she confined herself to her retreat at Consandolo. Hercules did not allow his two unmarried daughters to remain with her; she became a prisoner in her palace.

An inquisitor was sent to Ferrara, and the Duchess had to appear before the tribunal of the Inquisition. She was condemned, it was said at the time, to perpetual imprisonment and the confiscation of her property, and taken, in secret, to an old castle which was to be her prison. For a week, Renée refused to go to mass and to receive the sacrament; on the 13th of September a change took place. It was said, though she was still shut up, that she had recovered her reason, that she was penitent, and there was no longer any talk of a trial or a condemnation. It is certain that on the 21st of September, after having seen the Duke, her husband, she saw a confessor and took the Communion. She was set at liberty and returned to Court. The Jesuits had conducted the whole affair, and Calvin, alarmed, wrote to his friend Farel: "I receive sad news from the Duchess of Ferrara: Vanquished by threats and by the fear of opprobrium, she has fallen. Constancy is rare among the princes of the world." And Olympia Morata wrote to a friend: "I have always told you that she was a light head." The forced conversion of Renée was not sincere, as the rest of her life showed; and her husband, contenting himself with appearances, knew this better than anybody. It was not long before the Duchess renewed her relations with Calvin and his followers. Calvin himself wrote to her "to arrange matters in her household so that the mouths of all the evil talkers should be shut." The persecution of the Protestants became very severe in Italy after the accession of Paul IV. The Inquisition, well organized, had been introduced into all the cities; under the hand of Caraffa, the Church, armed by the Council of Trent with a stronger law and a more rigid organization, became very militant. If there were fewer victims of the persecution in Italy than in Spain, it was merely because the apostles of the Reformation in Italy almost all chose exile rather than martyrdom.

Duke Hercules died in October, 1558, after a short illness. Renée assumed the Regency, as her son was at the time at the Court of France; on his return she resolved to go back to her native country and to establish herself in her château of Montargis. She found herself, on revisiting France, in a very delicate situation. All her sympathies were on the Protestant side; her daughter Anne was the wife of the Duke de Guise, the head of the Catholic party. Her house at Montargis, situated on the high-road which unites the valley of the Loire with the valley of the Seine, was in a strategic position which was of great importance in the civil wars. The castle, placed on an eminence which dominates the great plain of the Gâtinais, the forest of Montargis, and the River Loire, passed for impregnable (the Revolution destroyed the old fortress, of which there are hardly any vestiges left). Renée's first care was to repair the fortifications; her subjects were ardent and very intolerant Catholics, always ready to rebel. She begged Calvin to send her a minister, which he did; but though the Duchess asked this minister, Morel, "to make short sermons, without speaking of the Pope, of the images, or even of any other abuse," he quarrelled almost immediately with the inhabitants of Montargis.

Fortunately for the Duchess, the cause of the Huguenots was apparently in the ascendant; the Court seemed won over to the new ideas. Renée was invited to go to Saint-Germain, and to wait there for the result of the theological negotiation which bears in history the name of the "Colloquy of Poissy." Unfortunately the "massacre" of Vassy forced all swords out of their scabbards. Fifteen days after this massacre, the Duke de Guise, who was the head of the Catholic party, made an almost royal entry into Paris; a civil war began all over the kingdom, and Renée retired to Montargis, where she received many

Protestant refugees from Nemours, Blois, Tours, even Paris. D'Aubigné tells in his Memoirs how, having left Paris with his tutor (he was then a mere child), he was made prisoner by the Catholics, but, succeeding in escaping with his tutor, took refuge with the Duchess of Ferrara. "She made me sit down by her on a cushion," says he, "over three hours, to hear my infant speeches on contempt of death (I was then twelve years old), and then, having kept me for three days, she had me sent to Gien with all the company."

The castle at one time held as many as six hundred refugees. Renée's retreat was a kind of oasis in the troubled times of the wars of religion, which continued so long with short interruptions. The treaties of peace signed from time to time between the two parties were mere truces. At the beginning of the wars, the Duke de Guise, who had command of the royal troops, wished to take possession of Montargis. He sent his wife Anne to her mother, and threatened, in the name of the King, to have her shut up in a convent if she did not dismiss the Protestant refugees Anne, the Duchess of Guise, had no aversion to the Protestants; she was suspected of a certain leniency toward those who looked upon her mother as a Providence. The Duchess stood by her rights, but she could not as easily defend herself against her Catholic subjects as against her own daughter. The little town of Montargis and the castle, filled with the retainers of the Duchess, were violently hostile to each other. So it was in many places in France: the battles fought by the Catholic and Huguenot armies were fought again, on a smaller scale, in a number of provinces and cities. The feelings of the Duchess in those troubled times can easily be imagined. When her son-in-law was assassinated on the 18th of January, 1563, before the walls of Orléans, which he was besieging, there was a great feeling of relief among the Protestants: Orléans was saved and their greatest enemy had fallen; but, as Morel wrote to Calvin: "The Duchess is full of affection for our brethren and of sympathy for their sufferings, but she cannot help wishing well to her son in-law, on account of her daughter." And in another letter: "It is, for her, a painful trial, as zeal for the religion of Christ is at war with the affections of the flesh."

The Edict of Amboise, which was signed at the end of the first civil war, was favorable to the nobility; they were allowed to celebrate Protestant services in their castles. Renée tried, after the peace, to effect a reconciliation between the Guises and the Châtillons, but she could not obtain much from the Guises, who accused Coligny of complicity in the murder of the late Duke.

"Antoinette de Bourbon," says De Thou, "the mother of the defunct, a woman respectable for her conduct and her modesty, marched at the head of the family, and, near her, Anne of Este, the widow of the Duke, both in long black gowns; they were followed by the children of the Duke and by their ladies, who filled the air with their moanings. The relatives, the connections, the friends in mourning dresses, ended the lugubrious procession. Arriving before the King, they all fell on their knees. The King bade them rise and promised to look after the affair, but postponed judgment till a more favorable time."

The vengeance of the Guises really took place on the fatal night of St. Bartholomew, when the unjustly accused Coligny was assassinated in his bed by the orders of the new Duke de Guise. The Duchess of Ferrara had been invited to go to Paris for the wedding of the King of Navarre and of Marguerite, the King's sister. She arrived there on the 12th of August, in company with the King of Navarre and a number of Protestant noblemen. She could not stop at her daughter's house, but received the hospitality of an old friend who lived in the neighborhood of Notre Dame. She could not, thanks to the distance from the Louvre, witness the horrible scenes which occurred on the night of the 24th of August in the palace of the King and in its neighborhood. As soon as the gates of Paris were reopened, she left the capital, which had become a scene of carnage. She had to accept an escort from her grandson, the Duke de Guise, the assassin of Coligny. She went as rapidly as she could to Montargis. She had succeeded in taking with her among her servants a few Protestants, who owed their lives to her. Her terror was such that for a time she ceased to try to evangelize the town of Montargis, as she had done before. She was ardently urged by her daughter and by Queen Catherine to make a public profession of Catholicism, but she resisted these entreaties. None of her children had followed her way: her son Alphonse was an ardent and intolerant Catholic; her son Luigi was a cardinal of the Roman Church; Anne, her eldest daughter, was bound to the Guise interest; her two other daughters had become almost strangers to her.

She died, after a short illness, at Montargis, on the 15th of June, 1575. She had, it may be said, a double funeral—one according to her own instructions, a second which was celebrated according to the instructions of the Duke of Ferrara a few days later. Her will, which is very detailed, is given in M. Rodocanachi's work. He gives also, *in extenso*, a spiritual will which she wrote at Montargis, and which shows exactly what her spiritual views were. This document leaves no doubt of her fervent attachment to the doctrines in which she had been bred, which had been expounded to her by Calvin, Beza, and others, and to which she had been faithful amid so many trials.

Correspondence.

"REDEMPTION" MONEY BEFORE AND AFTER "THE CRIME OF '73."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The advocates of the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 complain that there is a great scarcity of "redemption" money in the United States. They say that the suspension of the coinage of silver dollars in 1873 (called demonetization) "struck down" one-half of the redemption money of this people, and that all our financial ills are attributable to that fact.

The reports of the Director of the United States Mint contain some interesting information about "redemption" money which the silver party will find it worth while to think about.

In 1873 our stock of gold was estimated at	$128,889,864
Silver dollars coined up to 1873	8,031,238
Fractional silver coined up to 1853	76,784,964
Total "redemption" money in 1873	$213,156,066

Prior to 1853, fractional silver was of full weight and unrestricted legal tender. It was therefore just as good "redemption" money as the silver dollar. In that year fractional silver coins were reduced in weight and their legal-tender quality was restricted to sums of $5 (now $10), and they thus became subsidiary coins, but this legislation did not affect fractional silver coined prior to 1853. As a matter of fact, none of the fractional silver coins were in circulation in 1853, but let us give the silver party the benefit of the doubt, and assume that they were and constituted a part of our stock of "redemption" money and were "struck down" when the dollars were.

From 1873 to 1896 gold "redemption" money was coined to the amount of	$997,076,991
Stock of gold and silver "redemption" money in 1873	213,156,066
Increase (about 368 per cent.)	$783,920,925

All of the gold coined since 1873 was not, however, in circulation in 1896.

On July 1, 1896, the Director of the Mint estimated our gold stock at	$500,100,000
Stock of gold and silver in 1873	213,156,066
Increase (about 181 per cent.)	$286,943,934
Population in 1896	71,990,000
Population in 1873	41,677,000
Increase (about 71 per cent.)	29,713,000
"Redemption" money per capita in 1896	$8 40
"Redemption" money per capita in 1873	5 10

An increase since 1873 of 181 per cent. in our stock of "redemption" money, as compared with an increase of 71 per cent. in population, does not appear to indicate that our people are suffering from the scarcity of "redemption" money to any appreciable extent.

Respectfully yours,

Clayton Harrington.

Dallas, Texas, October 12, 1896.

THE BLAND BILL AND THE FALL IN SILVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the many articles and speeches on the silver question, there is one phase which it seems to me has not had the consideration it deserves. I refer to the immense stimulus given to the production of silver in this and other countries by the silver-purchasing clauses of the Bland-Allison and the Sherman acts, which stimulus must have operated to attract an immense amount of capital to the industry of silver-mining and smelting, and by the laws of competition greatly reduced the cost of production. What an immense encouragement the acts referred to must have proved, can best be imagined by stopping to consider the effect on the production of any other metal or manufactured article should the Government be compelled by law to purchase at market prices each month stated quantities of such products, amounting to from 21 to 28 per cent. of the entire world's production. Of course, the first effect of such legislation would be to advance prices, then to attract much new capital, which, with the added business energy and inventive genius it would bring to bear, would soon greatly lower the cost of production, and finally the price, unless the demand increased proportionately or the price was artificially maintained.

Has not this been just the history of the fall in the cost of production of silver in the last twenty years, and does not this account for the fact that the cost of the production of silver has fallen more rapidly than that of any other metal or commodity? I venture to say that no Government ever attempted by "bounty" or "protective tariff" to give such a "bonus" to the production of anything as was given by our Government to the producers of silver, and it seems to me these immense purchases of silver did far more to increase the production of silver and reduce its cost and value than if the principle of the unlimited coinage of silver on a 16-to-1 ratio had been

adopted in 1878, when the Bland-Allison Act was passed. FREDERIC A. DELANO.

CHICAGO, 1933 INDIANA AVENUE, October 11, 1896.

THE SILVER NUISANCE IN CANADA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The experience of Canada with our silver during the civil war affords an illustration of the Gresham law which, at the present time, it is worth noting and remembering.

During and after the war, silver always stood on the American exchanges at a discount below gold which varied from day to day, sometimes reaching 5 per cent. and over. Prior to the war, American silver had circulated freely in Canada as change, and was on a par with gold and Canadian banknotes. When, however, it could be bought at a discount, it became the exclusive currency of Canada, driving out gold and banknotes as effectually as the greenbacks had driven it out of this country. All the current transactions of life were effected in silver. The shopkeepers stuck up notices that silver would not be accepted except at a discount, yet never refused it at par. Wages were invariably settled in it. Every one who had money to pay went to the broker, gave his gold check, pocketed the discount, and paid his bill with silver at its face value. The banks kept with their customers a silver account and a gold account. It was aptly called "the silver nuisance," and was worse than a nuisance, for every merchant's stock in trade varied in value from day to day. As it was, the small traders were the heaviest sufferers, but, had the nuisance continued long, they would have covered themselves by raising the price of their goods, and the real sufferers would then have been the wage-earners.

Effort after effort was made to buy up the silver and export it, but it flowed back as quickly as it was shovelled out. The evil was at last remedied by a curious manœuvre of Sir John McDonald's Finance Minister, Sir Francis Hincks. He issued a proclamation that, after a certain date, the American quarter was to be received for only twenty cents, and the half-dollar for only forty cents, or far below their intrinsic value. Of course every one laughed at the proclamation and at Sir Francis's presumption in supposing that his fiat would alter the actual value of anything, still less of money. But, on the Sunday before the proclamation came into force, it was read from the pulpit of every Roman Catholic parish church in the Province of Quebec, and therefore, when the day came round, there was not a market-woman or a small French trader who would take a quarter or a half-dollar except at the value named. When a large section of the people refused to accept the silver, save at its real value, it disappeared from circulation as spontaneously as it had entered. JAMES DOUGLAS.

FREE SILVER A MEANS, NOT AN END.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Doubtless many people have felt the need of a laboratory method for the investigation of the motives at the basis of the free-silver agitation. As the nearest practicable approach to this method, I have been conversing quite freely with a large number of advocates of that cause, and have sought to find from each individual just what his reasons were for espousing it. One of the most radical of these men, after having spent a number of hours in my study, acknowledged that he could not see that free silver was going to do any good; but he insisted that "The People" were in this contest against the "Moneyed Classes," and he wanted to see "The People" score a victory even if it did cost them something. Others made similar statements, and all seemed to be prompted by similar motives, except one who had a mortgage on his farm, and who said boldly that he wanted cheap dollars with which to pay it off.

The result of these observations has been to confirm me in the opinion that, with the exception of those interested in the silver market and a very few dishonest debtors, the advocates of free silver do not care a fig for it in and of itself. Class antagonism, hostility to the wealthy classes, is the basis of the agitation, and the silver question is hit upon simply as a convenient issue. In certain colleges one may sometimes see two bodies of students struggling violently over a harmless cane. To an observer who was not initiated into the mysteries of student sentiment, it might appear that the cane was an object of tremendous importance; but, as a matter of fact, the students care nothing for it on its own account. Class rivalry is the cause of the "scrap," and, for certain traditional reasons, a cane is a convenient thing to "scrap" over. It furnishes an issue just as the silver question does in the present campaign.

Any one who will take the trouble to acquaint himself with the feelings and sentiments of the less enlightened classes, whether rural or urban, will find that there is a vast deal of hostility toward the wealthy classes. The question is not whether this feeling is justified or not—no one will defend it—but the question is, what are the wealthy classes going to do about it? There may be no serious danger in ignoring it, but it is at least an element of unsafety. So long as it remains it will be a potential factor for evil. When the silver craze dies out, some other and equally dangerous movement will set in to take its place, to disturb industry, and unsettle society. The interests of the wealthy are endangered by the existence of this sentiment, and, what is more to the point, this sentiment will be removed only by the action of those against whom it is directed. T. N. CARVER.

OBERLIN, O., October 16, 1896.

HUMBUG FROM CANTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have seen it stated that the present tariff (miscalled the Wilson bill) is, on the average, only 4 per cent. lower than the McKinley tariff; is this statement correct? If it be true, what are we to think of the following words of Mr. McKinley, addressed to a delegation from West Virginia, reported in the New York *Tribune* of October 12?

"Is it not true that partial free trade has injured us one and all? Is it not true that partial free trade has injured every interest and every industry in West Virginia? Have not the people and the Government grown steadily poorer under its destructive operations? Have not both producer and consumer been injured? The Southern, in common with all the other States, steadily advanced under the protective system."

Can any sensible and honest man call a tariff higher than any the Republicans ever cared to demand, or dared to demand before the advent of Mr. McKinley, "partial free trade"? And what are we to think of the narrow partisanship, the mental and moral capacity, of the man capable of such an utterance? Is it not a bugle call to all real advocates of freer trade to vote for Palmer and Buckner, following the sound advice of Thomas F. Bayard, who means to die a Democrat (like his illustrious namesake) "*sans peur et sans reproche*"?

W. ALLEN JOHNSON.

MIDDLETOWN, CONN., October 18, 1896.

CHAUCER AND ITALY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The argument for fixing the beginning of Chaucer's Italian period at the time of his first journey to Italy is based on his own statement, in the Prologue to the 'Clerk's Tale,' that he

"Lerned [the tale of Griselda] at Padowe of a worthy clerk,
. . . . . .
Fraunceys Petrark,"

together with the confirmatory evidence that Chaucer was in Italy on the King's business for some months during the year 1372-3. This business was with the Duke and certain merchants of Genoa, but we know that Chaucer visited Florence also on this occasion, whence he might easily have gone on to Padua, where Petrarch was then living, in the suburb of Arquà. It is a most natural inference that the young English poet visited the old Italian one when he came into his neighborhood. They were both courtiers, both diplomatists, both stylists in literature; Chaucer had just entered upon the stupendous task, which he performed so well and with such apparent ease, of creating a style in English where none had before existed, while Petrarch was the greatest living stylist, the most distinguished man of letters in Europe. I am disposed to lay stress on Petrarch's attraction for Chaucer on the score of style, because it seems to me additional proof, if any is needed, of the actual meeting of the two poets. Chaucer goes right on here in his Prologue to say,

"the laureate poete,
Hight this clerk, whos rethoryke sweete
Enlumined al Italille of poetrye."

Further, Petrarch's letter to Boccaccio, which serves as the preface to his version of the tale of Griselda, "De obedientia et fide uxoria mythologia," is dated June 8, 1373. At the time of the supposed visit, therefore, Petrarch must either have been about completing his version, or just through with it. With the tale fresh in mind, he must have told it to his visitor, especially since he has given us his word that, even before the idea of turning the story into Latin occurred to him, he was so pleased with it that he committed it to memory for the express purpose of repeating it to his friends. We learn also from Petrarch that, although he had only recently read the 'Decameron,' in 1373, he had heard this particular tale "many years" (*multos annos*) before. Petit de Julleville thinks that Petrarch must have known it from some early French *fabliau*. It is a well-known fact that the tale of Patient Grisel ('Decameron,' x. 10) was far and away the most popular Decameron story in mediæval literature. Legrand d'Aussy mentions upwards of twenty translations of it that he had seen in the French prose of the fourteenth century, in such collections as the 'Miroir des Dames' or the 'Exemples de Bonnes et Mauvaises Femmes.' So popular was the story that a secular mystery play, *Le Mystère de Griselidis*, unique of its kind, was represented

in Paris towards the end of the fourteenth century.

It is not at all improbable that Chaucer was also familiar with the story in some crude French form. He had served in the French wars, he was widely read in French literature, and he was a lover of good stories, on the alert for good ones. Suppose Chaucer did know the story, suppose he had been attracted by it as a promising subject, and then had heard it from the lips of Petrarch. Fancy what an impression it would have made on him! He would of course have wanted Petrarch's literary version, and Petrarch would of course have given it to him at parting. That Chaucer had Petrarch's Latin version before him as he wrote and translated is evident from the MSS., and it is difficult to see how he came by it, except from Petrarch or through Petrarch. Prof. Skeat's conclusion is, that the closeness of the translation and the test of metre both argue that the 'Clerk's Tale' was written soon after the first Italian journey, either in 1373 or early in 1374, as indeed would be the natural order of things. Line 29 of the Prologue to the 'Clerk's Tale,'

"He is *now* deed and nayled in his cheste,"

suggests that Petrarch was still living when Chaucer first wrote the tale. (Petrarch died at Arquà, July 18, 1374.)

Finally, Skeat ('The Works of Geoffrey Chaucer,' vol. i., pp. xxiv, xxv) cites the account from Dec. 1, 1372, to May 23, 1373, that Prof. Mather quotes, but he does not infer from it that Chaucer returned to England on the last date mentioned in the Foreign Accounts roll. Nor does he say that the additional moneys were paid "on his return to England." He says they were paid Feb. 4, 1374, two and a half months after Chaucer is known to have been in England from the fact that on Nov. 22, 1373, he drew his pension in person.

MARY AUGUSTA SCOTT.

BALTIMORE, October 18, 1896.

Notes.

DODD, MEAD & CO. will publish a 'Comprehensive Index to Universal Prose Fiction,' by Zella Allen Dixson, A.M., Librarian of the University of Chicago. It is described as "an arrangement into an alphabetical list of all works of fiction, in all languages, which are founded upon facts—historical, physical, psychological, or moral"—in other words, "novels with a purpose," and no others. It will embrace more than 10,000 entries. They also announce 'The Cure of Souls,' by Ian Maclaren (Rev. John Watson), being his Lyman Beecher lectures on Preaching recently delivered at Yale University.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready 'Impressions and Experiences,' by W. D. Howells.

"The Sportsman's Library" projected by Edward Arnold, under the editorship of Sir Herbert Maxwell, will be issued at the rate of two or three volumes a year, and will consist of the best works of past writers on sport, with facsimile and other illustrations.

The Macmillan Co. will shortly issue 'The Castles of England, their Story and Structure,' by Sir James Mackenzie, Bart.; and in connection with Bohn's publishers will begin a new edition of Swift's prose works, with a biographical and critical introduction by Mr. Lecky, and a complete bibliography of Swift's writings by Temple Scott.

Longmans, Green & Co. are to undertake "a series of books on the practical workings of the functions of the state and society, with especial reference to American conditions and experience," and hence entitled the "American Citizen Series." It will be under the editorial direction of Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard University. The volumes already in preparation are 'Financial History of the United States,' by Prof. Francis R. Dewey of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; 'American Foreign Policy: Diplomacy and International Law,' by Prof. John B. Moore of Columbia; 'History of Political Parties in the United States,' by Prof. Anson D. Morse of Amherst; 'Elements of Political Economy,' by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia; 'Outline of Practical Sociology,' by Carroll D. Wright; 'Actual Government, as applied under American Conditions,' by Dr. Hart. The same firm will begin their "Harvard Historical Studies" with 'The Suppression of the African Slave Trade to the United States of America, 1638-1870,' by William E. Burghardt Du Bois, a colored graduate of Harvard, a student also at the University of Berlin, Professor of Latin at Wilberforce University, Ohio, etc. Mr. Du Bois is a native of Massachusetts.

'The Story of Canada,' by the Hon. J. G. Bourinot, and 'The Story of the Balkan States,' by W. Miller, will be the two next volumes in the "Story of the Nations Series" of the Messrs. Putnam.

'Kallirrhoe,' a dramatic poem by Philip Becker Goetz, is in the press of the Peter Paul Book Co., Buffalo.

Ginn & Co., Boston, announce for the present month a 'Laboratory Manual of Inorganic Chemistry,' by R. P. Williams.

The first part of a 'List of Private Libraries,' compiled by G. Hedeler, Leipzig, is to be ready in December, and will include more than 500 important collections in the United States and Canada. The accounts of the number of volumes and special features for the most part proceed from the owners themselves, and are conveniently condensed in an alphabetical arrangement. A subject-index will satisfy curiosity as to the whereabouts of special collections. The second part of this useful series will deal with the private libraries of Great Britain.

The epithets "superb," "marvellous," and "stupendous" bestowed on a series of 253 designs by Bartolomeo Pinelli, which were executed in Rome some seventy years ago, would not occur to us in connection with them, but their admirers in Italy, on their being brought to light three years ago, formed a committee of publication and intrusted Count Angelo de Gubernatis with the descriptive text. The result was an *édition de luxe* entitled 'Illustrated Mythology,' the letter-press in five languages, viz., Italian, German, French, Spanish, and English (Rome: G. Maussier & F. O. Maruca). But as the Greek myths appeal to a much wider audience than could afford to purchase such a work, the publishers have proposed a wider circulation for these sepia drawings, and are now soliciting subscriptions for any one of the five sets. The designs are at least interesting and scholarly.

The Dutch publishing-house of Loman & Funk, at The Hague, is publishing an authorized version, by Dr. D. C. Nijhoff, of Miss Ruth Putnam's 'Life of William of Orange.' Miss Putnam has just been admitted to membership in the Society of Netherlands Literature at Leyden, which dates from 1778, and is the first foreigner of her sex thus to be honored.

The student of the history of modern Italy cannot afford to ignore the voluminous 'Storia Critica del Risorgimento Italiano,' by Carlo Tivaroni (Turin: Roux, Frassati & Co.), the first six volumes of which bring the story down to 1849. The most recent volume, the first of a new series devoted to "L'Italia degli Italiani," covers the period from 1849 to 1859. Sig. Tivaroni is as dry and charmless as a legal document; but, like the latter, he sets forth plain facts, and by giving, in addition, references to material newly uncovered, he is, in a certain degree, indispensable. Works like his, which have their counterparts in all languages, especially in the German, suggest that the time may come when the distinction between historians and historical hodmen will at last be frankly recognized, and that the latter, instead of dumping together pieces of historical material with comments of their own, will collect and print *verbatim* all the material bearing on any event, and leave the writing of history to historians—men, that is, endowed with the faculty of selection, of arrangement, of proportion, and with corresponding literary skill. The current notion that any one who heaps up a sufficiently ponderous mass of citations from "original sources" is a historian, degrades a calling which has been, next to that of the poet, the highest in literature.

A translation, with illustrations, by Emily J. Harding, of 'Fairy Tales of the Slav Peasants and Herdsmen,' from the French of Alex. Chodsko, comes to us from Dodd, Mead & Co. (London: Geo. Allen). One very interesting feature about this collection is the classification of the tales, so far as possible, into groups which present several versions of the same story. In no case are the versions sufficiently similar to be wearisome, while the variations are instructive to the students of such lore. Under the caption "The Abode of the Gods," for example, we find three stories: The Two Brothers; Time and the Kings of the Elements; and the Twelve Months. There is a family resemblance between many of those which are unclassified, and between the entire collection and the numerous tales from Slavic sources which have appeared in divers previous volumes, published during the past few years. As a rule such tales are better when translated directly from the originals. In this case, however, very little, if anything, seems to have been lost by filtration through the French, and the rendering is unusually lively and elegant. The illustrations are a delightful addition. As for the contents, since the children of the present day (not to mention their elders) are not much given to taking their reading-lessons very seriously, the glorification of the customary trinity, Luck, Love, Laziness, may not be productive of any detrimental results.

Miss Marie A. Molineux, Ph.D., has followed an excellent plan in compiling 'A Phrase-Book from the Poetic and Dramatic Works of Robert Browning' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Unlike the editors of some other phrase-books we have seen, she has succeeded in selecting and arranging her material in such a way that the student, if he remembers any significant word in a quotation, can readily find it in her volume. Besides nearly 300 pages of phrases, she adds an index of more than 200 double-column pages of the significant words not elsewhere noted. Thus the book will be invaluable, not merely for any one who wishes to find or verify a phrase, but also to the critic and the philological student of Browning. One need read only a few pages of the first part at random to discover, better perhaps than by reading many of the poems consecutively, the

quality of Browning's thoughts, and his skill in shaping them. These are the very bricks with which he builds his structures; how do they stand the test of comparison with similar detached thoughts and phrases of Shakspere and Milton, of Pope, Byron, Wordsworth, and Tennyson, the English poets who occupy the chief place in Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations'? Likewise, a study of the Index of Words reveals the range of Browning's vocabulary. Here we recognize his habit of coining new words or of reviving old ones; his power of suffusing commonplace expressions with a glow of imagination; his fondness for the harsh, the outlandish, the bizarre. We cannot enter into details further than to point out his predilection for compound words, which, as Coleridge long ago remarked, run counter to the genius of our language. "Pig-of-lead-like," "pity-worth," "safe-return-price," "sister-turned-mother," "skull-and-cross-bones-banner," are specimens of what we mean. The volume is well planned to form a companion to the Riverside Browning.

The Historical Sketches of Staff and Line of the Army, which appeared originally in the *Journal of the Military Service Institution*, have been collected and republished under the general title of 'The Army of the United States,' edited by Brig.-Gen. Rodenbough and Major Haskin (New York: Maynard, Merrill & Co.). The history of each staff department, of the Corps of Engineers, the Signal Corps, and of each regiment has been broadly sketched by a chosen historian from its own numbers. These historical sketches are now brought together by the editors in a closely printed octavo of 740 pages, illustrated by portraits of the generals-in-chief from Washington downward. The work is, of course, confined to the organizations of the regular army, and will be a valuable book of permanent use for reference to the history of the units of staff and line which compose the army.

The officers at the Fort Leavenworth Army School have added two useful books to the list which has already been brought out by them. In the International Military Series edited by Capt. Wagner, Lieut. Reichmann (Ninth United States Infantry) gives a good translation of Von Trotha's 'Tactical Studies on the Battles around Plevna' in the Russian-Turkish war; a work recognized as an authority in Europe, and one which criticises the handling of the troops on both sides with judicial frankness. Lieut. Dickman (Third United States Cavalry) has published in smaller form Baron von der Goltz's 'Conduct of War' in a pleasing idiomatic rendering into English. The original has the merit which has given a just reputation to the author—a perfectly clear and simple presentation of matters commonly thought to be complicated and abstruse. No treatise so small as this is more successful in giving the principles of military conduct in an intelligible form. It can be understood by any one of ordinary education, and is entirely trustworthy as being an accepted exposition of the subject according to the most recent lights. The translator deserves credit for the good quality of his work. Both volumes are published by the Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Company, Kansas City, Mo.

Another book dealing with military incident, if not with military science, is Archibald Forbes's 'Camps, Quarters, and Casual Places' (Macmillan). Mr. Forbes has brought together about a score of papers contributed by him to reviews and magazines, and nearly all of them gain permanent value from the way in which his large experience and observation of warlike events and of leading officers and statesmen tell upon his judgment of historical events. To have known the actors in a great campaign closely enough to judge of their personal quality, is so great an advantage for one who is a keen observer of human character that, when he has also the author's literary power, his papers have an authentic trustworthiness and interest quite beyond the common. In this way Mr. Forbes's "Version of Balaclava," "The Cawnpore of To-day," "Bismarck before and during the Franco-German War," etc., become something more than casual contributions to current literature, attractive as they would be in that view alone. They are lasting contributions to historical criticism.

The 'Student's Lyell,' a manual of elementary geology, edited by Prof. J. W. Judd of the Royal College of Science (London), although published in the Student's Series by Harper & Brothers, New York, is so essentially a British text-book that it hardly needs a review for schools or colleges in this country. If English readers of the *Nation* desire our opinion of it, we must regret not to be able to accord it high praise. The backward arrangement of the stratified series from the newest to the oldest rocks is as awkward in geology as it would be in any other essentially historical study. The chapters on the successive formations are so largely given over to palæontology that they are of little service to the average student of geology. Even for the British Isles, which are treated in much detail, it is impossible to gather a clear idea of geological progress. The great unconformity of the New Red on the Palæozoic rocks, so vastly important in England, is passed over as lightly as the minor unconformity of the Cretaceous on the earlier Mesozoic. As a whole, the treatment is too serious and technical for the general reader or the ordinary student; and for the advanced student the work is not so well elaborated as Geikie's admirable text-book. Here, as in other examples that might be named, it does not seem useful to furbish up a famous old text-book in the belief that it will make a good new one.

In a brief paper on "The Growth of the French Canadian Race in America," lately published by the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Mr. John Davidson of the University of New Brunswick presents some interesting statistics tending to confirm Malthus's well-known theory of the law of increase of population. The practical isolation of the French in Canada, the reliable data obtainable for a period of some two hundred and fifty years, and the prevalence of conditions of life "at least as favorable as in any other land," not only make it possible to ascertain with great accuracy the rate of natural increase, but also, in Mr. Davidson's opinion, render that rate especially fit to be taken as a standard by which to test Malthus's theory. The sum of his inquiry is that from 1765 to 1890-'91 the French Canadian population doubled every twenty-seven years, or in but two years more than the period taken by Malthus as his "standard." As for the general opinion that the French Canadians are multiplying much more rapidly than the rest of the population, statistics show that only in the census year 1891 does the average size of families in the Province of Quebec exceed the average for all Canada, and even this is offset by a decline in the Canadian average from 5.8 in 1881 to 5.2 in 1891. The extremely high birth-rate is counterbalanced by extraordinary infant mortality, so that "after the first year the proportion living at any given age varies little from the proportion among other Canadians." The application of Malthus's "checks" in this connection would be an interesting topic for further investigation.

The American Economic Association has recently added to its publications a series of economic "Studies," which are addressed to the general reader quite as much as to the special student of political economy. We notice among the last two numbers a compact history of the "Populist Movement," by Dr. F. L. McVey, and a translation, at the hands of Dr. John Cummings, of an address on the "Present Position of Bimetallism," by Prof. Lexis of Göttingen. Prof. Lexis is as competent an authority on monetary questions as can be found among the Germans, and his review of the present position of bimetallism in the world at large is an admirable example of lucid and impartial statement. Among its more elaborate publications the Association has recently issued Mr. Hoffman's "Race Traits and Tendencies of the American Negro," and we may also mention Prof. Irving Fisher's monograph on "Appreciation and Interest," in which that writer undertakes to show that a decline in prices brings with it a fall in the rate of interest, tending to offset any loss to the debtor from lowered prices. We are glad to take note of the activity of the Association, which is established solely to promote the advance of economic knowledge. Its secretary, Prof. J. W. Jenks, Ithaca, N. Y., will be glad to receive applications for membership.

A correspondent of the London *Times* calls attention to the progress made by the Madras Government in the arrangement and publication of its early records. Among recent finds is a file of old Dutch papers which throw further light on the struggle between the Dutch and the English for the control of India. The printing of the Consultation Books, or official diaries of the Government, for the seventeenth century, several volumes of which have already appeared, is to be continued. Another important discovery is the complete manuscript, in seventeen volumes, of the journal of Runga Pillay, the confidential agent of Dupleix while the latter was at the head of French affairs in India. Pillay has been called the Indian Pepys, and his journal, first made known in 1846, forms a minute record of the struggle between the French and the English, from 1742 to 1754, for the possession of the Carnatic. The original is in Tamil, but an English translation is nearly completed, and will be edited, with an historical introduction, by Mr. Forrest, the Director of Records to the Government of India. The Madras Government is also likely to aid the publication of a new edition of the Abbé Dubois's 'Customs, Institutions, and Ceremonies of the Hindus,' for nearly a century one of the great authorities on the condition of southern India just before the British ascendency. An English version appeared in 1817, and the original French in 1825. Dubois, however, thoroughly revised and largely rewrote his work, and the complete manuscript, of which there is a copy in the India Office, has lately been found among the records of the Madras Secretariat.

We note the conclusion, in the September-October number of the *Revue Historique*, of Mr. C. H. Firth's descriptive bibliography, begun in the previous issue, of publications between 1885 and 1895 relating to the history of England in the seventeenth century. The two articles form a valuable supplement to

existing bibliographies, and should prove especially useful to teachers.

At the moment when a report, however incredible, is in circulation of the disappearance of Robinson Crusoe's island, Mr. Henry F. Waters lays his hand on the original will of Alexander Selkirk, and publishes it in the current (October) issue of the *New England Genealogical and Historical Journal*. It is dated December 12, 1720, and was proved by his remarried wife December 5, 1723. The will was not unknown to John Howell, Selkirk's biographer, in 1829. Mr. Waters's regular "Genealogical Gleanings" are remarkable for the number of connections established between this and the other side of the Atlantic, as Allyn and Allen, Cade, Meriam, Shotton, Cole, Needham, Fuller, Barney, and Hardy. Mr. Worthington C. Ford continues his Jefferson and Callender correspondence, getting Callender into Richmond jail for sedition, at the time of Gabriel's rising—one of the most famous of the slave insurrections. Callender tells of the trial and the hanging in batches of the conspirators, and cites the acquittal of one Baptist preacher, George, "the property of a Billy Burton," as evidence of the working of "a very humane law," by which no negro could be condemned in Virginia to capital punishment unless the judges were unanimous. The real motive of the law was to prevent any reckless destruction of "property," as appears from Callender's reporting that George's master swore to an alibi for George at the trial, but "soon after the tryal was over began to recollect himself, and acknowledged that his *alibi* was founded upon a mistake."

The first number of the fourth volume of President Stanley Hall's *Pedagogical Seminary* (Worcester, Mass.: J. H. Orpha) possesses unusual interest for all who concern themselves with the new "child study," which derives its chief impulse from Clark University. A Fellow of this university, E. W. Bohannon, presents types of peculiar and exceptional children drawn from a very extensive collection of condensed biographies. The array is on the whole somewhat saddening, but the relator's "interpretation of data" is to the effect that "advantageous traits are inherited more than twice as frequently as disadvantageous ones," and that the larger proportion of the worst abnormalities are of non-American (racial) origin. There is a curious "Test of Memory in School Children," by John C. Shaw, and a "Study of Children's Drawings in the Early Years," by Herman T. Lukens, with facsimile illustrations; one series showing a given child's evolution in drawing. The young artist of four years who commented on his own cat, "Only one ear—can't see the other," had never heard of his predecessor with the three-legged cat in Viollet-le-Duc's 'Learning to Draw.' Finally, Miss Sara E. Wiltse contributes a striking preliminary sketch of the extent and nature of child study on scientific lines in this country during the year ending September, 1896.

The "International Congress of Women," which held its sessions in Berlin during the last week in September, was attended by nearly 1,300 delegates from various parts of the world, and among them one young lady from Armenia, Margaret Melik-Beglaryanz, M.D., who gave a most interesting account of the condition of women in her native land and the efforts to promote their higher education. There were representatives from nearly every nation of Europe and from the United States, who read reports on the progress of the movement in their respective countries. The speeches were limited to fifteen minutes, and among those who took part in the debates were several lawyers, a still larger number of doctors of medicine, and one eloquent divine. The discussions embraced a wide range of topics and were admirably conducted. The new civil code of the German Empire was sharply and justly criticised, especially for the degrading position in which it places married women, and the applause with which these strictures were received indicated a general concurrence of public opinion with these views. Altogether it was one of the most attractive and successful of the many "congresses" that have met in Europe during the past summer. The spacious Festsaal of the Rathhaus was constantly crowded, and hundreds sought admission in vain. After the first two days no more tickets were issued, except in rare cases to foreigners who had come from a distance on purpose to attend the meetings.

The fiftieth anniversary of the discovery (first sight) of the planet Neptune by the German astronomer J. G. Galle was celebrated on September 23, on which occasion he received the congratulations of the "International Astronomical Society" then in session at Bamberg, and of the "Association of German Naturalists and Physicians" assembled in Frankfort. The Director of the Berlin Observatory, Prof. Encke, having made the most complete map of the stars then in existence, it was to him that Leverrier wrote requesting him to turn his telescope to a certain point in the heavens determined by his calculations on the disturbance of Uranus. The letter arrived in Berlin on September 23, 1846, and on the same evening Encke's first assistant, Dr. Galle, pointed the telescope in the prescribed direction. One of the first stars that entered the field of vision was the unknown planet. The observation was repeated on the following night, and the planetary character of the new star fully ascertained. Dr. Galle, now in the eighty fifth year of his age, has been Professor of Astronomy and Director of the Observatory in Breslau since 1851.

—The Smithsonian Institution has just issued Special Bulletin No. 3, which continues Capt. Charles Bendire's 'Life Histories of North American Birds.' The handsome quarto bears date of 1895, having been delayed more than a year in passing through the Government Printing-Office; but wrong dates of official publications are unfortunately too common to excite surprise. The former volume of this work, which appeared in 1892, treated of the raptorial, gallinaceous, and columbine birds; the present one contains the psittacine and picarian groups, the non oscine *Passeres*, and the corvine and icterine families of *Passeres*. The work may be regarded as resuming the oölogical investigations which were conducted by the Smithsonian in former years, but which broke down after the appearance in 1857 of vol. i. of a 'North American Oölogy,' by the late Dr. T. M. Brewer. Meanwhile the collection has been enormously increased, and it is now by far the best one in existence, whether we regard its extent or the exceptionally excellent manner in which the specimens are preserved. The colored lithographic plates which illustrate both of Capt. Bendire's volumes, drawn by Mr. John L. Ridgway and engraved by the Ketterlinus Company of Philadelphia, are the best of the kind ever produced in this country, and compare favorably with the finest results attained in England in the representation of this notoriously difficult class of objects. The text, as far as it goes, is the outcome of nearly lifelong studies on the part of the author, both in the field and in the cabinet, supplemented by the results of correspondence with many other investigators. It is elaborately descriptive of the breeding habits, as well as of the nests and eggs themselves; and further notable for the precision with which geographical distribution in general, and the breeding range in particular, have been worked out. But as data in such cases have usually been published as soon as secured, in the *Auk* or elsewhere, the present somewhat belated work represents rather the diffusion of knowledge in conveniently accessible form than its actual increase; and the ease with which the author stands first among American oölogists is offset to some extent by the evident laboriousness of his application to literary pursuits. We also regret to note a number of typographical infelicities.

—A report on the recent explorations made at Copan, Honduras, was made public last month and will no doubt attract the attention of archæologists as well as of scientists in general. Though most of these remarkable ruins are under ground, the earliest description which we have of them (by the *oïdor* D. de Palacio, 1576) has ever since maintained the interest in them; systematic explorations were made by Stephens and Catherwood, and recently by Alfred P. Maudsley of England (1885). The Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology at Harvard University sent its first expedition to the ruins in October, 1891, having intrusted it to the charge of M. H. Saville and John G. Owens, then assistants of the curator, Prof. F. W. Putnam. Three further expeditions had to be sent to the spot, for the work of surveying and digging was much more considerable than could have been foreseen. Mr. Owens, who directed the second expedition, succumbed to a malarial attack in February, 1893; Mr. Maudsley was placed in charge of the third, and Mr. Gordon of the fourth expedition. Explorations were possible only during the winter months, from December to June. The ruins lie at an altitude of about 2,000 feet above sea level, twelve miles south of the Guatemala boundary, in a dry, hilly section along Copan River. They all belong to a prehistoric period, and the carelessness of the natives has contributed largely to their destruction. They are grouped with great regularity around squares or central *plazas*, and appear as pyramidal and oblong mounds, as temples with stairways leading up to them, as pyramids, tombs, underground walls, vaults, and other structures of the most varied description. Walls are built up of square-cut blocks of rock, and ornamented with sculptures somewhat ruder than those discovered on the north coast of Yucatan. Plaster coatings in different colors were intended for embellishment. The monoliths, or four-sided stelas, show sculptures of human or divine beings, and in front of each is a disk-shaped "altar," standing on four supports resembling the feet of a quadruped. Many of the structures are connected by carefully laid pavements; the vaults and doorways prove that the native architects were still far remote from the invention of the round or keystone arch, for the blocks are left square at their edges. The images intended to represent animals and men all exhibit the same grotesque appearance as they do in other remains of the Maya coun-

tries. The statue of the "singing girl" on Plate ix. is expressive of character in her features, and critics may even find in it an attempt at portraiture from life. The photographs accompanying this report represent the objects taken from their most instructive side in a manner that makes us wish for more. In fact, the field explored is but a small part of what will be found and described in future years, for the ruins extend further for nine miles up along the shores of Copan River. The present report, though full of information, purports to be "preliminary" only; it forms vol. i., No. 1 of "Memoirs of the Peabody Museum," the special title being: "Prehistoric Ruins of Copan, Honduras."

—One of the most important and least known of the great collections of books in Europe is the Imperial Public Library of St. Petersburg, which, according to a recently published report, contains more than a million printed volumes, over 30,000 manuscripts, several hundred cases (*theca*) of autographs, and some 80,000 drawings and engravings. The nucleus of the library was the famous collection of books and manuscripts made by the Polish ecclesiastic and bibliographer Count Zaluski, who generously placed these treasures, numbering in all 298,000 titles, in a separate building at Warsaw for the public use, and on his death as Bishop of Kiev, in 1774, left them as a "bequest to the Polish people." After the defeat of Kosciuszko and the third partition of Poland in 1795, they were seized and confiscated by Russia as heir to the property of the Polish Republic (lately deceased), and brought to St. Petersburg. Owing to carelessness or official corruption, 30,000 works, many of them of rare value, disappeared during the transfer. Early in the present century the library was greatly enriched by the addition of the collection made by Dubrowski in Paris during the French Revolution, and containing historical documents acquired at the destruction of the Bastille and manuscripts of inestimable worth from the abbeys of St. Germain-des-Près, St. Maur, and other cloisters plundered by the sans-culottes. Then came the spoils of new confiscations in Poland after the suppression of the revolt of 1830, among which were the library of a scientific society in Warsaw, with more than 2,000 manuscripts belonging originally to old Polish churches and cloisters, and the library of the Jesuit College in Polotzk. The latter, instead of being put in its proper place, was stowed away in a building connected with the Ministry of the Interior, where it was entirely destroyed by fire in 1862. In 1817, Froloff's collection, rich in Russian incunabula, was purchased; this was followed in 1830 by T. Tolstoi's collection of Slavic manuscripts from the 11th century, in 1848 by Kasterin's collection of Slavic printed works, and in 1852 by Pogodin's collection of some 2,000 manuscripts relating to the history of jurisprudence in the 13th century. Other acquisitions have proceeded from successive suppressions of Russian churches and cloisters suspected of sympathy with the See of Rome. The unique character of the Oriental department is due, in a large measure, to Asiatic conquests, and especially to the subjugation of Turkestan by Gen. Kaufmann. Among the incunabula are several that are to be found only here, as, *e. g.*, a missal printed in 1483 by Scheffer in Mainz. We may add that there are more than 5,000 Aldine and Elzevir editions. Unfortunately the arrangement and administration of the library have not kept pace with modern progress in bibliographical and bibliothecal science, and seriously impair its usefulness. On September 13 the corner-stone of a new reading-room was laid. The building is to be three stories high, fireproof, and provided with electric lights and the latest improvements in ventilation and sanitation. It is to be hoped that this edifice will be the starting point for a thorough reformation of the present management of the library.

—The Norwegian lexicographer and poet Ivar Aasen, who died on September 23, at the age of eighty three years, was a son of poor peasants. He had not the means nor the time to get a university education, yet though, at the age of eighteen years, he commenced life as an itinerant village teacher, by persevering study, combined with eminent philological talent, he acquired a learning and scientific method which render his works, chief among them his 'Grammar' and 'Dictionary of the Norwegian Popular Language' (1848–1850), called in the second edition of 1864–1873 'Norwegian Grammar' and 'Norwegian Dictionary,' models of philological authorship. By these works he opened up an entirely new territory to the student of the Germanic languages, and showed that the Norwegian language, which in the Middle Ages had been the richest and most cultivated of the Scandinavian languages, was not dead, but still existed, if not as a literary language, on the lips of the people. Aasen's scientific work has gained the unanimous praise of the nation and of every student of Germanic philology. But he was something more than a scientist; he was a reformer. He thought the Norwegian language, the language that he had found living among the people in the valleys and on the hillsides, was good enough to obtain official recognition, and ought in due time to replace the Danish language that had come to be considered the linguistic medium of culture and refinement. So he constructed a kind of normal speech, a general denominator of the different popular dialects, which he wanted to raise to the dignity of a literary language. He himself wrote several dramatic pieces in this language, and some poems which rank among the best modern Norwegian lyrics, and some of which have come to be national songs, hardly second in popularity to Björnson's magnificent poems, sung with feeling and enthusiasm even by those who detest the language in which they are written. Although Aasen, by his advocacy of this linguistic reform, became a sign to be spoken against, he was nevertheless one of the chief factors in the modern Norwegian national development, and the national importance of his work received public acknowledgment by his being granted for the last forty-five years a stipend from the State.

—Very significant is it, to criticlings on the other side of the Atlantic, that so many Americans are found to write *worshiped*, *traveler*, and *hocusing*, for instance. To them, in default of philological inquiry, spellings like these are simply tokens of conceited ignorance. For the enlightenment of such persons, Mr. Alfred Erlebach contributes to the issue of the *Leisure Hour* for October an exhaustive monograph. Taking his stand on analogy, he there formulates, with respect to vocables not compound, the following rule: "A word of two syllables ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, before the addition of such suffixes as *-ed*, *-er*, *-ing*, *-y*, doubles the final consonant only when the accent is on the last syllable of the word, *not otherwise*." That, in the case of certain words of recent introduction, Englishmen manifest an inclination to conform to this general rule is shown by quotations from authors of repute, for *caucusing*, *faceted*, and *focusing*. *Gallopped* and *gossipped*, oddly enough, never had existence; and *biased* is no longer looked upon as peculiar. To pass to longer words than those above referred to, we have always had *paralleled* and *unparalleled*, analogous to which are Dr. Webster's *unequaled* and *imperiled*. It is farther made out, with much besides, that one does well in electing *bayoneted*, *carbureted*, *coroneted*, and *diagramed*, as orthographical. *Handicapped*, *kidnapped*, etc., their bases being composite, are, however, recommended for continued approval. In passing, as to *kidnapped*, *-ing*, *-er*, though Dr. Webster so spelled, his editors strangely strike out their second *p*. Why, then, should they have hesitated at *horsewhiped*? Mr. Erlebach, it is observable, following the advice which has recently emanated from a high quarter, practically favors *disyllabls*, in place of the unetymological *dissyllable*, which seems to have been imitated from the French *dissyllabe*.

PALMER MEMORIALS.—I.

Memorials. Part I. Family and Personal. 1766–1865. By Roundell Palmer, Earl of Selborne. Macmillan. 1896.

FEW casual observers of Roundell Palmer's career would have suspected him of an intention to write his own life. If one were to select a man of autobiographical propensity from among the chancellors of the present century, he would choose Lord Brougham or Lord Westbury. Fancy delights to portray them engaged in the task of telling posterity their deeds, their opinions, and their enmities. Either of them had enough assurance for anything. The Earl of Selborne differed in character and instinct from these his eminent predecessors on the woolsack. Combativeness and the spirit of self-glorification were remote from his disposition. He had interests outside of and above the strife of the law courts. Even parliamentary distinction was less than what he prized most. He did his work and won his honors under the promptings of ambition, but always under the restraints of a natural, unaffected piety. Besides being thrice Lord Chancellor, he was a Sunday-school teacher and the editor of the 'Book of Praise.'

The motives which led the Earl of Selborne to describe at length the events of his life are intelligible and sufficient. He belonged to an unusual family, he had reached unusual eminence, and he had a strong historic sense of the value of family records. He wrote primarily for his children. "In the evenings of the summer of 1885," says one of his daughters in the preface, "my father and I were much alone, my mother having died in April of that year; and he then told me more than I had before known of his own father and his early life; and when we went to Siena the following August, I asked him to write these recollections that we might possess them." Fortunately for this suggestion, Lord Selborne had long been accumulating family documents. "I have never kept journals or diaries or any other record of my private thoughts and meditations, but I have a very vivid memory of the earlier part of my life, and it has been my habit to preserve such letters and papers as I thought of permanent interest, whether relating to family or to public

affairs." While the narrative thus originated was intended first for family eyes, it was also intended for publication as a posthumous work, and every manner of change or deletion has been avoided in conformity with the author's express wish. A passage of the preface vouches for the integrity of the text. "There is much of so intimate and personal a nature that it would not have been given to the world but for loyalty to his known intent and desire in regard to these memorials." The two volumes now published are but an instalment of the whole work. They constitute the first part and are presumably to be followed by at least two more volumes, which will bring down the history of the Palmers and of Lord Selborne to a point some twenty-five years later than 1865, the terminal date of Part I.

Lord Selborne was almost a Hebrew in the strength of his family affection, and these memorials owe their marked unity to his feeling of reverence towards his ancestors and of love towards the members of his own home circle. We state this fact at the outset because an appearance of complexity might seem to be inevitable where so many biographical sketches are given. These digressions do not leave upon the mind the idea of a mixed performance, but serve, rather, to emphasize the continuity and sacredness of the family stem throughout successive generations. Of domestic annals between the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when his paternal ancestry first becomes known, and the marriage of his grandfather, William Palmer, with Mary Horsley in 1766, Lord Selborne has little to say. William Palmer was a prosperous merchant of the City of London. His wife was a sister of Samuel Horsley, Bishop of Rochester, an editor of Newton's works, and secretary of the Royal Society. Five of their six sons went to Charterhouse. There were also three daughters. Lord Selborne's father, William Jocelyn Palmer, went to Oxford, entered the Church, and became rector of adjoining parishes in the diocese of Rochester: Finmere and Mixbury. Two of the sons entered the service of the East India Company, one entered the navy, one entered his father's business, and the sixth became a barrister. The names of Lord Selborne's uncles and aunts and of their children are often on his tongue. Thomas Palmer of the Indian service and Edward Palmer of the navy receive notice in separate chapters. We cannot pause even to mention Lord Selborne's more distant relatives, bound though he was to them by ties of attachment and intimacy. They are too numerous and the main theme of the autobiography is too full of matter. But his father and his eldest brother refuse to be put lightly aside. Standing in the foreground of the canvas, they demand some notice before we pass to the author himself.

William Jocelyn Palmer must have been as near an approach to the poor parson of Chaucer's Prologue as can be reached by a modern clergyman of the Church of England who marries and has a large family:

"I have heard some people speak as if the care of a few hundred souls were insufficient employment for the zeal and energy of a clergyman of mark. My father did not think so. There was no position in the church which he could not (in my belief) have worthily filled, which he might not have ennobled and adorned. But what God had charged him with was the care of those five or six hundred poor people at Mixbury and Finmere, for whom there was no one else to care, among whom there was no praise to be won, no ambition to be gratified. He was content with this and sought for nothing more."

This passage is an epitome of Lord Selborne's character sketch of his father; and many quotations from long, considerate, inspiring letters show that his children were but the dearest members of his flock. His pride at their academic and professional success was great but not immoderate. He knew how to give good counsel without becoming officious. He remained while he lived the patriarchal centre of his family, and when, thirty-five years after his father's death, Lord Selborne dedicated these sketches to his children, he could say: "Of all the characters and influences here commemorated, that which it has been most a labor of love to me to delineate is your grandfather's; and if, in what you learn concerning him, you find the main interest of this work, I shall be rewarded."

Mention of Lord Selborne's eldest brother, William, brings us to one of the most striking features of the present work, its theological aspect. The Palmers were not only religious, they were theological. William Palmer, a man of strong personality and conscientiousness, left the Anglican Church and went over to Rome. He had been in sympathy with Newman for many years before his conversion, but the final step was delayed till 1855. Here he is presented in his domestic relations and with much fulness in his relations with the Greek Church. A self-constituted envoy of the Church of England, with no further credentials than a letter from Dr. Routh, President of Magdalen College, Oxford, he set out to determine whether he could be admitted to the Greek communion without formally abjuring the Church of England. He was resident in Russia for considerable periods, and a record of his first visit remains in 'Notes of a Visit to the Russian Church in the Years 1840–1841,' which was published by Cardinal Newman in 1882. William Palmer, though he failed in his object and became involved in a singular controversy, had good opportunities of examining the Eastern Church and of meeting its chief dignitaries. Lord Selborne, by drawing copiously upon his correspondence, leaves a distinct impression of character, and throws some side light upon Tractarian aspiration in the early forties.

Reared by such a father, influenced by such a brother, and surrounded on every side by a religious atmosphere, Roundell Palmer was compelled to take a stand either for or against Christianity in its Anglican form. We exclude indifference, because he was of a temperament too serious and scrupulous to admit that alternative. We are following the whole drift of this autobiography when we place religious matters first in Lord Selborne's heart and mind. Indeed, he fixes upon a certain religious experience as the crisis of his life:

"About this time I was approaching a crisis of mental suffering such as I had not before experienced and I have happily never since known. I needed disappointment and mortification to complete the discipline necessary for my soul's health, and on St. Matthew's Day, 1845, it came. I knelt alone on that day in a corner of a country church remote from my home, and offered prayers, which it pleased God, though not without a passage as through fire, to accept and prosper. Then it was that the want, in my particular case, of that medicine which our Church has provided for those overburdened souls who cannot quiet their own consciences, was brought home to me. The priest to whom I had recourse was a friend, whose opinion of me had always been better than I deserved, and to whom it was therefore a special humiliation to go. He administered to me, very lovingly, the consolation and counsel which his office entitled him to give; and I went away feeling like Christian in the 'Pilgrim's Progress' when the intolerable burden had fallen from his back, relieved from my spiritual trouble, and in some degree strengthened to bear the temporal cross which I had still to endure."

When writing in the above strain, Lord Selborne undoubtedly refers to a final act of self-conquest, for his letters conclusively show that in every year of his life, from boyhood on, he recognized the call of religious duty. 1845 was the year of Newman's secession and a time of heart-searching among all Oxford men of Palmer's generation.

ARETINO.

L'Italie du XVI. Siècle: L'Arétin. Par Pierre Gauthiez. Paris: Hachette et Cie. 8vo, pp. 488.

In April, 1492, the birth of a little girl, the descendant of kings, was welcomed in the French castle of Angoulême; in the same month of the same year a little Italian boy saw the light in a small two-story house in a narrow street of Arezzo. The little princess became a Queen, Queen Margaret of Navarre, and the little Aretine became *the* Aretine, Pietro Aretino. Conspicuous figures in their own day, they personify opposite sides of their times, and this not the less because of the strong individuality of their respective characters. Queen Margaret represents the high aspirations and generosities of the Renaissance, Aretino its audacities and degrading triumphs; and in the Queen's mysticism and the parvenu's insolence may be found a reflex action of the passions, the powerful wills and the mean motives that on every side were battling confusedly for the right and for the wrong. But the conditions in France and in Italy during the sixteenth century were so unlike that the Renaissance resembled a great orange tree bearing flowers and fruit at the same moment. Italy was ripe, almost beginning to decay, while France was still blossoming; and Aretino seems as if he had lived a generation later, or many generations later, than Queen Margaret. In some respects he is the contemporary of Voltaire, of Beaumarchais.

The critic Ginguené said, a hundred years ago, "Aretino is often spoken of, he is much despised, he is little known"; this is still true. An adequate Life of him has never been written. It would seem an easy and interesting piece of work to accomplish, for no man ever had more open or more picturesque relations with other men, and some mention of every person of importance in his day might be included in his story. But it has not been done. M. Gauthiez has not done it, but has written a volume about him which, though injured by a lack of familiarity with the Italian language, has enough ability and enough scholarship to dishearten any one else from taking up the subject for some time to come. But M. Gauthiez is confessedly an adorer of the "primitives"; his last page is a sigh of relief at escaping from Aretino's company and returning to that of Dante and St. Francis, and he is not to be blamed if his aversion to the personage he is portraying is felt in every page. Rather he is to be praised that it does not induce positive injustice, and his justice is marked in his treatment of one point, the gross licentiousness for which Aretino's name is almost a synonym. Aretino has been made one of the world's scapegoats for this sin. He was scarcely more guilty than such contemporaries as Firenzuolo, and Alessandro Picco-

lomini, professor of moral philosophy at Padua, who died an archbishop; and revolting and entirely unreadable at the present day as some of his writings are, their indecencies are the reflection of the manners, at that time, of the papal court. M. Gauthiez points out that there were not lacking, among "the great," voluntary and pleased recipients of his worst offences in print against morals. Two hundred years later the French academician La Monnoye thought it well to translate them into Latin distichs. Within a few weeks M. Brunetière has remarked that "the Elzevirs printed no obscene books, with the exception of the Ragionamenti of Aretino in 1660, and no defamatory libels." This may be regarded as some indication of the estimate Aretino's works were held in by men of that date. It is to be remembered, also, that disgraceful writings were falsely ascribed to Aretino during his life and after his death. A singular mistake made by M. Gauthiez is an illustration of how easily, without ill-will, unfortunate falsities may take shape. He refers to Aretino as "l'homme dont on parlait jusque chez le Grand Turc, mieux encore, à qui l'on envoyait . . . une Turque belle et de prix." The letter he refers to as his authority reads: "Il Caorlino . . . mandavi una turchese bella e di prezzo"—a fine *turquoise!* A similar mistranslation, as entirely erroneous as this, and suggesting a still more serious charge, may be found on p. 160, accompanied by a sentence of contemptuous comment.

If M. Gauthiez's insight and capacity were as marked as his rectitude, his book would be more valuable than it is. It is not a vigorous presentation of Aretino's character, and gives no clear interpretation of his career, no sufficient explanation of his extraordinary position. It is therefore possible that a sketch—the slightest of sketches—may suggest some things wanting in this carefully executed portrait. First, it may be observed, Aretino was a "parvenu"; he was the greatest of that class the world has ever seen. Far more truly than he was *the* Aretino, he was *the* Parvenu, the illustration of the name. Moreover, he attained this height by a path peculiar to himself, original with him. M. Gauthiez speaks of him as "a true journalist." He was more than that; his letters—critical, satirical, eulogistic, ironical, written in *lingua volgare*, sometimes "editorials," sometimes "chroniques"—circulated everywhere, and were the organ, the sole organ, of interprovincial, international public speech. He invented the most powerful of modern instruments, he wielded its power, and in so doing he created himself—an incarnation of "the Press."

He was no wiser, he attained no greater heights, no nobler depths, than the English Thunderer—the thunderers everywhere—of to-day; but he alone then thundered and lightened over all Europe. He alone was "the Scourge of Princes," as he was styled by Ariosto. He was more venal than his successors, but he did not invent venality, and it did not die with him. And his venality, even his blackmailing, was often only "business"; it might even be called legitimate business. His rightful revenues, the earnings of his industrious and vigorous pen, came not from subscribers to his letters (as in later days with Grimm, the polite correspondent), but from donations from those to whom they were of service. Titian's pictures were often paid for by gifts of jewels and offices. Aretino never asked for the emoluments of public honors, but he gladly accepted gold in every shape (Erasmus did also)—wrought in splendid chains or cups or finger-rings, or not so treated—and he more gladly accepted beautiful pictures, statues, bronzes, medals, brocades, game, and fruit and wines. If these were not sent him on time, he dunned for them as for a bad debt, and threatened the delinquent. He sincerely felt they were *due* him. But he gave as freely as he received. He was not like a robber baron descending from his fastness, with his armed followers, to snatch indiscriminate booty; he was the Robin Hood of literature, though he had no troop at his back. He took from the rich to give to the poor. He was the Scourge of Princes, but he was the protector of artists, and his protection was graced by a skilled appreciation that ennobled his praise. In the fantastic phraseology of the day, he declared "avarice to be the tomb of the virtues, and liberality the funeral-urn of the vices," and he practised what he preached. His Venetian palace was as a great bazaar, in which the only bare room was the one in which he worked; the things that made it beautiful one day were gone the next; and from his possessions he sent splendid gifts to his "patrons," a Raphael to one, a Titian to another, a Sansovino bas-relief to a third, or a drawing by Moretto, mirrors of Eastern crystal, wonderful poignards and exquisite intagli. At the portals of the palace, as at the gates of a convent, was perpetual alms-giving. To his friends he was generous of better things, and with ardor and without stint he used his time and talents for them.

But he had larger virtues than those of liberality and friendship. He possessed, he had acquired by his own strength, intellectual virtues that are noteworthy in any age. Not only did he "dare to stem tyrannic pride," not only did he cast scorn on "the unco guid," but, before Burns, he knew and he declared

> "The rank is but the guinea stamp,
> The man's the gowd for a' that."

"True nobility," he cries, "derives from the spirit; the nobility of blood is of bastard birth." "Don't quarrel, my dear son," he writes to a friend, "with those who affirm that I am of low birth. For I claim the honor of having been born of mean parentage . . . and of being able to bestow nobility, although I myself have never received it." As Montaigne in his own person found a type of humanity, so Aretino in his own person found a type of the individual; and he proclaimed the rights of the individual, and won his cause. The individual—working the press—became the master of princes, kings, emperors, popes, and simulated the huge figure of Democracy. "I am a charlatan and no philosopher," he shouts in his strident tones; "my bag is full of things of no weight or value—audacities, coaxings, lies, tricks, odds and ends," while he might well have added to himself, with a meaning headshake, "If, like the sword of Brennus, I cast my bag into the balance, *Væ victis!*"

But the impression that all men in power were his enemies, and that the tributes to him were those of fear only, is an erroneous one. In saying just now that he had no one at his back, all that we meant was that he employed no paid "spadassins"; he was supported and sustained by a large body of the most remarkable men of his age. Setting aside the group of his distinguished artist friends, voices from every quarter applauded him and encouraged him. He published two volumes of letters written to him which do him honor, and this honor is secured by the fact M. Gauthiez vouches for, that the published letters correspond accurately with those still remaining in manuscript. The many writers of these letters have few points in common save their high regard for the recipient of them. The signatures range from that of Giovanni delle Bande Nere, the great condottiere (of whose death-bed in 1526 one of Aretino's own letters is an admirable and moving description) to that of the Countess Veronica Gambara of Correggio, whose pure and pious days of courtly widowhood resembled, as did her studious girlhood, the life of her friend Vittoria Colonna. There are nine letters from her to Aretino, extending over four years, full of "the affection I feel and shall always feel for your great worth and for your virtues, unparalleled in these days." The Marchioness Pescara herself is represented in the collection by a civil postscript to a letter of her famous husband's famous kinsman Alphonso d'Avalos, Marquis del Vasto, whose own letters are numerous and all full of friendship. A letter from the great Constable of France, Anne de Montmorency, the greatest name of all, is addressed to the "Signor Aretino, he who makes known men's virtues and vices." Guicciardini, the future historian, writes of "the deserts of your virtue," and signs himself "as a brother"; and Michelangelo says, "I am much pleased at receiving your letter," and again, "I beg you to write to me," adding, "Kings and Emperors hold it as a high favor to be named by your pen."

The endless list of his friends, of those who befriended him, opens, naturally, in his youth, with the Medici, Leo X., and Cardinal Giulio (afterwards Clement VII.), and then comes the Duke of Mantua, to whom he was introduced by the delightful gentleman Baldassar Castiglione. In 1527 he went to Venice, and there, little known at first, he soon made himself so welcome to the highest personages of the city—the Doge Andrea Gritti, the great statesman, at their head—and he soon became so ardent a lover of the beautiful city itself, its waters and its skies (which he often depicts with charming enthusiasm), that for the remaining thirty years of his life it was his abiding-place. The King of France might offer him hospitality, Henry VIII. might invite him to England; but, barring a short excursion he made stirrup to stirrup with the Emperor, he would never quit Venice, save five or six months he spent in Rome in 1533, when Julius II., in full conclave, kissed him—a resounding kiss!—and a visit to Urbino in 1550, when he escorted his daughter to her husband's home, and was received by a body of cavalry eight thousand strong, sent by the Duke to meet him, and the city illuminated in his honor.

Such a man was not a mere scoundrel; his name does not deserve infamy only. His personal example may have done little or no good, public or private, but his vices were not unfamiliar to men. What was new was the power and width of his influence, and it has never been asserted that this influence was exerted in bad causes. In truth, it was not "causes" that interested Aretino; he was moved as a writer by irritation against "the upper classes," by indignation at the undeserved privileges of "the great." It was no sacred love of freedom of speech, it was the anger of an unjust man at the sight of injustice. But a ducal envoy could say: "We who spend our days in princes' service, and every courtier also, and other men too, know that if we are considered, and our deserts recognized by our masters, it is thanks to the castigations they have received from Pietro's pen." "Pietro" himself declared he deserved

some little glory "because I have thrust truths into the presence and the very ears of the great, to the shame of flattery and falsehood." And Antonio da Leyva, Charles the Fifth's great general, said that Aretino was more useful to the world than all the pulpit preachers, for they instructed the common people only, while he directed princes. Such contemporaneous judgments have been in his case too much disregarded.

One name is not to be found among his friends—that of the Queen of Navarre. She and he were not "contemporaries" in any true sense, as has been already said, and they were not leagues but worlds apart. A translation of one of his religious works (of which there are several) was dedicated to her; she paid him no compliment in return. "I have never received anything from her, and I can hope for nothing," he writes. That sentence is perhaps his true verdict.

Travel and Talk, 1895-93-95. By the Rev. H. R. Haweis, M.A., author of 'Music and Morals,' etc., etc. 2 vols. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896.

Mr. Haweis's contribution to the literature of international appreciation is not the least remarkable of many such. It is a monument to the good-nature of the American public and to its impartial generosity in its treatment of the gentlemen and scholars, on the one hand, and the adventurers and confidence men, on the other, who come over here to do a little lecturing. It affords fresh evidence of the absurdity of international comparisons based on individual peculiarities. "Broadly speaking," as Mr. Haweis himself remarks, "cultivated people are much the same everywhere." Even people who have had the best advantages differ more among themselves than the well-mannered of England and America differ from each other. It is greatly to be hoped that no American abroad has abused the privileges of hospitality more liberally than Mr. Haweis has done. What will the Bishop of Tasmania think and say when he sees in print the astonishing letter which he wrote to Mr. Haweis only last year? It wasn't a nice letter for a bishop to write, but that Mr. Haweis should publish it is passing strange—or would be if, before reaching vol. ii., p. 169, we had not ceased to be surprised at anything that Mr. Haweis might say or do. See vol. i., pp. 97-102, where he describes at length the peculiarities of a lady whose husband's name he prints in small capitals as one of three great Americans and his distinguished friend. See vol. i., pp. 103-6, where the wife of a New York college president is ridiculed for her too assiduous hospitality to a clergyman whom she had mistaken for a gentleman. Both of these ladies are dead, and Mr. Haweis is entitled to such excuse as there is in that; but should not the survivors have been considered, and his own prospects of future hospitality? He complains that on one of his later arrivals in this country no one met him at the wharf. If his book should be generally read, he might at his next coming find a crowd upon the wharf to meet him and wish him a speedy return.

He admits that his impressions of travel are "snap-shotty." How could they be otherwise, covering, as he did, 100,000 miles in his three journeys, and seldom stopping any-[illegible]e longer than was necessary to get off his [illegible]? This met with various fortune. In [illegible]a he does not seem to have had a good time at all. The clergy of his own church fought shy of him—he thinks because they had not free admissions, but it is possible to imagine other and better reasons. In the rougher parts, his lecture being two hours long or longer, he had a recess in the middle for the men to go out and "liquor up." Mr. Haweis was never anything but scrappy, even in 'Music and Morals,' the book which gave him a deserved reputation, and here the touch-and-go of his itinerary makes him scrappier than ever. His notes were evidently not sufficient for his two volumes, for he has padded the first with some fifty pages of Mormon history, and the second with nearly 150 pages on the missions to the South Sea Islands. These, if their information could not be found in better shape elsewhere, would be the most valuable portion of his book. The fact that his grandfather, Rev. Thomas Haweis of Aldwinckle, Northamptonshire, was the founder of the Missionary Society, and Lady Huntingdon's chaplain, is his excuse for introducing so much matter foreign to the original purpose of his book. There are other things which could be better spared—notes from distinguished people accepting or declining his polite invitations, and such unconsidered trifles. Even when the hook was baited with several Cabinet ministers, bishops, and well-known writers, Phillips Brooks did not rise to it.

Mr. Haweis is frequently amusing, but oftener when he does not mean to be than when he does. He has some apt descriptions and tells some good stories, but they are generally old and he does not always tell them straight. He misapplies Phillips Brooks's "dear old moth-eaten angel," which did not, we think, originate with him; and he spoils the beautiful words of Emerson at Longfellow's funeral. His humor tends to coarseness, as do the manners of the book; "the railway nigger" being his designation for the porter on the Pullman car. He had a tragic time at Vassar, where he tried in vain to get a glass of sherry and had to put up with a cup of tea—"a sort of green decoction that tasted like verdigris." One of his Sundays was a web of mingled yarn. He went to the Church of the Holy Spirit in the morning, preached at Grace Church in the afternoon, went to hear Beecher in the evening "with Courtlandt Palmer the Agnostic and the charming Miss Ingersoll, daughter of the famous Anythingarian lecturer Colonel Ingersoll," and ended with a supper at Delmonico's with Andrew Carnegie. He complains that the canvas-back duck was not cooked. "The little mud-turtles in the soup" were more to his taste. He learned something at that dinner about the fondness of the canvas-back duck for wild celery, but in general the acquisition of exact information was not in his line. Joseph Jefferson is not nearer eighty than seventy; he is only sixty-seven. Bryant was not one of the Boston set of literary men. Beecher and Mrs. Stowe were not the two principal agents in the destruction of slavery, and the Mormon contribution to that event was not conspicuous. There is no "Stanford and Leland University" in California. "Emerson and Longfellow would none of Whitman" is unfortunately not true, Emerson's praise of Whitman long serving "the good gray poet" for his best advertisement. We have no "Nonconformists" in this country. Mr. Haweis could not preach for Beecher without the consent of Bishop Potter, and there are various indications that he imagines our Episcopal Church to be a State church and a branch of the Established Church of England. Naming our literary men, Bryant, Emerson, Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, Hawthorne, Holmes, he says that they were "all abolitionists," but Holmes and Hawthorne he should have known were nothing of the sort. Long Island is not exactly "the New York Isle of Wight." And so on indefinitely.

The climax of Mr. Haweis's inaccuracies is his chapter xx., vol. i., "Charles Sumner." Only a few choice extracts can be given:

"It has been my privilege to know [besides President Cleveland] three other high-class politicians, Senator Abram Hewitt, the Hon. John Bigelow, and Senator Charles Sumner." "Charles Sumner has always been a fighter of monopolies and jobs, and monopolists and jobbers have revenged themselves upon him by shutting him out of office whenever they could. But somehow there is a vitality about integrity and pluck, and only last year [1895] Sumner went to Washington and defeated a pretty little Southern Pacific job at the instance and to some extent under the ægis of my good friend Mayor Sutro of Francisco. Sumner's name will for ever be associated in the politics of the nineteenth century with the noble fight he made against the postal and telegraphic monopoly scandals." "Sumner was in England in 1883." "I still remember Sumner's warm grip and moist eye as he shook me by the hand in 1893, after my last sermon in Francisco."

As Sumner died in 1874 it would appear that Mr. Haweis has confounded him with some one else, but he has "his characteristic card," signed "Charles Sumner," and written in 1883, when, having tried in vain to effect an entrance into Mr. Haweis's church in London, he "retired in good order." Evidently there is something here which requires clearing up.

Federation and Empire: A Study in Politics. By Thomas Alfred Spalding, LL.B. London: H. Henry & Co. 1896.

The title of Mr. Spalding's book would lead us to expect another contribution to the literature of Imperial Federation, but it bears upon that subject only indirectly. It is rather a most interesting and effective argument for the federation of the three home kingdoms—powerful both from the vigor and directness of the style and from the thoroughness of the investigation of the facts of the case.

The argument is like this. Every one admits that the British Parliament is able to get through but a small portion of the business which seems imperatively demanded of every session. This paralysis of Parliament, as Mr. Spalding delights to call it, is not due to a rapid increase of imperial business, as one would naturally suppose at first thought, but solely to the pressure of local legislation. The fact primarily responsible is that each of the three kingdoms differs so widely from the others in its legal system and administration that separate legislation on a great variety of topics is needed for each. Theoretically this should make no difference, for, in the language of Prof. Dicey, whose defence of the present system Mr. Spalding makes the target of repeated attack, members of Parliament "have not been the delegates of special localities, they have not been English members, or Scotch members, or Irish members, they have been simply members of Parliament; their acknowledged duty has been to consult for the interest of the whole nation." That this theory is the exact opposite of the practice, Mr. Spalding most clearly demonstrates. In order to force through the legislation needed by their states—even though it might be vitally necessary legislation—the

Scotch and Irish members have been forced to subordinate everything else to this purpose, and to take their position upon English and general questions not according to the merits of the case, since their own constituents held them to no direct responsibility in such matters, but according to the effect their stand upon these questions would be likely to have upon their own measures. Obstructive tactics have been resorted to for the same purpose. These facts can be most distinctly seen in the action of the Scotch and Irish members, but the evidence is conclusive that in certain ways the demands of separate legislation for England are even more responsible for the present paralysis of Parliament. The result has been two-fold—first declining attention to imperial (that is, foreign and colonial) business, just at the time when the rapid development of the empire has been constantly creating new demands, and, second, an abandonment of the principle that all laws shall be assented to by a majority of the representatives of those who are to obey them, and, with the loss of this, naturally a loss on the part of the representative of the sense of his responsibility to his constituents. These results tend to prove that the present situation is full of danger, not merely to the empire at large, but to popular government as well.

The force of the argument cannot be made to appear in an analysis like this. It is founded upon a most laborious and apparently thorough classification of all legislation since the union with Ireland in 1801, and of debates which failed to result in legislation, made clear in tables and graphic diagrams, and suggesting many most interesting conclusions besides those bearing upon the main argument. This classification exhibits both the increasing inability of Parliament to do business, and the lines of its action which are most affected by this paralysis, and it reveals the cause—the pressure of local business, mainly that of England, under such conditions that it is able to force imperial business out of the field.

Mr. Spalding argues that by these symptoms the federal system is indicated, as the physicians say, as the natural remedy. The Union has never been a real union. Each of the attached kingdoms retained in entire independence all its local peculiarities of law and administration. It gave up its parliament and received the privilege of sending a few representatives to the Parliament of the United Kingdom, which remained, however, in spite of these additions, in every essential particular the Parliament of England. It follows that the Parliament exercises in turn the functions of a State Legislature for each of the three states, and attempts to do federal and imperial business as well. What could be more simple than to relegate the separate state business to a separate state legislature, actually composed of the representatives of those concerned and responsible to them, and confine the federal Parliament to federal and imperial business?

To this point one follows Mr. Spalding's argument with ready agreement. But he goes further than to demonstrate his case. He believes, very correctly, that the English people can never be led to adopt a federal form of government merely by convincing them that it is a natural remedy for certain of their difficulties. They are afraid of it. The majority of English voters believe that it means dissolution, and apparently they cannot be convinced of the contrary by an appeal to American experience. They can be convinced only by constructing a form of federal government so modified that it is clear at a glance, even to the English mind, that it does not destroy but preserves the Union. Such a modified federal system Mr. Spalding attempts to construct, and this is not the least interesting part of his book.

He calls the Home-Rule bills "amorphous and illogical federation," but the terms apply with almost equal force to his own plan. Mr. Spalding seems conscious of this and seeks its justification, where indeed it is to be found, in the impossibility of going further, and in the necessity of going so far very slowly. He supposes that a first step could be taken by committing local state business in the present House of Commons to the representatives of each state, who, after the manner of a committee, should put the desired legislation into its final form, to be adopted then by the whole Parliament. Gradually it would become evident that they could be trusted to do this business in Dublin or Edinburgh, and that it might not be necessary for every state representative to be also a member of the federal Parliament. This method of growth and this result avoid two great difficulties, as the English regard them: there is no "inflexible" written constitution, and the judiciary has no power to declare an act of the Legislature void. Each state legislature, of one house, remains in theory an offshoot of the House of Commons. Its bills, therefore, go up to the House of Lords, which Mr. Spalding hints may be a House of Lords reformed according to a plan which he published some little time ago. It falls to the House of Lords to determine whether in any bill the local legislature has exceeded its powers. If it has, the bill is referred to the federal House of Commons. If not, it follows the regular course of all bills through the House. Local taxation, determined upon by the local legislature, is sent to the federal House of Commons and becomes a part of the imperial budget as now. It follows that every local act is constitutionally an act of the imperial Parliament, though put into form by a House of Commons composed only of representatives of the state concerned. As more fully developed by the author, this is a most interesting scheme.

The fear of the possible action of Ireland, if granted any degree of local independence, is at the bottom of the English fear of federation. If the relations between the Irish and the English were like those which now exist between the Scotch and the English, the task of explaining federation to the English voter and of leading him to adopt it would be far easier than it is. This fear of Ireland is the penalty which England is now paying for the misgovernment of Ireland.

Pioneers of Science in America: Sketches of their Lives and Scientific Work. Reprinted, with additions, from the *Popular Science Monthly*. Edited and revised by William Jay Youmans, M.D. With Portraits. D. Appleton & Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. viii, 508, 50 plates.

THESE biographical sketches are fifty in number, and the principle upon which the selection of them as representative of pioneering in American science is made is no doubt determined by the materials the editor had on hand from the *Popular Science Monthly*. At the same time there is a certain method and congruity in the collection, the subjects being men who were born from about the time of Benjamin Franklin down to about 1810, and while it is of course not pretended that these fifty comprise all the names that are entitled to like distinction, they are a very notable group, typical or illustrative of the men who may be said to have made science what it is in this country, on both the biological and physical sides of the same shield. The various personages are arranged in the order of their birth, from Franklin to David Dale Owen, 1706 to 1807; the dates of death run nearly to the present day, as that of Ericsson in 1889. With one exception, each biography is accompanied by a portrait, and these are, as Dr. Youmans informs us, "in every instance well authenticated." "In collecting materials for the *Monthly*," the editor adds, "no effort was spared to reach the most trustworthy sources of information. . . . The accuracy thus secured in the first instance has been made more perfect by a thorough revision of the matter for this volume."

It is certainly a useful and convenient volume, and reliable too, if we judge correctly of the degree of accuracy of the whole by critical examination of those cases in which our own knowledge enables us to form an opinion—for no reviewer could pretend to be personally informed in all these premises. One thing that the sketches bring out clearly is that, while fame and merit often go hand in hand, as in the instances of Franklin and Morse, solid scientific acquirements have not always won commensurate recognition from the world at large. Thus it happens that men whose wide renown is that of an Audubon or an Agassiz, here appear in line with others whose reputation, if not less enduring, is mainly in "mouths of wisest censure," like that of a Sullivant or a Lesquereux, scarcely known except in bryology and palæobotany. The most picturesque figure in the volume is that of C. S. Rafinesque, who seems likely to exercise the patience of naturalists for all time. We are tempted to particularize many other cases, but in so doing should be led far beyond reasonable limits. In general it seems to us that the handy volume is specially to be commended for setting in just historical perspective many of the earlier scientists who are neither very generally nor very well known, such as the two Bartrams, S. L. Mitchill, B. S. Barton, and C. A. Lesueur, who thus take their proper places in a line of worthies which reaches to our own times, and are clearly seen to have occupied in their day the same place in science that is now held by its recognized leaders. In this particular Dr. Youmans's plan works admirably, and the net result is so good that we hope the succeeding volume, at which the editor's preface hints, may soon see the light.

La Société Américaine. Par Prof. M. Dugard. Paris: Hachette & Cie.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1896.

M. DUGARD came to the United States in 1893, and in four months saw something of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Washington, Salt Lake City, San Francisco, and the intervening West, including Chicago. He is a thoughtful observer, and his report, though here and there exaggerated and inaccurate, is marked by that true French urbanity which always knows how to spare the vanity of those criticised, without missing its point. M. Dugard found many things to interest him, and some of those which struck him are worth our attention also. The quality which he declares to be the national trait most visible to a stranger is ebullient youthfulness, and in his chapter "Through the West" he makes very plain

what he means. For instance, the American's ambition is as youthful as if the teachings of experience on the subject were quite worthless. "To live quietly, to content himself with little, to avoid devoting himself to the pursuit of wealth—all these precepts of ancient wisdom are unintelligible to him; the golden mean dear to the Latin poet would seem to him cheap and contemptible." Another indication of youthfulness is an "incredible facility" of changing one's occupation and place of abode; in older societies a fixed domicile is one of the great objects of life. In America not only is one's furniture light and movable, but one thinks nothing of moving his house. The author met one of these "habitations ambulantes" one day in San Francisco; mounted on *poutres de glissement*, "it moved rapidly and lightly through the streets, the exact symbol of a society in which everything is in motion." The American is restless, also, with a feverish restlessness. All these traits hardly go with the bourgeois qualities of prudence and economy; "time is the only thing which the American knows how to economize," and as for prudence! In Arizona the author had the good luck to be carried across an abyss in a railroad train by an engineer who "chanced" it apparently out of love of excitement, and then to hear an employee say to a friend, "I'll bet you a dollar another train doesn't get over," and the man laughed, "amused by recklessness which might have cost a hundred lives." As he is reckless, so the American is wasteful. Having fallen heir to immense riches of a new continent, he squanders them like a young spendthrift. These traits are not very wonderful, either, for America is a country of young people. The West has been built up by men under forty.

All this is true, and has been said by others; it must be added, however, that M. Dugard seems to have acquired while here a touch of the same youthful spirit which, as he says, leads, among other things, to exaggeration. "No precaution against accidents" is hardly fair as applied to the whole railway system of the United States, nor is it true that American purchasers are, as a rule, in too great a hurry to wait for small change. Exaggerations and mistakes such as these disfigure a book with an inaccuracy from which a little of the prudence which should mark the old when criticising the young would have saved it. Were it not useless to make the suggestion, we should also complain of the proof-reading. Foreign, and especially English, terms in French books always suffer strange transformations, which cannot but reflect on the author's familiarity with the language of the people he criticises. "To work among the poors," "boghey" (for buggy), a policeman's "cub," are all unnecessary blunders. The surprising thing is, however, that, notwithstanding exaggeration and mistakes of fact, the book as a whole gives an impression of the country which shows in the author a rather unusual critical capacity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, T. B. Judith and Holofernes: A Poem. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ambrosius, Johanna. Poems. Translated by Mary J. Safford. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Barry, J. D. The Intriguers Appletons.
Bronson, T. B. Coppée's On Rend l'Argent. Henry Holt & Co. 60c.
Coale, Mrs James C. The Cottage by the Sea. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. 50c.
Cowles, J. L. A General Freight and Passenger Post. Putnams. 75c.
Dabney, Julia P. Little Daughter of the Sun. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
FitzGerald, Edward Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. San Francisco: Dodge Book and Stationery Co.
Greenough, J. B. Allen and Greenough's Shorter Latin Grammar. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.05.
Harris, W. T. The Spiritual Sense of Dante's Divina Commedia. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
International Journal of Ethics. Vol. VI. Philadelphia: *International Journal of Ethics.*
Jagemann, Prof. H. C. G. von Goethe's Dichtung und Wahrheit. Selections from Books I.-XI. Henry Holt & Co. $1.12
Kingsley, Henry. The Mystery of the Island. New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25
Lillie, Mrs. Lucy C. Elinor Belden: or, The Step-brothers. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co
Marquand, Prof. Allan, and Frothingham, Prof. A. L. A Text Book of the History of Sculpture. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Myers, Rev. Cortland. Midnight in a Great City. Merrill & Baker.
O'Connor, Miss E. S. Tracings: or, A Reflection of Nature. Century Co. $1.
Oxley, J. M. The Boy Tramps; or, Across Canada. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Page, T. N. In Ole Virginia. Scribners. $2.50.
Parry, C. H. H. The Evolution of the Art of Music. Appletons.
Stowe, Mrs H. B. Uncle Tom's Cabin, and Key. 2 vols. Household Papers and Stories. [Riverside Edition.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each $1.50.
Sturgis, Russell. European Architecture: A Historical Study. Macmillan. $4.
Stüven, Hermine. Praktische Anfangsgründe. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Weeks, Rev. J. H. The Tin Kitchen. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Williams, Neil W. The Bayonet that Came Home: A Vanity of Modern Greece. Edward Arnold.
Wise, Dr. P. M. A Text-Book for Training-Schools for Nurses. 2 vols. Putnams. $2.50.
Woods, Katharine P. John: A Tale of King Messiah. Dodd, Mead & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 29, 1896.

The Week.

It is a common remark in Wall Street that never was an event, regarded as so certain as McKinley's election is, so little discounted in advance. One cannot find a banker or business man who will admit a doubt of Bryan's defeat, yet on all hands there is the suspense, the holding of the breath till November 4, which would seem to imply a fear that free silver might, after all, win. But this, we believe, is a result not so much of doubt about the victory of honest money as of uncertainty about the nature and proportions of that victory. That Bryan will be beaten the business world is convinced. But will he and his cause be crushed? Will the majority be so overwhelming that free-silverism will go to join greenbackism? What sort of a Congress are we going to get? Will the vote for McKinley be so non-partisan and enormous that he will see in it a call to continue his profitable studies in finance, and to urge Congress to clinch the victory by reforming the vicious currency system which threatens us with a renewal of the peril in the future? These are the really critical questions, and they cannot be answered until the returns are in. Till then business and industry will continue to live as in a state of siege, and meanwhile it is the duty of every voter to make sure that he casts his ballot in the way to count most in giving merchants and manufacturers that confidence in the distant future of which they are waiting to get an assurance.

The Populistic campaign for the Presidency is ending appropriately in a series of insults and outrages upon those who stand for sound money and the maintenance of the national honor. The "boy orator's" speeches weeks ago degenerated into an attempt to incite a war of classes such as has never been known in the country. Nothing could have been better calculated to provoke the silverite mob to personal violence upon advocates of the gold standard than Bryan's incendiary appeals. The men who threw eggs at the Secretary of the Treasury when Mr. Carlisle spoke at Covington last week, only carried out the spirit that their candidate for President embodies, and there was another exhibition of the same spirit at Springfield, Mo., on Saturday night, when men in a Bryan procession set fire to a sound-money banner under which they marched. Repeated attempts to break up sound-money meetings in Chicago illustrate this tendency in the city where Altgeld has done so much to encourage anarchy ever since he pardoned its representatives from prison.

These incidents are symptomatic. They are precisely the sort of thing which any student of history might have predicted would happen during the closing days of the canvass after such a campaign as Bryan has made. When a candidate for President rushes through the country telling the poor that every man who advocates the gold standard is their enemy, he is arousing a feeling among the ignorant and depraved which leads inevitably to such outrages as those we have just enumerated. There are two compensating features. One is the fact that it is only a comparatively small element of the voters whom Bryan can delude into either committing such outrages or sympathizing with them. The other is, that this revelation of the logical end of the Bryan canvass increases the determination of good citizens to make the defeat of his cause perfectly overwhelming. Those who began by considering him a sincere patriot see at last that he is an unscrupulous demagogue, ready to go any length in his desperate efforts to gratify his ambition, and realize the necessity of rendering his overthrow so complete that he shall always serve as a "horrible example" in American history—a perpetual warning to our youth of the contempt that is heaped upon a man who would stir up a war of classes in a republic.

One of many signs showing the desperate character of the Popocratic campaign is the circular put out by their committee at Chicago intended to provoke strikes and riots on the eve of the election. This incendiary document begins by saying that it is "generally admitted by Chicago manufacturers that the election of McKinley will be followed by a reduction in wages." This is a lie of the first magnitude. The fact is that the manufacturers, not merely of Chicago, but of the whole Union, expect a remarkable revival of business in case of McKinley's election. They have thousands of orders for goods on their books now, conditioned on that very event—orders to be executed in case Mr. Bryan is defeated, and not otherwise. This is not the usual condition of a reduction in wages. Every workingman knows that a reduction is impossible when demand exceeds supply. "It is a significant fact," continues the circular, "that not an employer of labor in the United States, so far as can be learned, has publicly or privately offered to raise wages if McKinley be elected." It is not customary for employers to make corrupt proposals of that kind. If an employer should make such an offer, he would be liable to prosecution for bribery, and he would be held up to infinite scorn by this Bryanite committee. The purpose of the circular is shown by the paragraph which immediately follows, viz.:

> "If the workmen of any great factory or of any great industry are in doubt as to the absolute accuracy of this assertion, they can easily prove or disprove it. Let them appoint a committee and authorize it to confer with the employees or employers. Let this committee ask for an agreement in writing either that wages shall be raised in the event of the election of Mr. McKinley, or that the present rate of wages shall be maintained, or finally demand an absolute guarantee that no cut in wages shall follow the triumph of the single gold standard."

The circular concludes by suggesting that the wage-earners put their employers to the test by asking them to sign a paper agreeing not to reduce wages for two years in case McKinley is elected. This, it says, "will cost nothing, and may settle a disputed point."

Probably the most awkward thing in the canvass for Altgeld to meet is his backing up the Chicago and other rioters in July, 1894, and inserting a defence of them in the platform. One of his supporters is Senator Daniel of Virginia, who presided at the Chicago convention, made no objection to "the free-riot plank," and has since in his addresses, notably in a recent one at Richmond, defended the platform without mentioning this plank. Moreover, he was the very Senator who introduced in the Senate in 1894 the resolutions approving of the President's course in using the troops. This is shameless enough, but Col. Mosby, the ex-guerilla, now resident in San Francisco, makes it more shameless by publishing his own telegrams sent to Senators Daniel and Hunton from San Francisco in 1894. The first says they are "in a state of siege, and the mob in possession of the railroad." The second says, "The mob reigns in California, the State Government paralyzed, and the militia worthless," and begs for federal troops. Senator Daniel replies: "We have endorsed your telegram, and sent it to the President, and hope for speedy action." This man is now standing on and defending a platform which justifies the rioters and rebukes the President for putting them down. For the honor of human nature, be it said, such cases of self-abasement are rare, though they are more numerous among the silverites this year than we ever remember before. Altgeld has also tried to make it appear that the mails were not much delayed by the riots at Chicago. Mr. Hesing, the Postmaster there, shows that "for ten days practically no mails left Chicago," and that "never in the history of the country was mail service so seriously interfered with or so long delayed as during the strike of 1894."

Secretary Carlisle's speech at Covington on Thursday evening was equal to his reputation as an earnest, logical, cool, and temperate debater of public affairs. Mr. Carlisle has the rare faculty of elucidating any subject that he touches, of divesting it of mystery, sophistry, and fog, and presenting it so that the common mind can easily grasp it. This is the true test of a good public speaker. Thus, in dealing with the magpie utterances of Mr. Bryan that foreign nations are dictating our financial policy, he said:

"Notwithstanding all that has been said or may hereafter be said to the contrary, we have now a distinct monetary system of our own, freely adopted by our own legislation, without dictation from or consultation with any other nation in the world, and we have the right and the power to change it or abolish it altogether whenever we choose. The excited orators who are traversing the land in every direction, vexing the ears of the people with a reiteration of the statement that there is some party or some body of men in this country denying the right or authority of the United States to change its monetary system without the consent of some other nation, are simply evading the real questions at issue, and misrepresenting the position of their opponents for the purpose of making unworthy appeals to the passions and prejudices of their audiences. It is not a question of power, it is not a question of national independence, but it is a question of national prosperity and national honor."

It would be impossible to answer Mr. Bryan's everlasting clatter about foreign dictation in our financial affairs in fewer words or in a more effective manner. It is humiliating that any answer should be necessary, but, since it is, Mr. Carlisle has discharged the need of any further reply to it.

Equally clear and cogent was Mr. Carlisle's answer to the question what remedy he would propose for the present stagnation in business, viz.:

"The first and most important step is for the people of the United States to make such a record at the polls on the 3d of next month as will for ever put an end to the selfish and mischievous agitation of the currency question, which has done more than any other one thing to paralyze industry, destroy credit, and depress our trade at home and abroad. The next step is to take the Government of the United States entirely out of the banking business by retiring and cancelling every one of the notes issued by it, thus for ever stopping the demand upon the Treasury for their redemption in gold or silver, and placing the burden of furnishing gold, when gold is demanded for the redemption of notes, upon the banks, where it properly belongs, and where it always rested until the Government most unwisely inaugurated the policy of issuing its own obligations to circulate as money."

Here is the whole gospel of sound finance, as applied to the present situation, in one paragraph. It is not a new thing just brought to light. On the contrary, it has been reiterated many times, and will probably need to be repeated many times more. But such common truths gain much by being uttered at the right time by some man of high powers, holding a great place and addressing a "doubtful State." All these conditions were united when Mr. Carlisle made his speech at Covington; and the unmannerly behavior of the Bryanite mob that threw eggs at him and tried to howl him down has served only to draw greater attention to his words.

We observe that the death of ex-Speaker Crisp is regarded by some newspapers, the Boston *Herald* among them, as involving "a serious loss to the Democratic party." We are unable to share this view. The *Herald* appears to base the conclusion upon its belief that "Mr. Crisp was a living force on the Democratic side in the House of Representatives; and in the Congressional contests which lie before his party it will sadly miss his great parliamentary skill and the dauntless courage with which he fought a lost battle to the bitter end." Mr. Crisp never did a thing to commend the Democratic party to the favorable consideration of that independent element in the country which it must win in order to secure a majority. On the contrary, it was in spite of Mr. Crisp, rather than because of him, that independents supported his party, just as it was in spite of Gen. Butler's being a Republican thirty years ago, rather than because of it, that the same class of men supported that party then. His determined opposition to Mr. Cleveland is notorious. It has been for years, and still remains, the great misfortune of the South, that so many of its leaders in public life have been men of the Crisp type, who were ready to accept any popular error in order to win or keep office, instead of doing their duty by exposing and combating it. Georgia, "the Empire State of the South," as it likes to be called, has for years shown no genuine leadership in public affairs; nor has Alabama, with her Morgan and Pugh; nor Mississippi, with her George and Walthall; nor Tennessee, with her Harris and Bate; nor Arkansas, with her Jones and Berry; nor Missouri, with her Vest and Cockrell and Bland. The man of convictions, with the courage to express them, seems to have disappeared from the older generation when Mr. Lamar died, and there are as yet only a few representatives of a younger generation animated by his ideas of duty, like Secretary Carlisle, Postmaster-General Wilson, and Senator Caffery of Louisiana.

A bill was introduced in the last Congress providing that in any trial by jury the judge's charge shall be wholly confined to the law of the case. The object of the bill is, like that making contempt of court triable by jury, to emasculate the courts. There is a large class of the community to whom courts and judges are every year becoming more and more repulsive objects. The idea that any one man should have so much power and authority as to be able to punish another for refusing to obey him, is repugnant to their feelings; yet it is a fact that this power lies at the root of our judicial system as it exists. Orders and judgments of court, like other commands for the dispatch of business, have to be executed at once, to be of any value. If a jury had to be resorted to to determine whether a judicial order should be made efficient or not, judicial trials would very likely soon come to an end. Most witnesses, for instance, dislike subpœnas extremely, and as soon as they found out that the only result of their refusing to testify would be a jury trial to determine whether they should be made to testify, they would, whenever it was for their interest to do so, remain silent, so that one of the first results of the new system would be that proof would fail, and without proof there can be no administration of justice at all. At the very best, trials, instead of being speedy, would become more and more dilatory, and in the end would revert to the stage of six hundred years ago, when "the forbearance of the law" was so great that the plaintiff was lucky if he got a trial at all.

We venture to say that if Altgeld and Debs and Coxey and Bryan and their numerous supporters would express their opinion, it would be found to be just as strongly against judges charging the jury "on the facts" as in favor of jury trial for contempts. To charge the jury on the facts seems to suggest that a judge not only knows more law than the jury—which has not yet been disputed—but more in general. How can "any one man" know more than twelve men about the force and weight to be given to testimony which they have listened to? If he is allowed to charge them about facts, he may bias them improperly in favor of one side or the other. So he may, but if he does, his charge will be upset on appeal; while if he is not allowed to charge on the facts, the jury are deprived of the only guide they have. The idea that they will come to a more sensible and impartial conclusion by their unaided wits, than after having their attention directed to the salient points of the case by an expert trained in testing and weighing proof, is absurd. The only result of shutting the judge's mouth as to the facts would be to substitute the bias of the jury for that of the judge, and the one is just as much greater than the other as the ignorance and inexperience of jurymen are greater than those of judges. The federal courts are now a main judicial reliance against anarchy, and these bills ought to be killed. One of them is, naturally enough, fathered by D. B. Hill.

The Supreme Court of Massachusetts has, we are glad to say, decided on appeal that it is not lawful to walk up and down in front of a man's premises for the purpose of preventing persons from entering his employ by intimidation or threats. The extraordinary doctrine that this was lawful because the persons doing it were trying to better their con-

dition, got into the heads about a year ago of Judges Holmes and Field, but the majority have happily overruled them. This doctrine is a legitimate part of the crazy communistic creed that if you employ a man once, it gives him a right to remain for an indefinite period in your service on his own terms, so that, if you lower his wages, or if he thinks you ought to raise his wages, and refuses to work for you on your terms, and you dismiss him, you do him a wrong, and he has a right to annoy you and do what he can to prevent others from filling his place till you take him back. A more astounding doctrine probably never got into a court of justice. The Massachusetts court has nipped it in the bud by following the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Debs case and of the English courts in the McGregor case. It denies that acts intended to injure or annoy others are justifiable if performed with intent to better your own condition, and goes on to say:

"This motive or purpose does not justify maintaining a patrol in front of the plaintiff's premises as a means of carrying out their conspiracy. A combination among persons merely to regulate their own conduct is within allowable competition, and is lawful, although others may be indirectly affected thereby, but a combination to do injurious acts expressly directed to another, by way of intimidation or constraint, either of himself or of persons employed or seeking to be employed by him, is outside of allowable competition, and is unlawful."

It must be remembered, now that the Venezuela matter is near settlement, by those who feel disposed to think that Mr. Cleveland's and Mr. Olney's way of approaching the subject was the right one (if it should appear that it has accomplished the desired result), that Mr. Olney's dispatch was the first application to arbitrate made to Great Britain on our own account. To conclude, therefore, that his way of beginning the negotiation was the right way is to conclude that all politeness of form, not only in diplomatic usage but in human intercourse, is unnecessary. Down to Mr. Olney's day the only mention of the Venezuela trouble made in our dispatches to England was recommendations to arbitrate for the sake of Venezuela, a small and angry state. Even Blaine expressly disclaimed the idea that the dispute was in any sense our affair, although the contention of the Venezuelans all along was that it was our affair. No such view was taken by any of Mr. Olney's predecessors. The first intimation Great Britain had that arbitration was due to us, and that refusal to arbitrate, or determination to draw boundaries without arbitrating, was a violation of the Monroe Doctrine, came from him accompanied by a threat of war, which threw the business of the country into confusion and greatly alarmed the British. If this were the right way to begin, all civility in diplomatic intercourse would be a mistake, and it is not an unfair deduction from it that civility in private disputes would also be a mistake. If you differ with a gentleman about the interpretation of a contract or the items of an account, and the right thing to do is to go to his house with a big stick or a bowie-knife, and tell him that if he does not settle this matter on your view you will break every bone in his body or rip him open, there is hardly doubt that any quiet gentleman who had no courts or police to appeal to, would settle promptly, if the amount involved were not too large, in order to get rid of a ruffian. But if the ruffian continued to call himself a gentleman and to say that the result showed that this was the way to decide controversies, the judicious would both smile and grieve. There was no reason in the world for not telling Lord Salisbury politely that the Administration took a more serious view of the matter than its predecessors, and considered the matter as our concern, and would feel obliged by a prompt settlement. When this failed, it would be time enough to let loose the dogs of war. It would reflect discredit on our civilization if we looked back with satisfaction on the way this controversy was begun, however well pleased we may be with its termination.

Our old friend the Indian rupee is at work again. The great advance in wheat has made it necessary for it to take the field. It has always been the strong resource of silver logicians in sore straits. You think you have them cornered, their facts demolished, their arguments riddled, but then comes that dreamy, far-away look in their eyes, and they escape triumphantly by way of the Indian rupee. On that Mr. Wharton Barker now rides away from the dilemma of advancing wheat and declining silver. It is a good deal of an Asian mystery as he explains it, but he stoutly affirms that if you will look narrowly into the extraordinary behavior of the Indian rupee, all will be clear and the necessity of free coinage irrefragably established. What is still more alarming, he intimates that there are other foreign coins in reserve if the rupee fails him. There is the Argentine peso, as to which he darkly hints that he could tell many things about its effect on the price of wheat in the Dakotas. All this shows how feeble the gold-standard logic always must be. It can never make an end of the silver reasoners. Drive them off the rupee, and they take their stand on the peso; make them bolt out of that hole, and they are prepared to seek refuge with the sucre or the bolivar, the ruble or the kopek, the tael or the yen, or, if worst comes to worst, with wampum and beads. They turn and pass and come again with the facility of Emerson's elusive spirit, and always have a fresh obscurity with which to account for the most obvious facts.

It is probably too soon to assert that the new Spanish loan of $200,000,000 has absolutely failed. London will have nothing to do with it, and Paris and Brussels have not yet taken it up, but their hesitation may simply be a bid for better terms. French investors are already so heavily loaded up with Spanish securities that they may feel compelled to loan more money in order to protect what they have before loaned. This is, to state it baldly, the last hope of the Spanish Treasury. It practically says to the Paris Bourse, "Find us $200,000,000 additional, or we may default on the interest of what you have already advanced." The first answer is a rush to sell Spanish securities and a serious fall in their price. But this may be only a prelude to a successful floating of the loan on terms a little more onerous for the Spanish Treasury. In any case the negotiation is almost a matter of life and death. The interest on the existing Spanish debt absorbs two-fifths of the entire national revenue. In addition, as Cánovas informed the Cortes, it will shortly be necessary for Spain to make good its guarantee of the Cuban debt. Prostrate Cuba cannot pay the interest on that, which will require several millions. Then there are the extraordinary war expenses of $10,000,000 a month. Spain simply has not the money to meet all these liabilities. She cannot raise it by increased taxation. She must borrow it, on any terms, or else there is nothing for it but a general smash-up. The fate of the Cuban insurrection will be decided rather on the Paris Bourse than in Pinar del Rio or along the *trocha*.

The almost forgotten doctrine of economy in public expenditures through close attention to minor details is preached with vigor by Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, apropos of a successful application of it in the French Department of the Jura. What has filled the minds of finance ministers and councillors for many years past has been the idea of some grand, sweeping stroke by which, through a glorious "conversion" or the exploiting of some new monopoly, the state would save millions or add them to its revenue. Mere petty economies have been beneath their lofty minds. To waste their precious time in stamping on a 1,000-franc job here and cutting off a useless expense of 1,500 francs there, could hardly be expected of such brilliant and important personages. But that is the only way to do the business. While other councils-general were dreaming of spectacular operations, that of the Jura buckled down to details, and, by saving 177 francs in the commune of Pannessières, 144 at Nance, 75 at Largillay, etc., succeeded quietly in effecting a distinct reduction in taxation. That this merciless application of the knife to particular items is the only practical way of economizing in public expenditure, our Congress will do well to remember next winter.

MOB VIOLENCE.

THE accounts which reach us from various parts of the country, of mob violence, egg-throwing, disturbance at meetings, and insults to speakers by the Bryanites, are not absolutely new in American politics. They were common enough in the days of the anti-slavery agitation, and, beginning early, they indicated clearly the determination of the pro-slavery partisans to decide the controversy, if necessary, by force. Moreover, this spirit was encouraged and promoted by all the leading pro-slavery men. Not only were all attempts at persuasion prohibited on Southern soil, but the mob in Northern cities were taught by speeches and articles that the use of violence against anti-slavery men was legitimate whenever they attempted any public proclamation of their opinions.

This example is being followed to-day. Bryan and Altgeld and their congeners do not, it is true, say: "Your opponents ought to be stoned, or egged, or interrupted, or hanged"; but they accuse their opponents of opinions, of a course of life, and of designs which, to an ignorant or excitable poor man, make mobbing seem too good for them. More than this. The offences of the Anarchists in Chicago were worse as a menace to social order than anything which has happened since the Commune in Paris. These men assembled in the street, against the police prohibition, to make incendiary speeches directed against the laws and against other classes of society, armed with bombs to be used in murdering anybody who interfered with them. They accordingly murdered some policemen. Several were hanged and others were sentenced to imprisonment. Gov. Altgeld has pardoned these, and set them at liberty, avowedly through sympathy with them, and officially abused and vilified the court and jury that convicted them. Ever since, he has been a leading member of the Democratic party, and had a leading share in drawing the Chicago platform. He does not disavow or repent anything he has ever done. The platform rebukes the President for suppressing very formidable riots when Gov. Altgeld, the local sheriff, and militia had proved unable or unwilling to do so, thus making out that it was more important that the local authorities should not be interfered with against their will than that the great lines of communication should be kept open and life and property protected. This doctrine fully carried out would mean that any State could remain in a condition bordering on anarchy as long as the Governor and Legislature did not choose to call for assistance, and that the poor might bomb the rich without being interfered with.

Considering these things, and many others for which we have no space, the wonder is not that there have been so many Bryanite outrages, but that there have been so few. In the early days of the republic, when newspapers were few and communication difficult, and the population homogeneous and equally well instructed, it did not make so much difference what any one said. Everybody wanted law and order, and sought the same results by different means. Nowadays we have among us a large body of persons of varied degrees of education, of different kinds of training, many of them knowing little or nothing about government except what they hear from their leaders. That is to say, they are especially liable to *influence* rather than open to persuasion. They are themselves completely unable to devise a political framework or to criticise it. They know little or nothing about currency except that it is a good thing to have plenty of it. Of the merits or defects of our Constitution they know nothing but what they hear from the men whom they follow. They care little or nothing for the things which Americans used to value and to which they used to point with pride. They care nothing about judicial integrity, or public credit, or any of the constituent elements of a great state. They would fain, in short, illustrate all the evils which reactionary writers ascribe to pure democracy. Their idea of government is an omnipotent club, like that of the Jacobins, doing whatever the leaders said was good for the people, rejecting the wisdom of the past as superstition, and looking on the saving classes as public enemies. They are filled, too, with an immense sense of power.

Now, when such people as these see a man of their own, like Altgeld—sharing all their opinions—put in the Governorship of a great State; when they see their peculiar views embodied in the platform of one of the great parties of the country, and see their chosen candidate for the Presidency preaching them from a hundred stumps all over the country, is it any wonder they grow impatient enough to throw stones, or eggs, or anything that comes in their way, at their opponents? The theory of conspiracy alone is enough to incite ignorant men to violence. That theory maintains that the gold standard is the result of a combination among dishonest men for their own benefit, and causes immense misery to the poor, for which, however, the conspirators care nothing. It also holds that judges and legislators who maintain it, and orators and writers who advocate it, are hired by the conspirators, and are not speaking their honest sentiments, but are seeking their own advantage; and that poverty may be abolished by some sort of legislation. The present situation, in fact, shows strikingly that we shall have hereafter to consider far more carefully than ever before, not only the construction which may be put on our words by intelligent Americans, but the way in which they may be construed by, and the suggestions they may contain for, hundreds of thousands of Americans who are not intelligent and have caught the virus of European communism. If we said that the Chicago platform and Altgeld himself were the direct product of both the Democratic and the Republican teaching of the last twenty years, we should not be far wrong.

THE FARMER AS A BUSINESS MAN.

PROF. LAUGHLIN has an article on the condition of the farmers in the current *Atlantic Monthly*, in which he calls attention to the fact, at this moment brought home to everybody's consciousness, that all our products, and especially our farm products, have to compete with those of all other countries in the markets of Europe. The happy Greeley days, when the factory was to spring up beside the farm, and the operatives were to eat all it produced, are gone. We produce, owing to improvements in transportation and machinery, a great surplus of everything, which has to be sold abroad, because our own people are stuffed full already of wheat, corn, cattle, and hogs. The operatives declare they can eat no more, so that, as we see by the advance in grain, the prices in the European markets are of the last importance to the farmer. It depends largely on them whether his year shall be prosperous or not. It depends on them, too, what crop he had better raise, and whether he should hold his product or sell it. Prof. Laughlin points out that farming has become in some sort a commercial business, and that, great as the competition is, the man who conducts it as a commercial business prospers.

Now, our competitors in the markets of Europe are India, Russia, Australia, Rumania, Argentina. Probably Africa will have to be added to the list before long. It is of the greatest concern to us, as the events of to-day show, what these countries are producing, what prices they are getting, what are their modes of cultivation, and what are their means of transportation. Therefore, we need to study them just as a tea or coffee merchant studies the tea or coffee crop, or as a sugar merchant studies the sugar crop, or a spice merchant studies the spice crop, and so on. He does this by closely watching all the countries from which his merchandise comes. He reads the market reports in the various daily papers. He takes a trade paper and reads it closely. He talks with his brother merchants on 'change. He gets hold of every bit of intelligence he can find relating to the internal condition of the countries in which he is interested.

But what does the Populist farmer do? He reads a blathering local paper, which is full of misinformation put in to "help the party," and he collogues with other farmers as ignorant as himself at the corner grocery. Of the world outside he knows and cares nothing. "America is good enough for him," England and the

East generally are full of dudes, and "gold-bugs," and speculators. The result is that, having a good deal of time on his hands, he sits idly waiting for the demagogue and the crazemonger, and they come along at regular intervals. Had the Western farmers been watching the markets with intelligence during the last ten years, the idea of tampering with the currency would no more have entered their heads than it would have entered the heads of the members of the New York Produce Exchange. If they had been conducting their farms as business men, and had a realizing sense of the conditions which fix the price of their merchandise, they would have had no time this summer to nominate Bryan and "whoop him up." They would have foreseen and have been waiting eagerly for the present rise in wheat, and would have known why it was to rise. We believe some farmers were warned of it by Mr. Hill of the Great Northern, and have profited thereby, but they ought to have known as much about it as Mr. Hill.

At present they are as ignorant and credulous and suspicious as European peasants. Instead of understanding economical phenomena, they think these are the result of a conspiracy. Every one which they do not like is the work of secret enemies. The rise in wheat is an electioneering dodge. All falls in stocks, caused by political folly, are "put-up jobs," the work of anti-American speculators. The result is that it is at present very difficult to teach them political economy and finance, because they do not believe in the reality of the phenomena through which economy and finance are taught. A man who thinks stocks go up and down under foreign manipulation, or that the price of grain is regulated, not by supply and demand, but by intrigue, is very difficult to enlighten or convert about economical conditions. We laugh over the tendency in the Middle Ages to put the blame of scarcity on the Jews, and the blame of epidemics on the doctors; but are we much better off?

Another unfortunate tendency of the Bryanite farmer is towards suspiciousness. He suspects nearly everybody who does not live in his State. All bankers and rich men are conspirators, and so are nearly all foreign business men. Worse still, these conspirators are generally laboring to destroy property in America, to impoverish the farmers, impede business, "corner" gold, wreck railroads, and produce a general condition of distress and decay. That is, they are trying with all their might to ruin their own best customers. Why they should do this is never explained. The farmers never ask what impels business men to seek to destroy the purchasing power of the people to whom they sell and lend, and on whose prosperity their own prosperity depends. In fact, the whole Bryan campaign is filled with this theory of unprecedented, unnatural, and inexplicable human baseness, and it does not excite wonder among his followers. Nothing of the kind has ever happened in the history of mankind. Turks and Tartars and mercenary troops have often ruined wide tracts of country, but they have had personally the fun of burning the houses and destroying the property. No large body of men has ever labored for the destruction of another large body secretly, when nothing was apparently to be gained by the operation. It is unpleasant to remember that this suspiciousness, too, as alienists know, is one of the earliest symptoms of insanity. The sense of being followed or surrounded by enemies is too often the forerunner of hopeless brain disease.

ARCHBISHOPS AND ORTHODOXY.

In choosing Dr. Temple, Bishop of London, as the successor of the late Archbishop Benson, Lord Salisbury has done one of those rash and radical things which only a Conservative Government can venture upon in safety. When Mr. Gladstone named the same man in 1869 as Bishop of Exeter, there was a wild outcry from startled Churchmen, and a resolute effort made to prevent his confirmation. Probably the real grounds of objection to him were that he had openly and vigorously supported Mr. Gladstone and Irish Disestablishment, but the formal charges laid before the Vicar-General alleged that he was not sound in the faith—the chief document in the case being his contribution to that *scandalum magnum* of the '60s, the 'Essays and Reviews.' But Dr. Temple was confirmed nevertheless, and in 1883 gave fresh offence with his volume of Bampton Lectures which were open to the suspicion, to say the least, of being the product of a rationalizing mind. Yet he was promoted to the See of London two years later, and now becomes Primate. Like Tait, he reaches the position via Rugby and the bishopric of London, but who could have picked out the daring Essayist and Reviewer of thirty years ago as the man to receive the highest dignity of a Conservative church at the hands of a Conservative Prime Minister and ostentatious Churchman?

The solution of the mystery is, we suppose, very simple. Theological views scarcely count any longer in these matters. The work of a bishop is largely executive—the Archbishop of Canterbury, in particular, must have a vast genius for detail and dispatch of business. Given a man of ability (and Dr. Temple's is unquestioned and preëminent), who will be fitted to grace the office in all its public aspects, who has a record of organizing and administrative success behind him, and who is willing to work like a horse, and his particular stripe of theology is hardly worth considering any more. Yes, there is one part of his theological attitude which is most important: How does he stand on the question of High and Low Church? What does he think of chasubles and thurifers? Extremes here will never do. An Archbishop of Canterbury must not be too High nor yet too Low, must not indulge in Romish practices himself, but must not be too hard on those who do. Bishop Temple, like both his immediate predecessors, is thought to be well qualified in these particulars. There will be a decent ecclesiastical peace in his day, and that, Lord Salisbury no doubt concluded, is the main thing.

Yet the Bishop of London's elevation to Canterbury is, after all, a striking sign of the times. Like many other such signs, it shows how theology does get on in spite of everything. Macaulay's famous and rather futile assertion that theology could not be a progressive science—for all you had to do, whether you were in Patagonia or in Oxford, was to sit down with your creed and your Bible, and there was an end of it—has had of late some striking commentaries in England. One of them was the address of the Bishop of Lichfield at the opening of the Church Congress. The congress met at Shrewsbury, Darwin's birthplace, and this fact was noticed by the Bishop, who said that "all members of the church of Christ owed a great debt of gratitude to Charles Darwin. He had simplified and interpreted, as a true man of science would be anxious to do, the methods which have been pursued by the Great Almighty Creator in His works, and in so doing he had added to the dignity of the conception which they were able to form of Him who made us and all the world." Think of all this being said, and no one having a fit, within thirty years or so of that other bishop's ferocious attack on Darwin, and on Huxley as Darwin's friend and champion!

All this, of course, is but one chapter out of a history where all chapters tell the same story. Theology is never more in a state of flux than at the very occasions which it chooses for the purpose of asseverating that its metes and bounds are fixed for ever. As a living science, in a living, breathing world, it must be so. The folly is not in changing, but in denying that one has changed. Canon Gore read a paper at Shrewsbury in which he frankly admitted that "evolution had taken hold of theology; it had modified our way of thinking about it. It would not be dislodged." This is undeniable, and the only wonder is why theology has been so long about it, why it is thirty years behind the rest of the educated world in submitting to, if not welcoming, the most fertilizing intellectual principle of the century. The explanation doubtless lies in the tenacious conservatism of the Church, which has its great advantages, all must concede, as well as its unfortunate drawbacks.

Two dangers confront the Church in its changed attitude towards science. One is that it will potter away, and make a vain show of being liberal and progres-

sive, over an obsolete science. It fights Hugh Miller for a generation, and then turns round with much comforting talk about the way "the old red sandstone" confirms the Mosaic account of creation, after Miller, in the scientific world, has become only an historical curiosity. It is a melancholy truth that theology, as a general rule, falls a-fighting only thirty years after that battle is all over and a fresh one started elsewhere. The other danger is that there will be an ignorant and undignified scurrying after all kinds of undeveloped or pseudo-science, in order to press it instantly into the service of theology. We read at this moment of a leading clergyman of Cleveland preaching on "The Being of God Illustrated by the X-Rays," "The Soul and a Future State, Illustrated by Psychical Facts," with much other weariness to the flesh. To all such rushers-in, and to that kind of theology in general which is so anxious to show that it is not only up to date but quite ahead of the calendar, we may commend that beautiful saying of the Psalmist's—fit epitaph for either the devout theologian or the humble agnostic—"My heart is not haughty, nor mine eyes lofty; neither do I exercise myself in great matters, or in things too wonderful for me."

NOVELS AND NEWSPAPERS AT THE CHURCH CONGRESS.

"Reading and the invention of printing are the greatest blessing ever given to mankind, or else the greatest curse, I forget which." This uncertainty, to which a witty maker of books confesses, seems to have possessed the minds also of the gentlemen who addressed the recent Church Congress in England on the subject of "Current Literature, Society Papers, Novels, etc." In fact, they distinctly held a brief for the curse. Unlike Disraeli on a famous occasion, they did not side with the angels. If Macaulay's New Zealander, in the intervals of his melancholy reflections over the ruins of London, should unearth a copy of the proceedings of this Church Congress as his sole means of information respecting the condition of English literature at the close of the nineteenth century, he would conclude that it was in a state of lamentable decay and corruption. This was an inevitable result of classifying literature among the deadly sins of the day against which the Church must bear her testimony. When you assign an afternoon to "Tendencies in Modern Society which need to be considered in the Light of Christian Teaching," any one at all versed in such matters instinctively feels that the said tendencies are sure to be bad. Grouped, at any rate, at this particular congress, literature was with social extravagance, questionable amusements, unwholesome recreations, and the other snares which the enemy of souls spreads for the feet of the unwary.

Of course, a Church-Congressman, like all other mortals of this evil time, when he says literature means novels. Fiction *is* literature nowadays. As the presumption used to be that all poets were atheists, so the fair inference now is that every writer is a novelist. Historians, essayists, poets are all very well in their humble way, but the serious and strenuous workers in literature, the men who go about bent and haggard under the burden of their solemn calling, are those curious descendants of light-hearted troubadour and jongleur—the modern novelists. Thus no one should have been surprised who went to the Congress hall to hear the Dean of Rochester read a paper on current literature, at finding that it was all about novels. A thing equally agreed was it that it should be all about objectionable novels. The *Spectator* had, it is true, intimated in advance that the clergy would be attacking books and papers about which they knew nothing. But Canon Ainger repelled this with suitable warmth. Since when was it necessary to know all about what you were assailing? As the gay Mr. Jacobs lately said, when brought to book for some wild work of his in Arabic literature, "Of course, this is all conjecture. Else where should I come in?" Moreover, as Canon Ainger truly said, it was possible to pick up more than enough knowledge of current literature without devoting much time to it, and there was, besides, the solemn duty of the clergy to pay some attention to morbid as well as healthy literature. In this disinterested spirit, and with smelling salts and handkerchief ready, many-a clergyman has gone a-slumming in literature, taken copious notes, printed them, even preached them.

There was more or less of such professional mannerism about the papers read, but it must be said that they were in essence sound, and contain truth to which we should all do well to give heed. The Dean of Rochester was naturally the lighter of touch, and his cry for a deliverer from the "impossible" novel was more original and needful than his condemnation of the other two classes of the objectionable novel—the "lascivious" and the "profane." Open defenders of the latter, once admitting the definition, it would be hard to meet. But the impossible novel has become thick as the leaves in Vallombrosa, and its producers and consumers afflict the land. The great objection to it, said the Dean, is that it gradually saps the power of credulity, as well as the capacity of being thrilled and wearing beads of agony on the bewildered brow, and that it is filling the world with a lot of infinitely weary readers. They are perfectly certain in time to lose all gratification at hearing the distant bay of the ferocious bloodhounds, and are already more and more feebly putting spurs to their gallant chargers flecked with foam and blood. They cannot much longer have zest in dangling over the sea on ropes by which they have escaped from prison, and which they observe to be gradually fraying in two against the sharp edge of the rock. As for the joy of being struck down by a blow from behind, just as you are polishing off the last of the five ruffians who had beset you, losing consciousness, and then all a blank until you awake in a cottage which is small but scrupulously clean, with the object of your affections gazing fondly upon you with finger on her lips—as for all this, the Dean of Rochester truly said that there are growing multitudes who sadly say they find no pleasure in that kind of amusing literature.

Fully as much to the point, if uttered in graver tone, was what Canon Ainger said about the terribly unbracing effect on the mind of a steady reading of the futile gossip and silly scandal that make up the typical "society paper." If the Canon had known the sort of thing in that line we produce in this country, what with the "serio-comic" ventures and the crime-loving and crime-breeding exploits of our daily press, he would have given his censure a keener edge. As it was, he said the least that could be said about the evil when he affirmed that its direct and main effect was "further to enfeeble already feeble minds." The only remedy he thought to be at all hopeful was the gradual leavening of society with true mental and moral culture. We think he might have gone further, as far as our own plight is concerned at any rate, and called upon church and clergy not only to denounce but to cease to patronize an immoral and debasing press. One of the appalling things about our newspaper evil (for its existence ought to be recognized just as clearly as that of the social evil) is the utter lack of intellectual and moral discrimination which leads good men to make themselves *participes criminis* with the deadliest journalistic instruments of Satan by reading, patronizing, and even praising them.

THE MARRIAGE OF THE CROWN PRINCE OF ITALY.

Italy, October 7, 1896.

The betrothal of Prince Vittorio Emanuele III., or, as the republican papers call him, "Prince Gennaro" (he bearing also the name of Gennaro, the patron saint of Naples), to Helen Petrovitch, daughter of Nicholas, Prince of Montenegro, differing as it does from the ordinary routine of royal marriages, has aroused more sentiment throughout the country than anything connected with royalty has done for many a long year. The young heir apparent has never been much before the public. As a lad he was kept tied to his mother's apron strings, allowed to have pretty much his own way, provided he attended mass regularly and duly performed his religious duties, while his early education was more literary and artistic than that bestowed on any former scion of the house of Savoy, from which on both sides he descends. Physically he betrays the Hapsburg blood, es-

pecially in the protruding under lip and haughty bearing derived neither from his father nor his grandfather (bluff soldiers both), but from his grandmother and great-aunt, Austrians in heart and feature. At eighteen King Humbert decided on making a soldier of this only son and heir, and until lately kept him entirely aloof from politics. On one point only the young man proved indocile to parental authority: he declined to marry, partly, it is said, on account of his delicate health, partly, perhaps, because none of the royal brides proposed suited his taste. Hence the announcement of his betrothal to the beautiful Helen of Montenegro, with whom he is said to have fallen in love at Venice, when the Princess, with her mother and two sisters, were there on a visit, comes as a surprise. Their acquaintance was renewed at St. Petersburg, and on his return the dutiful son asked permission of his parents to formally demand her hand in person—a permission readily granted, as the royal couple were only too glad to consent to what seemed the only chance of the crown descending in the direct line of Carignano. Said and done. The young Princess, whom rumor first assigned to the present Czar before his marriage with the daughter of Queen Victoria's "Alice the well beloved," was gladly accorded by the head of the Petrovitches to the heir apparent of the Italian throne, no difficulties being raised to the proviso that she must abjure the faith of her forefathers and become a pervert to the Roman Catholic Church. So the wedding is fixed for the 24th of October, and is to be a simple family affair, the King insisting from the first that this year of disasters, when thousands of families are mourning their dead and vainly awaiting the return of their imprisoned sons, is no time for public festivals or for the interchange of gorgeous costly international courtesies.

The Jingo party, who still clamor for "war to the death" against the Emperor of Abyssinia, aver that this is no time for any royal marriage, and do not conceal their contempt for the penniless daughter of a mere "brigand chief," as they style the warrior head of the Petrovitches. Nor is their animosity diminished by the successful termination by the Rudini-Visconti Venosta Cabinet of the Tunis treaty, which puts an end to the useless, fruitless, baneful friction between France and Italy. Grievous certainly to Italy is this final irrevocable recognition of France as paramount in Tunis—Tunis, which, but for Italy's unskilful diplomacy at Berlin in 1878, might now be a flourishing Italian colony. Nothing remained for the Italians save to make the best possible terms with the republican masters of Tunis, and this from a commercial and political point of view the present ministry has succeeded in doing. The Jingoes will not admit this very evident fact, but the country is satisfied and looks forward to a general renewal of commercial relations between the two countries. There is not the slightest foundation for the report set afloat by the Jingoes that the King is hurrying on the wedding because he has decided never himself to sign a peace with the Emperor of Abyssinia, resolving rather to abdicate and leave that task to the young King Victor Emanuel III. The rumor probably originated in the fact that the heir apparent did, at the moment of the crisis, when Italy was on the verge of revolution, leave his regiment at Florence, and, going to Rome, ventured to remonstrate with the King on the folly of plunging the nation into civil war for the sake of an impossible revindication of territory unjustly acquired, and useless as an acquisition. Possibly his remonstrance may have decided the King to accept the resignation of the late ministry and to accord his sanction, however reluctant, to the proposals of their successors for the settlement of the African muddle.

Parties and partisans aside, the marriage is popular throughout the country, for whereas a mere matrimonial alliance with any of the European dynasties would have excited no interest (that of the Duke of Aosta with the Orleans "right divine" family was held in aversion), this wooing of Helen of the Black Mountain appeals to the sentimental side of the people. Mazzini's predilection, too, and Garibaldi's enthusiasm for the sturdy patriots who, after centuries of struggle, cast the Turkish yoke from their necks, and, unlike their neighbors, sturdily and successfully refused to exchange it for that of Russia or Austria, harmonize with the present rapprochement.

In 1877 Russia had vanquished Turkey and was disposed to repay those who had assisted her in so doing. Foremost of these was Montenegro, and the Czar had, in the Treaty of San Stefano, both strengthened and enlarged the gallant little state. But here Austria intervened, and the Treaty of Berlin reduced considerably the benefits of San Stefano. The reunion of Antivari and the adjoining territory to Montenegro was fettered with the conditions that the region south of and up to the River Bojana should be restored to Turkey; the commune of Spizza incorporated with Dalmatia; Montenegro permitted free navigation on the Bojana, but prohibited from owning ships of war or a naval flag of war; foreign war-ships not allowed to enter the port of Antivari; the existing fortifications razed and no others constructed; maritime and sanitary police placed under the control of Austria in Antivari and all along the coast of Montenegro, which must adopt the maritime legislation of Dalmatia. Austria was pledged to accord her consular protection to the commercial flag of Montenegro, and with Austria must be concerted the right of constructing and maintaining roads and railroads in the newly acquired territory. This pettifogging arrangement was irksome indeed to the Montenegrins, whose hatred of Austria breaks out from time to time with scarcely less vigor than that displayed in former times against the Turk; but, say they, "The end of the Turk is not far off, and that will be the beginning of the end of Austria." Russia stands stanchly by the Montenegrins, and, should the unfortunate young King of Servia come to an untimely end, as he has no direct heirs and the Servians are close allies of the Montenegrins, there are more improbable things on the cards than a union of the peoples of Servia and Montenegro under one government. At the time of Prince Victor's betrothal it was rumored that Prince Nicholas would bestow the hand of his younger daughter Anna on King Alexander of Servia, and there was no doubt that the young King was anxious to take her for his helpmate, or that the Servians would have welcomed her right heartily. But the prudent head of the house of Petrovitch did not see his way clear to ally his fortunes with the disorderly house of Obrenovitch. Possibly the Czar, whom he has hitherto called his "one friend in Europe," dissuaded him from the step; probably his new friends and relations of the house of Savoy will be of the same opinion.

The marriage contract is being signed today, two ministers of the Prince of Montenegro arriving yesterday. The Italian ministers chosen are Costa, Minister of Justice and Pardon, Visconti Venosta, of Foreign Affairs. This contract remains secret. As soon as Parliament is reopened, the question of the young heir's appointments will be discussed. Hitherto his father has supplied him from his own civil list, supplemented by his pay as colonel. The religious ceremony will take place in the Church of Santa Maria degli Angeli; the royal couple will pass their honeymoon in Florence, the Prince returning to his regimental duties. Many of the newspapers have stated that Carducci is writing an ode for the occasion—some have even given the subject, others have gone so far as to quote lines from the poem. There is not the slightest ground for the rumor. "I have no talent for royal epithalamia," is a phrase of his own, and you may be sure that, during the wedding festivals, Rome will not see her poet's face. He has just completed and published the second volume of the 'Italian Resurrection,' of which I shall send you early extracts. Now he is finishing his preface to the 'Political Writings of Alberto Mario.' After that, he says, "I shall devote myself to philology."

J. W. M.

THE LONDON ARTS AND CRAFTS EXHIBITION.

London, October 2, 1896.

It is three years since the Arts and Crafts Society gave its last exhibition in London. In the meanwhile, it has been discovered by the foreigner. The Frenchman has come to it for his new sensation, and the least successful brasses of Bond Street and the always beautiful glass of Whitefriars make a triumphant display in Paris, at M. Byng's "Salon de l'Art Nouveau," which, as the name explains, prizes novelty above all else. The fever has spread to Germany, with, so far, the ponderous quarterly *Pan* as chief outcome. In Belgium, that centre of eager but often unintelligent imitators, wall-papers in which Mr. Morris's designs have gone quite mad, and furniture in which everything is sacrificed to affectation, are the tribute offered. It is needless to point out how frequently the American book reveals the English influence. In fact, of late years, it is to England that many people interested in the decorative arts have looked for inspiration; and with a certain amount of reason.

It is because of this effect which the Society has been having abroad that greater interest than usual is attached to its new show. So much has been heard of the copy that one is the more curious to look again at the original—in this case, to tell the truth, often enough a copy itself. Moreover, one feels that artists and craftsmen who have the sense not to follow the fashion of giving a yearly exhibition just for the sake of giving it, must, when they do open their gallery, have something worth showing. But it must be confessed that the collection now in the New Gallery presents much the same features and characteristics as the other collections which the Society has got together in the past. The mistake the members have made from the start has been to set up for themselves far too narrow a standard. They have never been able to see beauty in anything but in the "Neo-Gothic," of which Mr. Morris, by far the strongest personality among them,

is the master. Now, it is not necessary, at this late date, to insist upon the excellent work that Mr. Morris has often accomplished, or upon the change for the better that began with the founding of the famous house of Morris, Marshall, Faulkner & Co. But that which may be strength in the leader is apt to become feebleness in the follower; and yet the Arts and Crafts Committee would rather accept the weakest work done after the approved models, than any genuinely original and distinguished performance of the man who holds another and opposing artistic creed. The result is, as it has been from the beginning, a pervading amateurishness, which often interferes with one's enjoyment of the really great and good things included.

Again, the shortcomings of previous years are as obvious as ever. For example, there is but little furniture shown, and that little is mostly commonplace. I could find no exception to the rule unless it was a fine mantelpiece in wood, which really should be ranked as architectural decoration rather than furniture. This was designed by Mr. Harrison Townsend; it has for ornament carving by Mr. George Frampton, and is a graceful, imposing structure, free from sham mediævalism, that will be seen to still better advantage in the hall for which it is intended. Ranking with this is a most impressive lectern, the work of Mr. W. Bainbridge Reynolds. Carpets, as well as furniture, are sadly neglected, though I know of nothing to which arts and craftsmen could so well turn their attention. If more thought has been bestowed upon wall-papers, it is simply to prove that well-known designers continue to be without rivals; here the men legitimately conspicuous are once more Mr. Lewis F. Day and Mr. Walter Crane, the latter in a new and striking arrangement of his favorite peacock motive. It is the same with the textiles, which also give the palm to Mr. Day. It is the same with the glass, where Powell & Co. are supreme, and, indeed, the world over I know of no glass to compete with that which comes from Whitefriars. Perhaps, in fairness, I ought to add that there are three or four wonderful pieces of enamelled glass by Miss Casella, which could hold their own if placed side by side with the old Dutch and Venetian models. But, after all, if I were to mention every individual exhibit of merit, I could make quite a long and pleasing catalogue.

My object, however, is to consider the main tendencies of the exhibition as a whole, the sole consideration of importance to those who cannot visit the gallery. I might describe at length Mr. Morris's new tapestries, for the largest of which he has taken Botticelli's "Spring" as subject, and executed it with extraordinary fidelity, when one remembers the difficulty of his medium, but with, to me, a somewhat unpleasant crudity and gaudiness of color. I might, too, enter into a minute explanation of Sir Edward Burne-Jones's designs of "Ministering" and "Praising Angels" for the other two tapestries, and of "Love" for a most splendid panel in needlework, since these are among the masterpieces of the collection. But I think, especially at the present moment, it is more interesting to note that the Society, after its three silent working years, shows very little improvement, very little progress, very little sign of that vitality without which schools of art are never founded or movements carried on. Of the younger men, but two or three stand out with any special distinction: Mr. Christopher Whall, who has [illegible]king a delightful series of decorations for Douglas Castle chapel, though in his designs Sir Edward Burne-Jones is too evidently the inspiration; Mr. Nelson Dawson, of whose silver caskets and enamel decoration I have already had occasion to speak in my notices of the Academy; Mr. C. R. Ashbee, who in his jewelry and metal work reveals more originality than any other exhibitor. Mr. Ashbee's silver and gold chalices and tankards are always exquisite in form and delicate in workmanship, while his jewels are set with a gayety and extravagance of fancy which is refreshing even when the result is not altogether satisfactory. But, save for these exceptions, it seems almost as if with the older members there must perish, not only the doctrines which they have preached with so much eloquence, but all trace of their influence. Their achievement has been great; their disciples have inherited but their weakness.

I am forced to the same conclusion when I turn to the books and illustrations. There is a case of the Kelmscott series; almost all the other volumes are but so many slavish imitations. That the Kelmscott Press should have led to Birmingham is to me one of the saddest spectacles of the day. Even when one has not agreed with Mr. Morris, one has had but respect for his mistakes. For the futile pretences of his imitators, however, there is no feeling but impatience. And, indeed, nothing could be more tedious than a collection of books, like the present, based upon the Kelmscott model. Even Mr. Hugh Thomson's edition of 'Pride and Prejudice' comes as a relief, though one wonders if it would have found its way into the exhibition had it not been issued by the Allens, Mr. Ruskin's publishers. Mr. Ricketts and Mr. Shannon and Mr. Lucien Pissarro are sufficiently tainted themselves not to suffer from being seen in such company, though their work is immensely better than the childish productions of Birmingham. But it is curious to note that even in this sort of bookmaking the chief triumph has been left to America. Mr. Berkeley Updike of the Merrymount Press, Boston, shows 'The Altar Book,' with illustrations by Mr. R. Anning Bell and borders and initials by Mr. Bertram G. Goodhue; and there is not a volume from the Kelmscott Press that can compare with it in clean, clear, sharp black printing. It has some of the Kelmscott faults—the page is sadly overloaded with ornament—in fact, it is but a reëcho of Kelmscott; but, as a specimen of printing, it is admirable. The original illustrations are as monotonous, almost all being done after the same pattern. Mr. Anning Bell's are the exception. He is decidedly a man who has something to say for himself, and who endeavors to say it in his own fashion, though it may be within conventional limits. Perhaps he has done nothing more amusing this year than a set of designs for playing-cards, a charming improvement upon the average pack in vogue. Another experiment to be noted is Mr. J. D. Batten's water-color print of "The Harpies," which is the most successful color print of the kind he has yet done.

It seems almost as if the members of the Arts and Crafts Society had hesitated to rely entirely upon their own work to attract the public, for they have set apart a room for an exhibition of designs and cartoons and pictures by Ford Madox Brown, who has waited long to receive the honor which is his due. It is he without doubt—and few will now deny it—who was the true founder of Pre-Raphaelitism. It is impossible to read the letters of Rossetti without realizing how much he owed to the older painter, and it is as impossible to read the history of Pre-Raphaelitism without knowing that it would never have been, or at least never have been just what it was, but for Rossetti. It has not been easy hitherto to form an estimate of Ford Madox Brown's actual work, for so complete an exhibition of it has never before been held in London. Of course even this one does not include the most important examples—the decorations for the Manchester Town Hall, for instance, or the "Christ Washing the Feet of Peter" in the National Gallery. But few pictures are hung. However, in these few, and in the long series of designs, something of his career can be learned. That he himself passed through many phases is evident. There are early pencil sketches, especially one or two exquisite, tender studies of a mother and child, that suggest Ingres. An early picture of "Mary Queen of Scots" points to a period when Devéria and Delacroix must have been his masters. There is even a water-color of "Sterne and Maria" that recalls Rowlandson. But gradually he developed a method and style of his own; gradually his close and deferential study of nature led him to that minute attention to detail which the ardent young Pre-Raphaelites borrowed from him. One wishes that he had held nature in a little less respect, for too often it bewildered and misled him. Problems of light and atmosphere interested him long before they had begun to preoccupy the modern artist; his strange picture with the foolish name, "The Pretty Baa Lambs," is, in its background, a marvellous study of summer heat brooding over a wide green landscape. And not only this, there was no one who was happier, when he chose, in giving his impression of a scene, or a portion of it: in the "Cromwell at St. Ives" a cattle market is indicated with a masterly breadth that few painters could rival. But in both these pictures—and they are typical—excess of detail mars their effect as a whole; they are curious rather than beautiful. Madox Brown was, too, a great colorist; Rossetti never surpassed the rich splendor of his water-color of "The Younger Foscari," or the dainty harmony of his tiny "King René's Honeymoon." And he was a genuine humorist in paint, scarce a canvas or drawing failing to reveal some touch of comedy or fun—now in a poodle watching the grim tragedy of the "Death of Tristram," or again, perhaps, the fatuous expression on a lover's face, as in the "King René"; and yet the humor is never allowed to obtrude itself or to strike a false note. For a time forgotten, because of the greater noise made by the more self-conscious and younger reformers, the world has at last begun to recognize his true position. It is to the credit of the Arts and Crafts Society, of which he was a member from its foundation until his death, that it is now helping to make him still better known by so characteristic an exhibition of his work. N. N.

Correspondence.

SOUND MONEY, AND THEN HANDS OFF!

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following extract from the second foot-note to the introduction to Kant's 'Streit der Facultäten' is just now of gravest significance to the American people. Its adaptability to our political needs justifies an applica-

tion far different from that for which Kant so pertinently employed it:

"Ein französischer Minister berief einige der angesehensten Kaufleute zu sich, und verlangte von ihnen Vorschläge wie dem Handel auf zuhelfen sei, gleich als ob er darunter die beste zu wählen verstände. Nach dem Einer dies, der Andere das, in Vorschlag gebracht hatte, sagte ein alter Kaufmann der so lange geschwiegen hatte: 'Schafft gute Wege, schlagt gut Gelt, gebt ein promptes Wechselrecht, u. dgl.; übrigens aber lasst uns machen.'"

GEORGE M. FORTUNE.

PARIS, TEXAS, October 20, 1896.

ANOTHER CAMPAIGN FORGERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have received a quarto pamphlet of forty pages by Horace F. Bartine, a member of the Fifty first Congress from Nevada, "issued by the California Silver Campaign Committee, Baldwin Hotel, San Francisco, September, 1896," on the first page of which, as a sort of dedication, is printed in large type:

"WORDS OF DANIEL WEBSTER.

"Daniel Webster, in the 24th Congress, December 21, 1836, said: 'Gold and Silver is the money of the Constitution. The constitutional standard of value is established and cannot be overturned. TO OVERTURN IT WOULD SHAKE THE WHOLE SYSTEM. Gold and Silver at rates fixed by Congress constitutes the legal standard of value in this country, and neither Congress nor any State has authority to establish any other standard or dispose OF THIS.'"

On the day named, Mr. Webster made his speech in the Senate on the Specie Circular. Mr. Bartine probably relied on a general ignorance or forgetfulness of the well-known fact that neither this speech nor any ever delivered by Mr. Webster touched upon any branch of the present financial issue. The silver variety of monetary madness had not then developed in any form.

The Treasury order of July 11, 1836, known as the "Specie Circular," had directed that only gold, silver, and Virginia land-scrip should be received in payment for public lands, and Mr. Webster spoke in favor of a resolution to rescind this order. The first sentence of the alleged quotation is entirely spurious. That statement was not made by Mr. Webster, nor was the language of the remainder of the alleged quotation used by him as is pretended. In discussing what is legal-tender money under the Constitution, Mr. Webster said, in that part of his speech which was so forcibly quoted thirty-five years later in the legal-tender cases:

"The States are expressly prohibited from making anything but gold and silver a tender in payment of debts; and although no such express prohibition is applied to Congress, yet, as Congress has no power granted to it, in this respect, but to coin money and to regulate the value of foreign coins, it clearly has no power to substitute paper, or anything else, for coin, as a tender in payment of debts and in discharge of contracts. Congress has exercised this power, fully, in both its branches. It has coined money and still coins it; it has regulated the value of foreign coins, and still regulates their value. The legal tender, therefore, *the constitutional standard of value, is established and cannot be* overthrown. *To* overthrow *it would shake the whole system.*" (Webster's Works, vol. iv, p. 271.)

"I am certainly of opinion, then, that *gold and silver, at rates fixed by Congress*, constitute *the legal standard of value in this country; and* that *neither Congress nor any State has authority to establish any other standard, or* to displace *this.*" (Webster's Works, vol. iv, p. 280.)

The words of Mr. Webster which are used in this pretended quotation are italicized, showing the character of the falsification.

CHAS. B. WILBY.

CINCINNATI, October 19, 1896.

ENGLISH AT COLLEGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "The growing illiteracy of American boys" is becoming so familiar a phrase that, while scientifically investigating the fact, we are in danger of accepting the condition as inevitable; but could not the colleges as well as the preparatory school do more to remedy the evil? At present the requirements for admission to the best colleges are such that something must be slighted, or else the average age of entrance must be raised. Sufficient pressure is put upon the lower schools to force them to send up their boys fairly well equipped in the classics and in mathematics, but the English departments have not yet compelled the schools to give a thorough training in their study.

It seems to me that the fault lies as much with the colleges as with the schools, for whenever the lower teachers have a chance to prepare a course of study irrespective of college requirements, they invariably supply fuller and better work in English. In other words, they tacitly acknowledge that they would give better instruction in English if they were not so crowded in other branches that they must neglect the most important one.

If, as is sometimes said, time is wasted in the lower schools, it might be possible to put more English training into that available time. Otherwise, rather than raise the age of entrance to college, would it not be better to lower the requirements in some other studies in order to give opportunity for English?

I should like to suggest, also, that considerable blame attaches to the committees who hire teachers in the preparatory schools. If the teacher of Latin or mathematics or physics does not himself speak grammatically, or does not appreciate the more obvious distinctions between the right and the wrong words in conversation, how can the pupil be expected to describe an experiment or translate a foreign language with any accuracy? If the influence of the school were uniformly good for five or six hours a day, it might go far to counteract the illiterate tendency of much home training. E. M. BUCKINGHAM.

ADELPHI COLLEGE, BROOKLYN, N. Y., October 21, 1896.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The discussion in the *Nation* of October 15 of English teaching in the preparatory schools, although I agree with some of its conclusions, seems to ignore, as many similar discussions have ignored, a very essential difference between the work of the teacher of English composition and the work of teachers of other branches. The teacher of physics or Latin, for example, when he takes his new pupils in hand, finds them utterly ignorant of the subject, and perfectly conscious of their ignorance. They are to learn all they are to know of these subjects through the teacher, and nothing that they see or hear elsewhere in any way interferes with or counteracts the work of the laboratory or the class-room. Under competent teaching there may be something like the same accumulation of knowledge and power by every individual in the class. If this accumulation is not steady, symmetrical, well ordered, the difficulty lies, if not altogether with the teacher, at least between the teacher and pupil. There is no third party who can be blamed.

The situation of the composition teacher differs from this in every particular. He takes students at fifteen or sixteen years of age, who have been studying the art of English composition under various circumstances from their infancy, without any vacation, and for a good many hours a day. They suppose themselves to be entirely competent, their habits of expression are fixed, and no two of them are alike. The time they spent in the study of grammar or composition during their earlier schooling, even if well spent, has counted little in comparison with influences elsewhere. The home, the very cheap newspaper, the street, have furnished them with their common speech; and although the first of these may sometimes be all that can be desired, very often the balance of power belongs to the others.

When the student begins the study of composition in school, these agencies by no means cease to operate. Year by year they grow stronger. This is what is meant, I take it, by the reference, in the protest of the principals, to "the growing illiteracy of American boys" which you took as the title of your article. Under favorable circumstances the teacher of composition is allowed forty-five minutes a day for three years in which, besides teaching something of the history of literature, he is to counteract influences that have fifteen years the start of him, and fifteen times as great present opportunity. The only remarkable thing is that, under such circumstances, he accomplishes anything at all. Certainly, to put upon him the entire responsibility for the productions of his pupils is gross injustice. As a matter of fact, I believe he can have very little power. The whole problem, as the protest of the principals implies, lies further back than the secondary schools or any schools.

As an illustration of where the responsibility belongs, take the advertisements that glare upon us from every possible point of display. Perhaps no other one perversion of talent has done so much to vulgarize our speech, and yet we seem powerless to defend ourselves. Would it not be more profitable to organize a crusade against this acknowledged evil than to prepare with trumpet and drum for another onslaught on the defenceless teachers in the preparatory schools, who are already doing the best they can? WILLIAM F. BREWER.

BOZEMAN, MONTANA, October 19, 1896.

NOT SENATOR SUMNER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As your reviewer of Haweis's 'Travel and Talk' quotes two apparently distinct passages alluding to "Charles Sumner," I cannot be sure whether Mr. Haweis himself confounds Senator Charles Sumner with the Hon. Charles A. Sumner, sometime a member of the national House of Representatives, and a well-known attorney in San Francisco. Probably he does so. The Hon. Charles A. Sumner is a son of Judge Increase Sumner, a well-known citizen of Massachusetts, who resided for many years in Great Barrington, where he died a good many years ago. This Charles A. Sumner is he who met Mr. Haweis in England in 1883, in "Francisco" in 1893, of whom it may be truly said he is a man of "integrity and pluck," and also that he has "always been a fighter of monopolies and

jobs." When in Congress he introduced a bill for a postal telegraph, a subject to which he has given great attention. If, as seems altogether probable, Mr. Haweis has confounded these two men, he certainly stands discredited as an observer of men. H.

[In the first passage we quoted from Mr. Haweis, the person in question is designated "Senator Charles Sumner."—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'The Forms of Discourse,' with an introductory chapter on Style, by William B. Cairns of the University of Wisconsin.

D. C. Heath & Co. will shortly publish 'First Italian Readings,' by Prof. B. L. Bowen, of the Ohio State University.

Copeland & Day announce 'An Outland Journey,' by Walter Leon Sawyer, with fifty illustrations by R. F. Bunner; and 'Songs of Exile,' by Herbert Bates.

The forthcoming volume of Frederick Warne & Co.'s "Public Men of To-day" will be 'Grover Cleveland,' by James Lowry Whittle, with two portraits. They will issue directly the sixth and concluding volume of 'The Royal Natural History.'

'Sketches of Printers and Printing in Colonial New York,' a popular account, by Charles R. Hildeburn, will appear in a limited edition of 375 copies from the press of Dodd, Mead & Co.

Fresh announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are 'The Last Days of Knickerbocker Life in New York,' by the late Abram C. Dayton; 'A Romantic Voyage to Venezuela and the West Indies,' by Ira Nelson Morris; 'International Law,' a simple statement of principles, by Henry Wolcott Bowen; and 'The God-Idea of the Ancients; or, Sex in Religion,' by Eliza Burt Gamble.

Brentano's, No. 31 Union Square, New York, have been appointed sole agents of the publications of the American Jewish Historical Society.

Besides Mr. Dole's edition of FitzGerald's 'Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám,' we have received a pretty paper-covered copy from the Dodge Book and Stationery Company, San Francisco, including the translator's sketch of Omar's life and his notes, the text being of the last edition. The proof-reading is too defective to be depended upon, but the small type, in which the lines are unbroken, pleases us better than that, more open, of T. Y. Crowell & Co.'s edition, which has, however, the merit of appending the text of the first edition and all the variant readings, together with FitzGerald's "Salámán and Absál," after Jámí, Tennyson's tribute to "my Fitz," and the portrait of the latter for frontispiece.

Messrs. Crowell also offset Mr. Lang's new Life of Lockhart with a reprint of Lockhart's Life of Scott in two volumes; but it is Lockhart's own abridgment of 1848 that is here in question, though the work had the benefit of revision in accordance with the latest information about the author of 'Waverley.' We can hardly call these volumes handsomely made except as regards the binding. The type is large and readable in itself, but the page is pretty condensed. A like judgment we should pass on the same publishers' two-volume edition of Browning's Poems: mechanically it is something less than attractive. The editors of *Poet Lore*, Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke, contribute the introductory biography and appreciation; and there are several portraits of the poet. Finally, this firm presents anew Ormsby's translation of 'Don Quixote' in two volumes, with illustrations.

The classic just mentioned, in its present garb, may well be compared, with respect to taste, with the 'Gil Blas' (in Van Laun's version) just reproduced in four 16mo volumes by Gibbings & Co., London, and J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. We except at once the binding, which the Spanish colors do not adorn, but the letterpress is delightful, and the little books are readily held in the hand. The same English and American houses put their imprint on a six-volume edition of Lane's translation of the 'Arabian Nights,' and with equal success. A brief introduction by Joseph Jacobs and illustrations by Frank Brangwyn give a special stamp to this beautiful edition. Their 'Robert Burns: Poems and Songs Complete,' in four volumes, Messrs. Lippincott publish in connection with James Thin, Edinburgh, and again we have a handsome product of the press. It purports to be a popular edition in behalf of an "instructive and deeply interesting biographical study"; to which end the poems are "presented unabridged and untampered with, and arranged in chronological order, the date of each composition being recorded." The fourth volume consists of the late Prof. John Nichol's estimate of Burns.

Burns is very much in evidence this centennial year. Mr. Andrew J. George has conscientiously prepared for D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, a volume of Select Poems, with copious notes, a glossary, index, and bibliographical references, and it will be useful for reading in school or privately. Noticeable is the complete edition of Burns's Poetical Works, edited by J. Logie Robertson for the Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde). The thin papers available in that establishment make possible the feat of filling 635 pages with large letter, and yet making a really slender book. The leaf is not so thin as to be annoyingly transparent. A chronological index supersedes a corresponding arrangement of the pieces, and there is the inevitable glossary with a sufficiency of notes. Of the same style and order of manufacture is the Oxford edition of Wordsworth's Poetical Works, with a compression of nearly 1,000 pages into a perfectly light and handy volume. The editorial work is from the competent hand of Thomas Hutchinson, who vouches for the inclusion of every piece of original verse known to have been published by the poet himself or authorized for posthumous publication, and who has taken the greatest pains with the capitals and the pointing. In the case of the minor poems he follows the arrangement of 1849-50, Wordsworth's own to the last. A chronological life-table is prefixed.

Well-conceived and tastefully executed are the initial volumes, of uniform appearance, of Kingsley's and Thackeray's novels, published by G. P. Putnam's Sons in connection with Service & Paton, London—'Hypatia' and 'Henry Esmond' respectively. They are printed in a bold type on laid paper, and bound in crimson cloth effectively gilt. The illustrations are pen-work, and are passable. The same combination gives us a still more elegant output in Carlyle's 'Sartor Resartus.' This, too, is the beginning of a series. Whistler's well-known portrait of the author faces the title.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. continue their uniform reimpression of Mrs. Stowe's works with 'Household Papers and Stories' and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin and Key.' The latter combination ought never to be abandoned. 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' will to the end of time remain an historical novel, and its verisimilitude will be questioned in one-half of this country for at least half a century to come. The documents, therefore—the 'Key'—do well to accompany it, refuting its assailants, and deepening the moral impression of the story. The 'Key' is by no means unreadable; it here fills half the second volume, but is comprehended only by extensive abridgment, involving whole chapters, some of which were in the nature of a general discussion of slavery from a Biblical point of view, and were not needful for a defence of the truthfulness of 'Uncle Tom.' This story, the foundation of the author's fame, properly leads in the Riverside Edition, and is accompanied by a biographical sketch of Mrs. Stowe, Charles Dudley Warner's "story of the story," and a bibliographical account of one of the greatest successes in literature. From the same firm comes 'A Year in the Fields,' a charming volume compiled from the writings of John Burroughs, and photographically illustrated by Clifton Johnson in a very intimate and personal way; the fine views showing this agreeable writer in his favorite environment, of wood and brook and Hudson River hillside, as well as about and in his own home.

A new and revised edition of President Jordan's 'Science Sketches' (Chicago: McClurg) has now appeared. In its present form the bibliography of scientific papers at the end of the book has been dispensed with, and, for the chapters on American bird nomenclature, "Darwin," "The Story of a Stone," and "The Evolution of a College Curriculum," have been substituted others on "Agassiz at Penikese," "The Fate of Iciodorum," "The Story of a Strange Land," and "How the Trout Came to California." As at present constituted, the book comprises nearly 300 pages of pleasantly written popular science, in which the science has the advantage of being the real article, written by one who knows, and not the far too common rehash of doubtful trivialities and obsolete sensations which often masquerades as science in books for the general reader.

The fifth volume of Dr. Hans Blum's 'Fürst Bismarck und seine Zeit' (Munich: Beck), was originally intended to be the final one; but as it covers a period of only eight years, ending with 1879, it was deemed advisable to add a sixth volume of 521 pages, bringing the work down to the celebration of Bismarck's eightieth birthday, on April 1, 1895. We shall not attempt to epitomize the author's interesting history of political events in Germany during the quarter of a century following the Franco-German war, but simply wish to call the reader's attention to the discussion of the Chancellor's internal policy. Shrewd and successful as Bismarck proved himself to be in diplomacy, he was a bungler in financial and economical affairs. His "Invaliditäts- und Altersversicherungsgesetz," which was designed to win the favor, by alleviating the lot, of the working classes, is, after nearly ten years' trial, generally acknowledged to be a failure, and is most severely denounced by those for whose benefit it was enacted. In financial matters Bismarck entertains a predilection for bimetallism without having any clear conception of what it means. It is a part and parcel of his agrarian programme, like the advocacy of a high tariff on American

agricultural products for the profit of the Prussian landowner, regardless of its effect in increasing the cost of living for the poor. While in office he was wont to air this monetary whimsey in private over a glass of wine, but never seriously attempted to embody it in legislation. In 1886, when he was disposed to favor an agrarian movement for the formation of an "International Double-Standard League," the Prussian Minister of Finance, Von Scholz, pricked this Utopian bubble by putting a few pertinent questions to its promoters, and then effectually squelched the project by declaring that "no one who loves his country, and does not wish to betray his country, can advise the Government to join such a league."

Arsène Houssaye's 'Souvenirs de Jeunesse, 1830–1850' (Paris: Flammarion; New York: Brentano's) is light reading, and, considering the array of literary celebrities with which these reminiscences of an interesting period are interwoven, contains little of importance. Still, the book adds slightly to our knowledge of the men and women of the time. To learn that the poet of the 'Méditations' was in the habit of exclaiming, on the least provocation, "mille tonnerres de nom d'un diable" will be a surprise to many; to hear V. Hugo speak of Racine as a "maître d'études" is perhaps less unexpected. The author has not allowed himself to be troubled by promptings of discretion.

M. Henri Lavedan has gathered into a volume 'Les Petites Visites' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's), about a score of imaginary scenes from French social and family life, each of which involves a short visit. Most of the conversations are not particularly edifying, but there is a certain fascination about them all, due perhaps as much to the serious undertone as to the charm of language and vivacity of dialogue.

The heroine of Flagy's 'Cœur d'Or' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's) represents a type of the woman with one passion only, viz., ambition; but her individual character, as well, is strongly marked and well brought out in the course of her extraordinary career. The bright, fair, and strong-willed daughter of a retired officer, she rises from her modest and lonely existence first to the position of a lady of rank and wealth, and subsequently, by a second marriage, to that of a sovereign princess, without recourse to seductive arts, neither feeling nor wishing to inspire love. Her moral conduct, in the narrower sense, is irreproachable from beginning to end; ambition has engrossed her heart to the exclusion of all other passions, good or evil. The story is decidedly out of the common order. It may not be generally known that "Flagy" is the nom de plume of the aged widow of the Comte de Mirabeau, the daughter of Colonel de Gonneville.

The *Geographical Journal* for October opens with an account of a journey in the valley of the upper Euphrates, made two years ago for the purpose of discovering traces of the Roman system of defences of this eastern frontier of the Empire. A peculiar interest appertains to it from the fact that the region visited has been the scene of the most recent Armenian massacres. In Egin, a town of about 15,000 inhabitants, there was in 1894 some complaint on the part of the Armenians of Turkish oppression, but there was no excited religious feeling, and outwardly "perfect toleration was exercised by Moslem to Christian, and vice versa." A day's journey to the north was Pingan, a village of about two hundred Armenian families, where there was "an excellent school, served by two French-speaking teachers, and a reading-room furnished with journals and reviews in the Armenian language." Mr. J. Theodore Bent describes a visit to the northern Sudan coast of the Red Sea. Traces of ancient gold mines were abundant. In one place the ruins of at least seven or eight hundred huts can still be seen, and scattered about are hundreds of crushing-stones. There are also numerous structures very similar to the ancient buildings in Mashonaland in South Africa. Dr. Sven Hedin's account of his passage of a desert in Chinese Turkistan contains a terribly graphic picture of suffering from thirst, hardly to be equalled in literature.

The principal article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* is Major L. Darwin's address before the geographical section of the British Association. It was chiefly upon developing the resources of tropical Africa through the construction of railways. Laying down the principle that none should be built in a region with a population of less than eight per square mile, he described the different routes into the interior, those projected as well as those in course of construction.

The opening of the port of Hangchow to foreign commerce on September 26, in accordance with the Japanese treaty, gives a timely interest to Mr. John Fowler's account of this place in the Consular Reports for September. The capital of a province with a population of thirty-five millions, the terminus of the Grand Canal (the great waterway of eastern China), and "the centre of the most extensive silk and tea districts in the world," it is the richest city in the empire. Its opening to foreign commerce promises not only to revolutionize the tea trade, but also to develop other industries, especially the cultivation of cotton and the establishment of silk and cotton mills. In anticipation of a great demand for machinery and other foreign goods, "English, French, German, and Japanese are all on the *qui vive*, making every preparation, flooding the country with catalogues, sending agents to Hangchow, and even trying to obtain choice sites for mercantile purposes"; but, so far as our consul knows, "not an American has made a move in the matter." This was written a year ago and, possibly, may not hold good now, the reason of this inactivity being, in Mr. Fowler's judgment, the fact that American interests in the East are almost wholly represented by British subjects. Tables of the exports and imports of the neighboring port of Ningpo are given, as well as a useful list of articles most in demand by the people. There is also an interesting account of an extensive journey in the Congo Free State by our commercial agent, together with statistical and other information. The figures are for 1894, and the outlook then was far from promising. The expenses of administration were a million and a half dollars, while the revenue, apart from subsidies, was six hundred thousand. The total value of the exports was $1,690,836.48.

The Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1893–94 follows closely upon that for the preceding year. Though the importance of the statistical matter which necessarily takes up a considerable portion of the two volumes is not to be underrated, educators, we presume, will prize especially the various contributions by competent writers on educational history, science, and methods, as bearing directly upon their work. Such are, among others, the article on "Educational Values," from Commissioner Harris's own pen, those on "The Psychological Revival," on "Sanitary Legislation affecting the Schools," on "Public Instruction in Italy," on "Education in Central Europe"—this last with an appended "German Bibliography of the History and Methods of Arithmetic," which, however, in spite of its two hundred and thirty-one titles, is neither new nor adequate, as specialists will easily discover.

The splendid hospitality of the École Pratique des Hautes Études is shown by the *liste des élèves*, published in the *Annuaire* of 1897 for the Historical and Philological Section. Here we find no exclusion either of sex or nationality. Armenians, Turks, Jews, Germans, Englishmen, and Americans are alike admitted as workers in this industrious hive of learning, directed by the highest intelligence of the Republic. Its catholicity in another direction is proved by such suggestive entries as the following: "Tchernitsky, Antoinette de, née a Swiridowka (Russe), and Witkowsky, Esther, née a Chicago, fellow de l'Univ. de Chicago." The indefatigable character of these scientific labors is hinted at in the report of one student of Old French, who was sent to Oxford to search for rare old words in the MSS. of certain Jewish commentators on the Talmud. He reports a collection of thirty-nine words discovered by reading through 1,292 pages of manuscript. The names of the directors and lecturers embrace such masters as MM. Monod, Maspero, Gaston Boissier, Michel Bréal, Oppert, and Lebègue. An instructive and sympathetic memoir of Joseph Derenbourg, late Professor of Rabbinical and Talmudic Hebrew, is contributed by M. Carrière. We shall have occasion hereafter to revert to the luminous essay, by M. Maspero, entitled "Comment Alexandre devint Dieu en Égypte."

A prize of £50, to be called the Welby Prize, is offered for the best treatise upon the following subject: "The causes of the present obscurity and confusion in psychological and philosophical terminology, and the directions in which we may hope for efficient practical remedy." Competition is open to those who, previously to Oct. 1, 1896, have passed the examinations qualifying for a degree at some European or American university. The committee of award (whose names will be published early in 1897) will consider the practical utility of the work submitted to them as of primary importance. The essays may be written in English, French, or German, must be typewritten and extend to at least 25,000 words. They should be headed by a motto, and accompanied by a sealed envelope containing the name of the writer. Manuscript from America should be sent to Prof. E. B. Titchener, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., and must reach its address not later than Oct. 1, 1897. The right of publication of the successful treatise is reserved.

We some time ago announced that a prize was offered, for general competition, for an essay in the history of religious liberty in America, for which the money ($200) had been placed in the hands of the president of Brown University. We now learn that the prize was obtained by Miss M. Louise Greene of New Haven, Conn., whose essay was on the history of the movement towards disestablishment and complete religious liberty in Connecticut. The donor, anonymous hitherto, is announced to be the Hon. Oscar S. Straus.

By a natural, yet not wholly excusable, error in our last issue, the sex of Prof. Dugard, author of 'La Société Américaine,' was mis-

represented. Miss Dugard is professor in the Paris Lycée Molière.

—Complementary to Bulletin No. 6 of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State, a calendar of letters from Jefferson, is the newly issued No. 8, letters to him (in the main). All his fellow-Presidents, from Washington to William H. Harrison, inclusive, except Van Buren, are more or less copiously represented, along with Sam Adams, Callender, Duane, Gallatin, Genet, Gerry, Granger, Meriwether Lewis, Thomas Paine, Lafayette, and many other eminent personages. The political current of the time is more or less discernible in the abstracts of letters from such correspondents, which show what a centre their recipient was; but quite as striking evidence of Jefferson's multifarious interests and intellectual attachments comes from other sources. In 1803 John Brightthought writes to him from Baltimore respecting a machine for printing calico; in 1805 John Chamberlin wants his encouragement for a proposed work on government; in 1787 Benjamin Hawkins will gratify his request for plants and seeds and a Cherokee and Choctaw vocabulary; in 1784, Francis Hopkins confers with him about air-balloons and a harpischord; in 1800, Robert R. Livingston passes judgment on his invention of a mold-board, etc., etc. Then there are innumerable demands for personal advice or assistance, with occasional offers of gifts—a saddle from Stephen Burrowes, his own bust from Joseph Ceracchi — which he accepts on being allowed to pay for them. Most amusing of all is the long series of letters from Mrs. Lucy Paradise, a Virginian whose domestic affairs were anything but paradisaical, her husband being given to liquor and in pecuniary straits; she hears that he gets drunk after receiving her letters, but in the end she reports his condition as "not drunk, but nervous," and the family peace seems restored—thanks, evidently, to Jefferson's good offices. Altogether this calendar is an impressive reminder of qualities which make Jefferson the most interesting of all the Fathers.

—That the world forgets very soon is evidently the opinion of Mr. John Ashton, for he now turns his antiquarian attention to the reign of William IV., in 'When William IV. was King' (D. Appleton & Co.). We shrink from questioning the justice of any view he may form on the subject. A publisher's list at the end of this volume shows that he is already responsible for twenty-eight works, mostly antiquarian. In some cases, indeed, their titles are printed in old English spelling. Thus qualified, he ought to know what the public needs to be told about the past and also what it will buy. The 350-odd pages now offered consist of clippings from the *Times*, the *Annual Register*, Greville's 'Memoirs,' and a few more equally recondite sources. We cannot guess what other people may think of Mr. Ashton's productions, but for ourselves we prefer going straight to 'Chambers's Book of Days' whenever we have an hour to browse in the succulent pasture of scraps and gossip. They are about equally systematic, and Chambers is more comprehensive. It ought, however, to be stated for the benefit of those who are addicted to Mr. Ashton, that 'When William IV. was King' maintains his usual standard of text and exceeds his usual standard of illustration. The chief trouble with it is that we all feel familiar enough with the period to find his jottings and excerpts either ume or inadequate. Had the general social mosphere changed a good deal more than it has done, they might be more interesting. We are less hard to please when Mr. Ashton plunges back to 'Humor, Wit, and Satire of the Seventeenth Century,' or even to 'Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne.' But so near home he is a trifle dull. Perhaps an exception should be made in favor of his notes on children in factories, Dotheboys Hall, and the Hon. S. Wortley's election bill of 1830. Even Mr. Lodge, after reading the latter document, will be constrained to admit that the English, though still far from electoral perfection, have made some progress towards it in the last sixty-five years.

—The interest which French scholars have again begun to take in the study of German literature is a gratifying evidence of the healing power of time. It has been frankly admitted by the French themselves that they were too much given over to self-admiration; the rest of the world was disregarded. "Who among the subjects of Louis XIV.," exclaims M. Mézières, "except the exiled St.-Evremond, had any suspicion of the genius of Milton?" And Boileau, although he wrote of epic poetry and the drama, knew nothing of 'Paradise Lost' or of the plays of Shakspere. In the eighteenth century, men like Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot, and others opened the eyes of their countrymen to the intellectual life of the neighboring peoples. It was England to which attention was first directed and which exercised the greatest influence, but from Mme. de Staël to Edmond Scherer the interest of the French in German letters steadily grew until the war of 1870 broke off all relations. Although France, during the last quarter of a century, has occupied herself with the literatures of the world more perhaps than ever before, patriotism has turned the French mind away from the study of German thought. The gradual resumption of relations was primarily the work of the Wagnerites like Lamoureux and Jullien. German music has won, and now there is evidence of a renewed interest in German literature. Prof. Grucker of Nancy, after his exhaustive studies in the pigtail age of Gottsched, published the Life of Lessing which was reviewed in these columns last March. Inspired perhaps by this work, M. Mézières of the French Academy has written for the September number of *Cosmopolis* the most luminous bit of appreciative criticism that France has yet contributed to the study of Lessing. To the unprejudiced reader it is a pleasure to see, in the cordiality and fairness of M. Mézières's tone, the promise that German literature is once more to receive its due at the hands of French scholars.

—Lessing's frank recognition of the debt he owed to Diderot constitutes a strong claim upon French sympathies. In attacking the formalism of the classic French drama he was doing only what Diderot had done before him, and M. Mézières implies that Lessing deserves well of France for having put into her hand a different mirror from that in which she had so long been admiring herself. Moreover, Lessing's criticism had no touch of Chauvinistic acrimony; it was no part of his purpose to make English taste the sole arbiter. If the 'Dramaturgie' exalted Shakspere and the Greeks, 'Laokoon' was directed against one phase of the English influence which was threatening Germany, namely, the false word-painting of Thomson's 'Seasons,' while in France Lessing would have recognized in Mérimée and Maupassant the products of his own teachings. He established, as M. Mézières puts it, the school of faithful and idiomatic translation which produced Schlegel and the elder Voss, and which has made the knowledge of the German language a key to the literatures of the world. The creative character of Lessing's criticism revived Germanic traditions, so long interrupted, and handed them over as a national heritage to the poets who had already arisen. "Productive" was the adjective which Friedrich von Schlegel applied to this kind of criticism, himself one of its greatest exponents. "Le critique a charge d'âmes," says M. Mézières, and for such men as Diderot and Lessing, though they left no great works of art behind them, he claims a place "parmi les premiers après les plus grands."

—Considering the indebtedness of modern culture to Italy, our histories of education do but scant justice to the contributions of Italian writers to the science of pedagogy. A recent volume by Prof. G. B. Gerini, 'Gli Scrittori Pedagogici Italiani del Secolo Decimoquinto' (Turin: G. B. Paravia), calls to mind in a forcible manner the almost total neglect of the earlier Italian humanists by authors of text-books on educational history. One has to turn to general works on the Renaissance rather, like G. Voigt's and Ludwig Geiger's, for information concerning their work and influence. Compayré, in his deservedly popular 'History of Pedagogy,' devotes a short paragraph each to Vittorino da Feltre and Aeneas Silvius Piccolomini; but of several other important educators of the fifteenth century that helped to adapt the ideas of the ancients to the requirements of a Christian education, he mentions not even the names. While drawing their inspiration and ideas almost exclusively from Plato and Aristotle, from Cicero, Quintilian, and Plutarch, some of these writers and teachers, like Vergerio, Vegio, and others, anticipated in more than one essential point the teachings of Locke, Fénelon, Basedow, Pestalozzi, Fröbel, etc. Their lack of philosophical insight, their inadequate conception of female education, and their failure to sympathize with anything like our modern ideas of popular instruction, have not prevented them from exerting an influence which often, as in the case of Vittorino, Piccolomini, and Guarino, extended beyond the boundaries of their native land. Prof. Gerini's book fills a gap in the history of educational thought, and will be the most highly appreciated by those who conceive of the history of pedagogy as an account of the continuous development of ideas rather than a record of special theories and practices attaching to a few famous names.

—The collected opinions of more than one hundred leading professors in twenty German universities, on a question involving radical changes in the whole fabric of modern society, form, it may be imagined, a weighty document. Its very title is imposing: 'Die Akademische Frau: Gutachten hervorragender Universitätsprofessoren, Frauenlehrer und Schriftsteller über die Befähigung der Frau zum wissenschaftlichen Studium und Berufe,' edited by Arthur Kirchhof (Berlin: H. Steinitz). The fulness of the title relieves us from quoting verbatim the questions which these men, most of them the highest authorities in their respective fields, were requested to answer. Their replies are arranged by faculties and departments, and range in length from a few lines to several pages. Some of the writers are reserved and undecided, a few positively averse to the higher education of women, but the great majority are surprisingly progressive for a set of men whom we naturally count

among the conservative social forces. Among the former are some theologians and jurists. An almost pathetic instance in the second class is the categorical declaration of the philologian Wüstenfeld, of Göttingen, now almost a nonagenarian, "dass ich der Zulassung von weiblichen Personen zu akademischen Studien . . . *entschieden entgegenstimme*." The members of the faculties of psychology and philosophy, twelve in number, are remarkably unanimous in their support of the new idea. Eduard von Hartmann, however, holding, as he does, that a liberal and general intellectual culture is obtainable only from reading, that the Gymnasia are nothing but "schablonenhafte Drillanstalten für den geistigen Mittelschlag," and the universities no longer institutions for the study of the *humaniora*, does not anticipate, from the admission of women to academic studies, happiness for them or for society, but he would not deny them that doubtful privilege. Interesting statements are contributed by Prof. Felix Klein, the well-known Göttingen mathematician (recently the guest of Princeton), and Prof. Dr. med. Franz von Winckel of Munich, who has nothing but words of praise for the female assistants, more than forty in number, who have been his co-workers in his medical and professorial career, and all but one of whom are at present earning their living as practitioners. A dozen or more eminent authors are hearty supporters of higher education for women, while the opinions of the few teachers in higher schools for girls which have been given room in the volume are divided.

FRANCKE'S SOCIAL FORCES IN GERMAN LITERATURE.

Social Forces in German Literature: A Study in the History of Civilization. By Kuno Francke, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of German Literature in Harvard University. Henry Holt & Co. 1896. Pp. 577.

Prof. Francke's work more than fulfils the promise of its title. It not only describes the social forces that have been operative in German literature, but also, and especially during the last one hundred and fifty years, it treats that literature as itself one of the most potent of these forces in shaping new social conditions. The range of vision is comprehensive, but the details are not obscured. The splendid panorama of German literature is spread out before us from the first outburst of heroic song in the dim days of the migrations, down to the latest disquieting productions of the Berlin School. If on so extensive a canvas there is here and there a faulty bit of perspective, a point of too vivid color, an occasional incongruity in the grouping, we none the less owe a debt of gratitude to the author who has led us to a commanding height, and pointed out to us the kingdoms of the spirit which the genius of Germany has conquered.

Prof. Francke's purpose is to show that there has been reflected in German literature "a continual struggle between individualistic and collectivistic tendencies — a struggle which may be said to be the prime motive power of all human progress." But the struggle is not that one tendency shall triumph over the other; the aim is that neither shall triumph, and the equipoise be maintained. In the book itself Prof. Francke does not always make it clear that this is his conception of the matter, but in the preface he expressly states that "those ages and those men in whom the individualistic and collectivistic tendencies are evenly balanced, produce the works of literature which are truly great." This is sound doctrine, and yet we cannot avoid the suspicion that Prof. Francke is something of a socialist; and if, as he seems to indicate, we are approaching a socialistic era, it shall cause us no mental wrench to carry his thesis to its logical conclusion, and assert that we are in that case approaching a period of disaster from which we can only hope that, out of the upheaval which the conflict of socialism with the irrepressible individual must occasion, there may evolve itself a new status in which the two forces shall again be balanced.

In each of the great epochs of German literature a culmination is reached in which the essential characteristics of the age are summed up in its highest representatives. It is a great merit of the author's method of presentation that in each period he discovers the elements out of which the next period is to be developed. By these subtle transitions the real continuity of growth is clearly brought out. The age of the migrations was doubtless individualistic, but its characteristic virtue was *Treue*, faithfulness—not "faith," as on p. 30, for the word is seldom free from an irrelevant subsidiary meaning. It was this strong national trait that, during the incursions upon the tottering empire of Rome, supplied by force of custom the authority which pertains to law; and this was the force, too, which in the course of centuries developed the feudal system and established the imperial power of the Hohenstaufen. The twelfth and thirteenth centuries were the most brilliant epochs in the history of German literature before Goethe. Surely here the two social forces may be said to have been "evenly balanced," but Prof. Francke calls the age of Frederick II., Walther von der Vogelweide, and Wolfram von Eschenbach exclusively collectivistic. It was an age, indeed, of lofty idealism, which the author associates with the collectivistic tendency, and it suits his purpose well to find at the very climax of this epoch the beginnings of an individualistic reaction in the direction of realism. In other words, the collectivistic tendency, beginning to get the upper hand, precipitated this reaction, which culminated in the reassertion of individualism through the Reformation. With this we have no quarrel, but we think Prof. Francke has failed to give due weight to the individualistic forces of the Hohenstaufen age.

"Wonderful and incomprehensible" are the adjectives which the author appropriately applies to the sixteenth century. Other great movements have accomplished their purposes, and out of the fulness of their achievements we can judge them. The Reformation was a great movement that failed, and we lack the final criteria for the complete understanding of that pregnant but futile time. Luther was unable to control the era of individualism which he had inaugurated, and Germany descended into the chaos of the Thirty Years' War. But if through individualism the nation had fallen, through individualism also she worked out her own salvation in the slow and painful process of two hundred years. In an individualistic spirit the great men of the classic age began their work, and it issued in the adoption of collectivistic ideals. Herder, says Prof. Francke, "conceived of all history as a conscious or unconscious striving after a harmonious blending of individual and collective forces." Kant discovered the same ideal in the intellectual and moral nature of man. Goethe, while regarding the highest culture of the individual as the crown of all, nevertheless taught in 'Wilhelm Meister' and "Faust" the gospel of human solidarity. The two opposing forces regained their equipoise. This, in brief, is the course of events as interpreted by Prof. Francke.

Before passing to the specifically literary aspects of the work, we have some doubts to express as to the validity of the contention that the individualistic tendency necessarily takes literary form in realism, and the collectivistic in idealism. These doubts arise at many points; but when we come to romanticism, which, as Prof. Francke says, was "individualism run mad," by what stretch of that elastic word can this be called realistic? We incline to the belief that the occasional correspondence between the social forces and the literary modes is accidental, and that realism and idealism in their alternation are governed by other laws than those which regulate the progress of society.

The author's characterization of the different literary epochs is lucid, and, except that his main thesis as to the balancing of the social forces at the culmination of an epoch is not always sufficiently emphasized, his exposition is admirable. Particularly interesting is the comparison he draws between the rude heroism of the migration and the courtly civilization of the Middle High German age. The heroic figures which arose in those days of wandering and war have accompanied the people in their progress through the centuries, taking new forms in altered times, until they received their latest, but probably not their last, embodiment in the music dramas of Wagner. These old sagas assumed the form in which we know them about the twelfth century. Some coarse realistic touches of the elder time still cling to them, but in the main they reflect the ideals of a cultured age. There is a psychological study of character and a fine appreciation of the spiritual life of which the brawny singers of the migration had no conception. The complex character of Gudrun, the poetic grace of Siegfried and the younger Kriemhild, and the moral elevation of Ruediger, whom Prof. Francke, with one of his illuminating comparisons, calls the Max Piccolomini of the 'Nibelungenlied,' all mark the advance which German culture had made since the grim days of the Waltharilied and the Hildebrand fragment. Poetry had passed into the hands of the knightly order when chivalric culture had reached its height, and it attained its highest perfection in the wonderful age of the Hohenstaufen.

In the "realistic frankness," or rather outrageous coarseness, of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, Prof. Francke sees a protest against the conventions of chivalry. These conventions had been carried to a ridiculous extreme, and the common sense of mankind revolted; the undercurrent of coarseness, never absent in any age, came to the surface uncontrolled by conventions of any sort. The beginnings of this realistic reaction are to be found in the "Neidharte" of the thirteenth century and were deeply deplored by Walther von der Vogelweide. It was then, as we have said, that the individualistic era began which lasted under the most varied forms down to the middle of the eighteenth century. In the dreary literary annals of this long period the sixteenth century alone possesses universal interest.

The Humanists receive somewhat cool treatment at Prof. Francke's hands. He regards them as destroyers only, and their literary work as sarcastic rather than appreciative. We regret that one of the most brilliant and

effective satires of the world's literature should have been passed over with a mere mention, the famous 'Epistolæ Obscurorum Virorum.' David Strauss has aptly compared this work to 'Don Quixote.' Each treats of an outgrown and therefore ridiculous mode of thought contrasted with the spirit of a new age, and by the touch of genius both works are raised out of the realm of mere timely satire into that of genuine humor. It accords with Prof. Francke's point of view to see in the later years of Luther the beginning of the literary decline, and to class Sachs and Fischart as exceptions. To us it appears rather that it was not until the last part of the century that the descent began; then, indeed, life had ceased to present worthy themes, and literature became the making of bricks without straw. But amid the confusing data of an age of high promise unfulfilled, perhaps the cleanliest shift is to take refuge in the author's "incomprehensible" sixteenth century. Its true history is yet to be written, but we venture to prophesy that, when it is, the Humanist movement, though only an episode in the great Reformation, will be seen to have been the force which reappeared later in the splendid pages of Winckelmann, of Herder, and of Lessing.

The petty and pedantic literature of the seventeenth century is treated with a kindly forbearance, born of the wonder that among a people so crushed and disorganized there should have been even these traces of intellectual energy. But we wonder that such cordial praise should be given to a few wretched examples of "the Protestant drama" which were based on the traditions of Terence. These are singled out as the beginnings of a national dramatic literature, instead of the equally wretched but more workmanlike and Germanic plays which grew out of the influence of the English comedians. We cannot understand in what sense the former were more democratic than the latter. To be sure, it makes little difference which seed would have sprouted since all were killed, but to us the line of development seems to have been from Hans Sachs through Ayrer and Duke Julius to Gryphius. Prof. Francke greatly underestimates Gryphius. Scherer, with clearer appreciation, speaks of him as the one who stood "for all that the Thirty Years' War had left of a German Shakspere." He had in him the stuff of a great tragic poet, and to rank him, as most historians do, with the inane representatives of the First Silesian School is to do an injustice to the greatest German dramatist before Schiller. After him the further we advance towards the middle of the eighteenth century, the deeper the literary degradation. The disastrous war had far-reaching effects: the human mind lay fallow. But if we regard this time as a period of recuperative sleep, we may agree with our author in considering it less as an age of decay than of necessary preparation for the development of a new society.

With the advent of Lessing the fresh, bracing air of modern thought disperses the mists of seventeenth century sentimentality. We are warned not to lay too much stress upon the English influence as opposed to French in the pages of Lessing, for many of his weapons had come "from the critical forge of Diderot." But Diderot himself, to carry out the figure, procured his bellows in England. Throughout this work the English influences are neglected, from the time of the English comedians down to the great Shaksperian revival a century ago. In a book written from a purely literary standpoint this would be a serious defect. To the classic age of German letters Prof. Francke devotes more than half his volume. The rehabilitation which he denies to Gryphius he accords with liberality to Klopstock and Wieland, and with warmth to Herder and Kleist. That the two former had a message for their time cannot be doubted. The period of enlightenment, exemplified in politics by Frederick the Great, found its literary representation in the exalted idealism of Klopstock and the wide culture of Wieland. The injudicious praise of Klopstock as the German Milton elicited from Coleridge the caustic comment, "Very *German*," but Prof. Francke forestalls this kind of criticism by taking the "Messias" out of the class of epics and calling it an oratorio, to be ranked with the works of Bach and Handel. These two names are several times curiously coupled in these pages as *par nobile fratrum*. The omission of Bach would render the comparison with Klopstock more apt, but the author goes so far in his apologia as to admire and quote "Die beiden Musen," in which the Muses of Britain and Germany run a foot-race, kicking up clouds of dust, perspiring and breathing heavily. We have still less sympathy with the laudatory superlatives with which Prof. Francke attempts to rescue the works of Wieland from their dusty repose. What though 'Agathon' was the best novel between 'Simplicissimus' and 'Meister,' and, as Lessing said, "the first and only novel for a thinking man of classic tastes"? We live in other times, and to-day the book is practically unreadable. It is our conviction that Wieland and Klopstock must rest content with the lofty place they deserved and won in the *history* of their national literature.

But with the splendid works of Schiller, the exalted conceptions of Herder, and the brilliant creations of Kleist, the case is different, and these glowing tributes will find a grateful echo in the hearts of all who love the rich literature of Germany. The plea for Schiller's "Jungfrau von Orleans," and especially for the superb "Braut von Messina," is bold and admirable; for "Tell" the pleader is obliged to make too many concessions. In the treatment of the writings on "Æsthetics," we miss any reference to the excellent lectures of the late Heinrich von Stein, 'Zur Aesthetik der deutschen Klassiker,' which are by far the best contribution of recent times to the discussion of this fascinating theme. Herder's importance is set forth in a convincing manner. To him, in some ways, as much as to Lessing, belongs the glory of having inaugurated the new era. He conceived of poetry, says Goethe, as "a gift to the world and to all peoples, and not the private heritage of a few refined and cultured men." He restored the Volkslied to German literature. He was the father of the modern evolutionary view of history. As to Kleist, those who do not know him will think Prof. Francke's words exaggerated, but they are true: his creations are invested with "a halo of immortal poetry." Of the 'Prinz von Homburg' it is written that "the history of literature knows of no other poetic production which . . . in a more emphatic manner manifested [*sic*] in itself the concentrated thought of a whole epoch than does this wonderful poem." Kleist was potentially the greatest dramatist Germany has produced, and his 'Michael Kohlhaas' is the best short story in the language. When he said, referring to Goethe: "Ich werde ihm den Kranz von der Stirne reissen," it was more than an idle boast; but the indifference of his countrymen drove him to suicide at the age of thirty-five.

In the treatment of "Faust," Prof. Francke's general plan compels him to take the two parts separately as products of two different periods, but it is entirely beside the mark to speak of an "original" and of a "later" conception. As well might one call Dante's "Inferno" the original conception of his 'Commedia,' and "Paradiso" a later one. "Faust" is an organic whole. We think that this is also Prof. Francke's view, for he cites among the most recent commentaries those of Baumgart and Valentin, who are both advocates of the unity of the poem. It was conceived as a whole from the beginning, and there is some evidence that the essential idea of the Second Part was in Goethe's mind before the Gretchen incident had taken shape.

We have left little space for the interesting chapter on Romanticism. The author regards this movement as a retrogression; the classic age turning back upon itself to the extravagance of the *Sturm und Drang*. This will serve as a broad generalization—both movements were "individualism run mad"; but the earlier movement was the rousing of the national genius in conscious though unchastened strength, the later one was the disappointed spirit of Germany taking refuge from the gloom of the present in the glories of the past—a mediæval renaissance. The *Sturm und Drang* sought for a land of freedom until Goethe cut the Gordian knot with "America is here or nowhere!" Romanticism went in quest of the mysterious "blue flower," and lost its footing in reality altogether. The work of men like the Grimms and Uhland is all that remains as a permanent acquisition of the human race.

The few errors in the book are insignificant. One of them Prof. Francke has corrected in these columns. The attention of the student should be called to the fact that, although Willmann's edition of Walther von der Vogelweide is the one named, the poems are all cited according to the numeration of Lachmann's. The frequent departures from the orthodox estimates are the result of the new view-point. They are often a distinct addition to our knowledge; much that has long been pigeonholed in our memory is brought forth to receive new meaning and importance, and we are stimulated by the new groupings of the literary phenomena. If we have ventured to disagree with the author in matters of detail, it is with the consciousness that he has excellent arguments for his own position. To the study of German literature in its organic relation to society this book is the best contribution in English that has yet been published.

PALMER MEMORIALS.—II.

Memorials. Part I. Family and Personal. 1766–1865. By Roundell Palmer, Earl of Selborne. Macmillan. 1896.

WHILE we find the keynote of these memorials in the author's religious experiences and theological interests, we must not altogether pass by his academic, legal, and parliamentary life. Roundell Palmer received his first intellectual training in a class taught by his father. The other members of the class were his brothers William and Tom. Rising early, they read the Psalms of the day and then proceeded with their classics. They began Latin at five years old and Greek at six. By the time they were nine they had made a good start in Virgil and Horace, in prose and

verse translation, and had begun the Greek Testament. *Pari passu* they did Shakspere, Milton, and other English classics. They had the run of a good library, and their faculty of observation was strengthened by outdoor lessons in the habits of birds and animals. The plates of Harris's 'British Lepidoptera' lured them on to the study of entomology. It was at Rugby, where he was sent in 1823, that Roundell Palmer came into competition with other boys and began to prove his mettle. Two years later, at the age of thirteen, he became a commoner at Winchester, then under the headmastership of David Williams. As a Wykehamist his contemporaries were Lowe, Cardwell, and W. G. Ward. With Ward he was on good terms, with Cardwell he formed a life-long intimacy, but his most valuable discipline came from rivalry with Lowe.

"To Robert Lowe (afterwards Lord Sherbrooke) I was under great intellectual obligations. Both from our place in the school—next to each other—and from other circumstances, we were very much thrown together. . . . A successful rivalry with him was not possible without effort, and the effort was constantly made. We did not always agree, for he was capable then, as since, of saying pungent things; and certain physical disadvantages under which he labored, and which he bravely overcame, sometimes tasked his high spirit and his naturally generous temper. But our friendship did not suffer upon the whole because we sharpened each other's wits."

Five years of Winchester brought Palmer youthful laurels. They also brought him care and responsibility in the form of præfect's duties, under which he groaned. In 1830 he was released and entered Oxford with an open scholarship at Trinity.

Lord Selborne's recollections of Oxford are for the most part personal and do not attempt a general survey of academic conditions. This is to be regretted, for the Oxford of 1830–33 was a centre of note, and Palmer's immediate set—Claughton, Thomas, Charles Wordsworth, Wickens, and Frederic Faber—while very good men, hardly deserve to monopolize his sole attention. An editor's note contains the remarkable list of his prizes, ended by a first-class, the Eldon scholarship, and a fellowship at Magdalen. Wordsworth's poetry was then a vital force at both universities. Palmer made it his guiding star.

"I know no other reading (except the Bible) of which the influence upon myself has been so profound and lasting. From Wordsworth I learnt, in Frederic Faber's company, large human sympathies. Wordsworth interpreted to me the language of nature as speaking to the heart of man; the beauty of everything real and true, the Divine voice everywhere, the worthlessness of whatever is artificial and conventional, in comparison with the common bond and heritage of o ankind. . . . Neither in those Oxford days, nor since, have I felt the presence of any discord in his works. A few of them, taken apart from the rest, may be thought trivial; but I think there are none which have not moved my feelings and helped to strengthen my heart."

Gladstone was at his zenith in the "Union" when Palmer began to speak there. After Gladstone graduated, the Conservatives were represented by Ward, Rickards, and Palmer, while the Liberal leaders were Cardwell, Lowe, and Tait. Each of these in turn became president of the society. In the spring of 1834 Palmer took his degree, and, before entering at Lincoln's Inn, acted for above a year as tutor to Lord Maidstone, the only son of Lord Winchelsea.

The reader will find little in these memorials to remind him of the barrister in active practice. Private cases, however important, are passed over for the weightier matters of public law, public affairs, and theological discussion. Palmer entered Lincoln's Inn resolved to follow Sir John Richardson's advice—law first, society afterwards. He prepared for the Chancery bar by a year of conveyancing and a year under an equity draftsman. "The descent from the flowers of history, poetry, and philosophy to those dry bones of technical systems, and especially to the dull copying-clerk's work and mechanical processes of conveyancing, was dispiriting enough." Even towards the end of his life Lord Selborne seemed to feel the *ennui* of this apprenticeship, for he passes over it rapidly. During the intervals of routine, religious and academic interests occupied his thoughts. The controversy over Dr. Hampden's Bampton Lectures, the status of the Canadian Church in 1837–38 involving the Clergy Reserves question, the affairs of the Christian Knowledge Society, the Jerusalem bishopric, and the contest between Williams and Garbett for the Oxford chair of poetry, take precedence, during 1836–44, of the "dusty purlieus of the law." One must not suppose that because Lord Selborne says little of his private practice he went without briefs. He won his spurs in the case of Knight vs. Marjoribanks, 1839. Following two senior counsel, he made such an impression that James Freshfield, solicitor to the Bank of England, wrote to Horsley Palmer: "From all I can learn, I offer my confident opinion that your nephew's fortune is in his own power, and that his exertions will not be more beneficial to himself than to his clients." That year Palmer passed the "Rubicon of £100." In the midst of engrossing work he never forgot his friends, and several portraits in chiaroscuro illuminate the narrative of his first London years.

While the steps by which Lord Selborne made his way to the head of the junior bar are but vaguely indicated, the course of his political life is fully set forth. At the general elections of 1847 he was solicited to stand for Plymouth in the Peelite interest, and, having carried the seat, his connection with that constituency continued ten years. In 1857 he was replaced by Mr. James White, whose sonorous cheer in the House of Commons earned for him the name of the "Plymouth Sound." Shortly after he entered Parliament, Palmer married Lady Laura Waldegrave, a lady of the same religious temperament with himself. They lived together for thirty-seven years "a life of uninterrupted love and happiness."

Election to Parliament gave Palmer a double hold on success, and throughout the decade 1850–60 he steadily improved his position. Becoming Solicitor-General under Palmerston in 1861, he had to deal with many of the important international questions which arose from our civil war. Along with the Attorney-General, Sir William Atherton, he advised the British Government on points of law arising from the cases of the *Florida*, the *Alabama*, the *Alexandra*, and the steam rams. He makes a strong *prima-facie* plea for his own action in the *Alabama* affair, and no future historian of the incident can afford to overlook his statements with regard to both fact and policy. His capacity for work was enormous. Busy as he was at this time with public duties, he managed to provide an anthology of hymns for the Golden Treasury series. Once Goldwin Smith, when calling at his chambers, was told by the confidential clerk that he had better not go in, "as Sir Roundell had not been in bed that week." The record of his later and more famous services will doubtless be given before long. With the Colenso episode, the fall of Bethell, and the death of Lord Palmerston the published part of this important memoir closes.

We have occupied so much space in the futile attempt to compress the contents of Lord Selborne's pages, that we shall conclude by offering two, and only two, considerations of a general nature. The first relates to the author's style; the second, to the essential qualities of his character. In 1837 he was much interested in the Upper Canada Clergy Society.

"Only one thing of importance to me arose out of my connection with this society. I had composed, in a much too florid and ambitious style, the draft of a letter intended to be sent by the committee to the Society's principal missionary. This Mr. Gladstone saw, and he spoke of it to me in terms of kindly expressed criticism. 'Too good,' were the words which he used, emphasizing them, so as to make it plain to me that the composition was not to his taste. I date from that criticism, of which I felt the justice, a dislike to an ambitious and rhetorical manner of writing, which has since grown upon me and has become a confirmed habit of my mind."

The text of the present work shows the result of fifty years' discipline in the use of compact and lucid English. Plain and straightforward, it seldom sinks into dryness.

Lord Selborne's judgments of contemporaries and rivals show him to have been a generous, kindly man. He writes without hard words or innuendoes, and is able to appreciate the integrity of an opponent's position. He is as modest as an ex-chancellor when speaking about himself can be. His memory is remarkable for a man of years, and his great strength of mind is revealed in many long arguments and disquisitions. Above all, true goodness is blazoned on his forehead. One is reminded here of a curious story which Renan tells about the observance of St. Yves's day in Britanny. St. Yves is the only canonized lawyer, and even his own people cannot get over the sense of anomaly. The burden of the song sung by the Bretons on his day is *advocatus et non latro, res miranda populo*. The legal profession has comprised many bad men. With all respect to St. Yves, it has contained no better man than Roundell Palmer.

Famous American Actors of To-day. Edited by Frederic Edward McKay and Charles E. L. Wingate. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

THE primary, if not the avowed, object of all books of this description, collections of stage biographies written by miscellaneous authors connected professionally with the theatre, is to secure a sale by gratifying the vanity of the actors selected as subjects for discussion, and provoking the jealousy or curiosity of those omitted from the list. In these respects the present volume proves no exception to the general rule, but it is superior to most of its immediate predecessors in fulness and accuracy of detail, in literary workmanship, and its comparative freedom from triviality and absolute silliness. Some of the articles, indeed, contain genuine and judicious criticism, but these, it may be observed parenthetically, relate to the dead, to players of assured and acknowledged distinction, or to those whose days of activity are ended. Of the remaining essays, the great majority possess more or less interest as records, but, otherwise, are simply fluent but worthless eulogies of the kind invented by box office agents and adopted complacently by the daily press. A sufficient expla-

nation of this characteristic will be discovered by the initiated in the names of the writers.

The best work in the book is to be found in the article, by Mr. Henry A. Clapp, on Edwin Booth, which is reprinted from the *Atlantic Monthly*, and was recognized long ago as a conscientious, appreciative, and thoroughly able piece of analysis, even by readers who do not agree with all its conclusions, and in a remarkably interesting and well written, if somewhat over enthusiastic, article by Mrs. E. G. Sutherland, upon William Warren, so long the pride of Boston. Mr. Edward King does no more than justice to the many delightful attributes of Joseph Jefferson's acting, but his paper would have been more convincing if he had taken some of Jefferson's limitations into account. The article on Mme. Janauschek, on the other hand, although highly laudatory, cannot be accepted as an adequate acknowledgment of her commanding genius. In high romantic tragedy she has had no peer in this generation except Salvini, and, considering her versatility, it is doubtful whether either Rachel or Ristori was her equal. W. J. Florence, the most versatile comedian of his day, is another actor whose most sterling qualities, if not altogether overlooked, are certainly under-estimated. The sketch of Mary Anderson is nothing but a synopsis of her autobiography, while that of Mrs. John Drew, whose fine skill could have nothing to fear from intelligent criticism, is a mere box-office puff. The only other essay worthy of particular mention is that on Ada Rehan, by Mr. E. A. Dithmar, which is a well-written and exhaustive plea in defence of a rather weak case.

Here comment on the book might stop so far as its historical, literary, or critical value is concerned, but the publication has a significance probably unsuspected by its compilers, though undeniably interesting to students and lovers of the stage. A moment's reflection will show that the very title of it is a misnomer. Not more than half-a-dozen of the actors commemorated in it can, by any stretch of courtesy, be designated as famous, and these cannot fairly be included in a list of representative players of to-day. Mr. Jefferson, to be sure, is still in harness and happily able to keep alive the memories of his earlier triumphs. But he stands alone. Janauschek, the ghost of her former self, "a noble wreck in ruinous perfection," lends occasional dignity to modern farce or melodrama, but her day is over. Modjeska has shaken the dust of New York from off her feet; Booth, Lester Wallack, John Gilbert, and William Warren have joined the illustrious majority, and Mrs. John Drew, worthy of fame even if she has not fully attained it, has retired into well-earned privacy. These are the only names in the selected list of forty-two worthy of permanent remembrance for high achievement in the artistic drama. Such conscientious and competent performers as Lawrence Barrett, W. J. Florence, and Charles Fisher, although they did good and valuable work, belonged to a lower class. They, too, are dead.

Who, then, are the famous actors of the contemporary American stage? In attempting to answer this question, Messrs. Wingate and McKay, after a survey of the existing material, propose the names (following their own order) of Fanny Davenport, Richard Mansfield, Ada Rehan, John Drew, Julia Marlowe, Agnes Booth, J. H. Stoddart, Maurice Barrymore, Rose Coghlan, W. J. Le Moyne, E. M. Holland, Georgia Cayvan, E. H. Sothern, Alexander Salvini, James O'Neil, and a few others of still less consequence, of whom some are dead and others in retirement. Of Edwin Varrey, the best "old man" in the country; of Eben Plympton, who has no equal on this side of the Atlantic as a leading man; of the veteran E. C. Couldock, of Ada Dyas, and of Joseph Wheelock, they make no mention at all. Others might be added, but the list as it stands fairly represents the best American talent. How many of these players are in the front rank? How many of them justify the hope that they may reach it in the future? Alexander Salvini has genius, but he is dying. Agnes Booth, J. H. Stoddart, and W. J. Le Moyne have done their best work. Miss Davenport is devoting herself to the vile Sardou drama, to the demoralization of her art and her audiences. Mr. Barrymore is and long has been in a condition of arrested development, and Miss Marlowe is going backwards. Mr. Mansfield has energy, ambition, ability, and artistic sense. In him, undoubtedly, there are latent possibilities, but it is a grave question whether his temperament will ever permit their realization. John Drew is one of the best light comedians to be found anywhere, but he is laboring in a restricted field, without much apparent chance of widening his artistic horizon, while Miss Ada Rehan, his old associate, an actress of peculiar ability in her own line, has impeded her own progress by venturing beyond her depth.

All this is only a rapid summary of facts long acknowledged and deplored by experienced and disinterested observers, but never, perhaps, so clearly demonstrated as in this book, which, in its search after famous American actors, upsets the very proposition which it set out to establish. "To-day," it is explained in the preface, is meant to refer to the decade just closing. Of the great actors who have adorned that period, only Mr. Jefferson is left to us. Of the competent performers of the second rank, all are past their early prime, and most of them—the subject is somewhat delicate are of an age which precludes any reasonable expectation of development. Within the ten years there has not arisen one single American actor, male or female, of any conspicuous ability in any of the higher walks of the drama. The temporary encouragement afforded by the early work of a few intelligent novices has been dashed by their later performances. Never was the outlook for the home theatre more depressing. Every season we are becoming more dependent for good acting upon the foreign supply, and there is small chance of improvement so long as the present system of management by syndicate prevails. It is not surprising that there should be no actors when there are no stock companies, the only schools of any value. But the production of a volume on famous American actors, in present circumstances, is a cruel, if unconscious, bit of irony. It also illustrates the prevailing lamentable tendency to describe all our theatrical geese as swans.

Moxon's Mechanick Exercises; or, the Doctrine of Handy-works applied to the Art of Printing. A literal reprint in two volumes of the first edition, published in the year 1683. With preface and notes by Theo. L De Vinne. New York: The Typothetæ of the City of New York. 1896.

THE selection of this rare volume for reproduction witnesses to the sound judgment of the master printers associated as "The Typothetæ," while the perfection of its manufacture is an honor not only to the De Vinne Press but to American printing. Moxon was a Yorkshireman with a mathematical turn, and an ingenious mechanic; he had been made hydrographer to the King in 1665, and by and by embarked in type-founding and printing. The present work was part of a series bearing the general title of "Mechanick Exercises," and "has the distinction of being not only the first, but the most complete of the few early manuals of typography." It is most orderly in treatment, and exceedingly minute in its instructions, which are aided by illustrations on copper. It is a mine of technical terminology, and is reinforced by a dictionary ready to Dr. Murray's hand. Mr. De Vinne, besides supplying a brief biographical introduction, masses at the end his annotations on the several chapters, comparing the art of Moxon's time with that of to-day. The changes have been astonishingly few in some branches, but very great in others, notably in presses. Indeed, the mechanical insufficiency of that steamless age is the most striking lesson of Moxon's manual.

The original edition was produced without any particular regard to an exemplary appearance, and would have yielded but a dingy photographic facsimile. The Typothetæ therefore undertook a line-for-line and page-for-page copy, correcting merely literal errors, and using a type, derived from Caslon's punches, which bore a tolerable likeness to Moxon's. This very noble letter, composed with the most scrupulous accuracy, and admirably printed on Holland paper, gives us a sample of American typographic skill which is at once a monument to the makers and to Moxon. Being limited, however, to 450 copies, and not being in the market, this reprint will be almost as inaccessible as the remainder of the 500 first printed in 1683, of which but three are known to be on this side of the Atlantic, and but two in England. The volumes are very tastefully bound in brown leather with orange-colored sides.

One must be somewhat versed in "the art preservative" to follow Moxon's text with a lively interest or understandingly; but anybody can appreciate his workmanlike spirit and his quaint humor, while his technical vocabulary, as we have intimated, is worth studying as he thought it worth recording in his dictionary. He acknowledges the imperfections of this pre-Johnsonian glossary, and bespeaks its amendment:

"Therefore," he says, "such Words and Phrases as have escaped my Consideration, will, I hope, be discovered by some Printer, or others, that may have a Kindness for Posterity; not only in this Trade, but in all Trades and Faculties whatsoever: That so a *Dictionary* may in time be compleated, that may render so great a number of Words used in *England* by *English-men* intelligible; which now for want of a proper Repository to store them in, seem not only Aliens to our Nation, but barbarous to our Understandings."

Moxon's appendix on the customs of the Chapel is a picture of manners that have well passed away; freedom of the press, too, has abolished "the Hole," if not the pirate publisher:

"By a *Hole*, in Printers dialect, is meant and understood a place where private Printing is used, *viz.* the Printing of Unlicensed *Books*, or Printing of other mens *Copies*. Many Printers for Lucre of Gain have gone into *Holes*, and then their chief care is to get a *Hole* Private, and Workmen Trusty and Cunning to conceal the *Hole*, and themselves."

Mr. De Vinne indulges in a little pleasantry on Moxon's requirement that the proof-reader or corrector "should (besides the *English*

Tongue) be well skilled in Languages, especially in those that are used to be Printed with us," viz., Latin, Greek, Hebrew, "Syriack, Caldæ," French, Spanish, Italian, High Dutch, Saxon, Low Dutch, "Welch, etc." "Neither," adds Moxon, "ought my innumerating only these be a stint to his skill in the number of them, for many times several other Languages may happen to be Printed, of which the Author has perhaps no more skill than the bare knowledge of the Words and their Pronunciations," with resulting orthographic offences (if the corrector be equally ignorant) implied in another passage: "And how well other Forrain Languages are Corrected by the Author, we may perceive by the English that is Printed in Forrain Countries." This latter observation is not yet out of date.

History of the Court of Common Pleas of the City and County of New York. With full reports of all important proceedings. By James Wilton Brooks. New York. (Published by subscription.) 1896.

THE New York Court of Common Pleas came to an end last year, by a process which lawyers might term merger. Together with the Superior Court it was consolidated with the Supreme Court, which has thus become the one court of general jurisdiction for the whole State. Now that these two tribunals have disappeared, it is very difficult to see why they were allowed to exist side by side so long. Consolidation was long recommended by law-reformers and judges, and the main obstacle consisted of the interests of the judges of the Common Pleas and Superior Courts, some of whom were commonly supposed to be averse to being consolidated off their separate benches. However this may be, an attempt to push the reform, made in the Bar Association of this city some years ago, fell through, one of the arguments advanced against it being that it was a good plan to have three courts, as one, or even two of them, might become tainted with corruption—as had happened once—and then, without the third, the honest lawyer and client would have nowhere to go. This argument, which would of course be fatal to the consolidation of any courts, prevailed, and the project was abandoned, only to be taken up a few years later and made law.

When the end came, both courts were past their prime, but in earlier years both had been tribunals of consequence and weight. The Common Pleas, as the present generation knew it, could trace its judicial pedigree back only to 1821, when John Treat Irving, the brother of Washington Irving, was made First Judge. Previous to this, the court had been the Mayor's Court, and the Mayor's Court had in its turn, when the English got possession of New York, supplanted the Dutch court of the Schout, Burgomaster, and Schepens. Any one imbued with the true historical spirit may therefore identify the three courts as one, and say that the New York Court of Common Pleas existed for 242 years. During one-sixth of this period—forty-one years—the presiding judge was the venerable Charles P. Daly, whose Reports will always be a valuable series of judicial records and an interesting memorial of the court.

This is itself a memorial volume, and contains a brief history of the court, and various minutes of proceedings, the latter relating mostly to trials of justices, of whom the most recently notorious was the well-known Patrick Divver, tried in 1894 on a number of charges, among which was that in 1886 he had been "accustomed to divide with one Edward Parmely Jones the proceeds of a system of swindling commonly called the 'green goods game.'" It is interesting to note that while other charges were denied, this one was met by a demurrer—a species of defence described by some one as equivalent to saying, "What of it?" The judges of the Common Pleas sustained the demurrer, not on the ground that the green-goods game is an innocent diversion, but because they had no power to remove for offences committed before the defendant became a judge. During its whole history the power of this court to try and remove justices seems, when resorted to, to have been of little value.

There are also, among other things in Mr. Brooks's volume, biographical sketches of the judges, and an account of the proceedings on the closing of the court in 1895. The sketches are not altogether critical; some are rather of the order which fails to characterize or discriminate. The accounts given do not invariably produce the impression of exalted judicial capacity, and indeed make us now and then fear that, if the truth were known, some of the later judges of the Common Pleas were second-rate men, who secured their places through a knowledge rather of politics than of jurisprudence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Fearless Investigator. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Aldrich, T. B. Friar Jerome's Beautiful Book. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
American Orations: Studies in American Political History. 2d series. Putnams. $1.25.
Andrews, Prof. E. B. The History of the Last Quarter-Century in the United States. 2 vols. Scribners. $6.
Arditi, Luigi. My Reminiscences. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Arjuna, Harold. Klassisch oder Volksthümlich? Auch ein Beitrag zur Lösung der Schulfrage. Leipzig: Gustav Fock.
Balfour, Marie C. Maris Stella. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Balzac, H. de. Béatrix. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Bangs, J. K. A Rebellious Heroine. Harpers. $1.25.
Barrie, J. M. Sentimental Tommy: The Story of his Boyhood. Scribners. $1.50.
Bennett, Prof. C. E. A Latin Composition for Secondary Schools. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 80c.
Benson, E. F. Limitations. Harpers. $1.25.
Berkowitz, Henry. The Open Bible. Part I. Philadelphia: Jewish Chautauqua Society.
Bevier, Louis. A French Grammar. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Binet, Alfred. Alterations of Personality. Appletons.
Björnson, B. The Bridal March, and One Day. Macmillan. $1.25.
Blanchard, Amy E. Betty of Wye. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. Famous Givers and their Gifts. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Bourgeois, Léon. Solidarité. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Brooks, E. S., and Alden, John. The Long Walls: An American Boy's Adventures in Greece. Putnams. $1.50.
Browne, Prof. W. H. Selections from the Early Scottish Poets. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. $1.25.
Browning, Robert. Saul. Illustrated. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Bruce, Mary S. Selections for Sight Translation. [French.] Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 15c.
Buchan, John. Scholar Gipsies. London: John Lane; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Buchheim, Prof. C. A. Goethe's Iphigenie auf Tauris. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 75c.
Cameron, Prof. A. G. Coppée and Maupassant. Tales. Henry Holt & Co. 75c.
Cawein, Madison. The Garden of Dreams. Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co. $1.25.
Cleveland, Helen M., and Gay, Margaret. Santa Claus' Home. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50c.
Comstock, D. Y. Virgil's Aeneid. Books I., VI., VIII., IX., and Selections from the Other Books. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.40.
Cooper, J. F. Leather-Stocking Tales. 5 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $7.50.
Crockett, Prof. C. W. Elements of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry. American Book Co. $1.25.
Du Bois, Prof. W. E. B. The Suppression of the African Slave Trade to the United States of America. [Harvard Historical Studies.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Fenn, G. M. Beneath the Sea: A Story of the Cornish Coast. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Fenn, G. M. The Black Tor: A Tale of the Reign of James I. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Fontaine, C. Theuriet's Bigarreau. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c.
Frost, W. H. The Court of King Arthur. Scribners. $1.50.
George, A. J. Select Poems of Robert Burns. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90c.
Gerhard, W. P. Theatre Fires and Panics: Their Causes and Prevention. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.
Gibson, C. D. Pictures of People. R. H. Russell & Son. $10.
Gil Blas of Santillana. Translated by Henri Van Laun. 4 vols. London: Gibbings & Co; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.
Golianez, Israel. Venus and Adonis. The Rape of Lucrece. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45c.
Hale, R. B. Six Stories and Some Verses. Boston: J. M. Bowles. $1.50.
Harding, Prof. S. B. The Contest over the Ratification of the Federal Constitution in the State of Massachusetts. [Harvard Historical Studies.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Hardy, Thomas. Under the Greenwood Tree. New ed. Harper's. $1.50.
Harland, Marion, and Herrick, Christine T. The National Cook Book. Scribners. $1.50.
Harris, Prof. Samuel. God the Creator and Lord of All. 2 vols. Scribners. $5.
Harris, W. T. Horace Mann. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 50c.
Hata, Riotaro. Gedanken eines Japaners über die Frauen. Leipzig: A. Hartleben; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Hill, G. B. Talks about Autographs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.50.
Hodges, Rev. George. Faith and Social Service. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Home, Andrew. Through Thick and Thin: The Story of a School Campaign. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Hopkins, Tighe. Kilmainham Memories. 2d ed. Ward, Lock & Co.
Hopper, Nora. Under Quicken Boughs. London: John Lane; New York: G. H. Richmond & Co.
Howells, W. D. Impressions and Experiences. Harpers. $1.50.
Hume, M. A. S. The Year after the Armada, and Other Historical Studies. Macmillan. $3.50.
Hutchinson, Thomas. The Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. [Oxford Edition.] Henry Frowde. $3.50.
Jackson, C. F. Mechanical Drawing. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Jamison, Mrs. C. V. Seraph, the Little Violinist. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Johannot, James. Principles and Practice of Teaching. Appletons.
Kant's Critique of Pure Reason. Translated by F. Max Müller. Macmillan. $3.
Keble, Rev. John. The Christian Year: London: Methuen & Co; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Ker, David. Swept out to Sea. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Kirkland, Miss E. S. A Short History of Italy. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Knight, William. The Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. Vol. VII. Macmillan. $1.50.
Kuhns, Prof. L. O. De Amicis's Cuore. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Lane, E. W. Arabian Nights' Entertainment. 6 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $6.
Lang, Andrew. Walton's Compleat Angler. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Lefevre, Arthur. Number and its Algebra. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Lilienerantz, Ottilie A. The Scrape that Jack Built. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Lockhart, J. G. Life of Sir Walter Scott. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Lockwood, Ingersoll. 1900; or, The Last President. American News Co. 10c.
MacArthur, Adella R. "That Romanist." Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Macleod, Fiona. Green Fire. Harpers. $1.25.
Menzies, Prof. Allan. The Ante-Nicene Fathers. Vol. IX. Christian Literature Co.
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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1895, to 31st December, 1895		$8,628,872 42
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1895		1,027,151 41
Total Marine Premiums		$9,650,023 83
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1895, to 31st December, 1895		$9,540,748 83
Losses paid during the same period	$1,218,407 55	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$603,415 83	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
United States and City of New York Stock; City Banks and other Stocks		$3,059,105 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise		1,216,500 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at		1,000,004 90
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable		896,481 86
Cash in Bank		202,518 33
Amount		$11,374,560 11

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The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1890 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the fourth of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending 31st December, 1895, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the fifth of May next.

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J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 5, 1896.

The Week.

We have escaped from what a large number of people supposed was an immense danger, the danger of having our currency adulterated and our form of government changed, and a band of ignoramuses and Anarchists put at the head of what remained of the great American republic. Probably no man in civil life has succeeded in inspiring so much terror, without taking life, as Bryan. Attila and Tamerlane frightened more people, but they killed or threatened to kill them; they hardly destroyed more property. Bryan succeeded in persuading hundreds of thousands that the great fabric of government which was built up by the wisdom and experience of a thousand years, and cemented by hundreds of thousands of lives, was, almost in the first century of its existence, about to be handed over by the vote of its own people to a knot of silly, half-taught adventurers and Anarchists. We were to exchange the Constitution and the Supreme Court for the decrees of Altgeld and Debs and Bryan and Teller, whose principal occupation was to be striking off "cheap money for the poor man." The whole episode has been utterly discreditable to our politics, as conducted by politicians. Could anything better reveal the character of our nominating system than the fact that the nominating convention of one of our two great parties could be taken possession of by a few adventurers, that the platform could be drawn, in the main, by a noted Anarchist, and an unknown young man nominated on it simply because the audience was pleased with one of his metaphors, and that it should drive away from it all the party's men of light and leading before going to the country?

There is nothing partisan about the overwhelming majorities for McKinley. It was not the Republican party which won; it was the cause of the nation. In Connecticut, for example, the returns show that in a total vote about the same as four years ago McKinley's plurality is about 48,000, against about 5,000 for Cleveland in 1892, because one-third of those who supported the Democratic candidate then supported the Republican candidate now. It was not that they had become Republicans, but that they had repudiated a false Democracy in the only effective way, by voting for the only man who could defeat Bryan. The Palmer vote is insignificant, not because the men who believe in the Indianapolis platform are few, but because most of them followed the virtual advice of Palmer himself to support McKinley. One of his last deliverances was this, at Warrensburg, Mo., on Saturday: "I promise you, my fellow-Democrats, I will not consider it any very great fault if you decide next Tuesday to cast your ballots for William McKinley, although you may, if you desire, vote for Palmer and Buckner."

A popular revolution such as occurred on Tuesday almost invariably involves the control of Congress, and the rule will undoubtedly hold this time. The Republicans have carried the House of Representatives by a great majority, the only question being whether they will have a full two-thirds of the body. The gains of seats in the Senate now held by Democrats or Populists in Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Kansas, South Dakota, and perhaps other States will give the Republicans also nearly, if not quite, a majority in the upper branch of men who have always been advocates of sound money. Moreover, the overwhelming rejection of the free-coinage policy will unquestionably lead some of the Republican Senators from the far West who have hitherto stood by the silver cause, to abandon it now. There is no reason to doubt that, if the McKinley Administration will formulate a sound financial policy, there will be Republicans enough in each branch of Congress to sanction it. That policy was distinctly outlined in the Indianapolis platform, and will be the touchstone of Republican non-partisanship.

The fusion campaign for the Presidency closed with an exchange of abusive epithets between the Populist and the Democratic wings of the "allied forces." Many "life-long Democrats" were overflowing with indignation at the impudence of Populist upstarts, like Senator Butler of North Carolina, in declaring that "they have taken possession of the Democratic party," and that "the Democrats have, in the broad sense of the word, become Populists." On the other hand, many honest and sincere men, who had worked for years to build up the Populist party as an effective political organization, were equally outraged at what they considered the "sell-out" to the Democrats by traders of the Butler school. The result was that, during the last days of the canvass, the movement away from Bryan among adherents of the old-fashioned Democratic party was accelerated, while another movement was taking from him Populists who found that they could not stomach the dose prepared by the fusion doctors. The history of such movements has shown that fusions never really fuse. In Oregon, for example, four years ago, the Populists polled 26,965 votes for two Weaver electors, and the Democrats 14,243 for one Cleveland elector—a total of 41,208 for the two parties; but the one elector who was supported by both received only 35,813 votes. The difficulties of fusion on a Presidential ticket, with two candidates for Vice-President, were infinitely greater.

There never was a Presidential campaign in which one of the two great parties received so little support from the press of the country as was given the fusionists this year. Every independent journal in the United States was opposed to Bryan, and throughout the East all the old established and influential Democratic newspapers were outspoken against him. In the Western metropolis he got as little backing from the press as in the Eastern, not one Chicago journal of the first class advocating free coinage, and hardly any of the lower classes. The chief Democratic newspaper of Michigan was bitterly opposed to Populism, and so likewise was that of Minnesota. Even in the South the revolt of the party press against the surrender to Populism was pronounced. The Louisville *Courier-Journal* and the other most prominent Democratic newspapers in Kentucky were earnestly opposed to Bryan; the same is true of the Montgomery *Advertiser*, the chief party organ in Alabama, and of the Galveston-Dallas *News*, the most influential newspaper in Texas. Many of those papers which nominally favored Bryan rendered him an entirely perfunctory support, and condemned the campaign made in his behalf. The *Florida Citizen*, for example, remarked that "the effort to make the present political campaign one of the poor against the rich, and to cause the South and the West to combine against the East, is one that no wise man in the South can approve." The Mobile *Register* went so far as to say that it believed Bryan's policy would ruin the country, but that it did not believe he would carry out his policy if he should be elected.

We think that the world has never before witnessed the spectacle of an immense number of people drawing gold out of solvent banks and locking it up lest the value of their money should be reduced one-half by the result of an election—this, too, in a time of profound peace. As election day drew nearer, this movement became more pronounced, causing unexpected tightness in the money market. On Thursday, call money touched 100 per cent., and it loaned at that rate again on the following day. It is the estimate of good judges that $40,000,000 was thus hoarded, most of it during the past thirty days. Fortunately this came at a time when the international move-

ment of gold was in our favor; when, too, speculation was at the lowest ebb, so that holders of securities were not likely to be "squeezed out." It is fortunate also that the banking community realized the ephemeral character of the spasm, and consequently felt justified in extending aid to the mercantile community beyond the ordinary bounds of safety. The feeling in commercial circles found expression on the Montreal Stock Exchange, where certain shares were quoted "cum McKinley." Thus, sales of Commercial Cable were quoted in the Montreal *Herald* of October 29 at 146½ for present delivery, and at 151 for delivery after November 3, if McKinley should be elected. Postal Telegraph shares were quoted at 80½ regular and at 83 "cum McKinley."

Among the humorous features of the late campaign a high rank belongs to Henry George's series of letters carrying one State after another for Bryan in a long succession, beginning with those in the Mississippi valley and working East. A few days ago he reached the boundaries of New York, and began operations with the naïve announcement that he had discovered in western New York "the same indications of silver's victory as he found further West." He summed up the outlook, as viewed from the metropolis, in "the only conclusion I can come to from such information as I have been able to obtain, that Bryan and Sewall, and not McKinley and Hobart, will carry the State of New York." Bryan himself set the pace for Populistic prophets when he said a fortnight ago: "I expect to carry every State in the Union. You should have seen the crowd at Boston. It was a most remarkable demonstration."

The address signed last week by Messrs. Arthur, Sargent, and Arnold, the leaders of the locomotive engineers and firemen, declaring that "under a condition of free coinage this country would be subjected to one of the most frightful panics that any country in this world has ever seen," was a very important deliverance. It not only emphasized a great financial truth, but pointed to a line of cleavage in the ranks of labor which the events of this campaign have signalized in a striking manner—the line between the constructive and the destructive elements of the wage-working class. The latter class are represented by Debs and Sovereign, and the former by Arthur and Sargent. Debs's method of helping labor is by pulling down, Arthur's by building up. Debs naturally falls into the Bryan campaign because Bryan preaches war between classes. To him "16 to 1" has no meaning whatever; but a license to defy the laws, disobey injunctions, and discipline the courts, as promised in the Chicago platform, is full of significance. Mr. [redacted] and his associates find nothing attractive in this programme. Their theory for the advancement of labor is to create, not to destroy capital. They believe that the more property there is in the world the more the wage-worker will get. And as to "16 to 1," they have learned by study and reflection that it means a depreciated dollar, which means less compensation to the men and women who work for hire. They tell us that they were induced to sign some kind of a memorial to Congress three years ago on the subject of bimetallism; that they do not remember exactly what it was. Whatever it was, they say that it was signed without reflection; that they have since studied the matter sufficiently to know that free coinage at the ratio of 16 to 1 would be "directly against the interests of labor." They do not believe that the country can endure the present misery and distress four years longer, and for that reason they are "emphatically and unequivocally against any such measure, and are for the sound-money plank promulgated by the Republican convention at St. Louis."

Speaker Reed adds his name to the list of distinguished Republicans who confess that the silver-purchase act of 1890 was the price paid for the McKinley tariff act of 1890. In his article in the current *Forum* he explains the defeat of his party in the congressional elections of 1890 by saying that the tariff bill was delayed so long by the silver Senators. "We had been sacrificed to silver," he says. This is no doubt the truth, but it comes grotesquely from one of the head sacrificers. Mr. Reed knew all about the wicked bargain at the time, and had it in his power to frustrate the whole wretched intrigue. Yet he struck hands with the men who were sacrificing the party to silver, and defended their work on the stump all over the country. More than this, he himself, with the help of the precious Lodge, brought out in 1894 his ridiculous but reckless scheme to sacrifice the party all over again to silver. But now Lodge is going about with a pious roll to his eyes asserting that the people have been "misled" on the silver question, and Speaker Reed closes his article with a high moral rebuke to the silver Senators. Faugh! as the *Tribune* used to say when confronted with a peculiarly sickening exhibition of Mugwump hypocrisy.

The utter subsidence of the Venezuelan excitement is a good instance of the way political issues burn themselves to ashes in this country and cannot be rekindled. Less than a year ago people were convulsed at the name of Schomburgk, and grew apoplectic at the very mention of the Cuyuni River. Now they have reached a degree of indifference to the whole subject like that of Archbishop Magee, on a certain occasion, when he said that a curate might safely play with him. Sir Edward Clarke has come out in a public speech and intimated that the English case is all a sham, but not a quiver of an eyelid did he excite in this country. Our Commission's experts have come back from delving in the archives at The Hague, and not a newspaper correspondent has thought it worth while to read in their faces that it is all up with Salisbury and that there will be a war next spring. Weariness of the whole question is all that can be discovered on every side. Nor is this entirely due to our having more pressing affairs on hand. We feel that we have gone through our Venezuelan heroics and explosions for good and all. Our capacities in that line are thoroughly exhausted. Ask us to be hysterical about something else, and we will do our best to accommodate you; but Venezuela—no more of that.

"An appointment not fit to be made." That historic phrase is justly applicable to the selection by Gov. Morton of Jake Worth, the Republican boss of Brooklyn, as County Clerk of Kings County, to fill the vacancy caused by the recent death of the incumbent. This appointment will hold until the beginning of 1897, when the new Governor chosen on Tuesday must make an appointment to last until the Legislature shall take action for the holding of an election. Jake Worth has long been notorious as a perfect type of the professional politician, who is "in politics for what he can make out of it," and who has a supreme contempt for "snivel-service reform" and officials of the type of Seth Low, whose nomination and election as mayor he bitterly opposed. A fellow-workman in the navy-yard with Hugh McLaughlin, the Democratic boss, when both were young men, he has often worked hand-in-glove with him in later years, and his appointment, by a mayor who was a tool of McLaughlin, as an election commissioner to represent the Republican party a few years ago was universally recognized as a gross outrage upon the spirit of the law and the proprieties of the situation. The plea is put forward that "of late years no one has had any good reason to question the loyalty of Mr. Worth's Republicanism, and his counsels have been followed to good advantage in many critical junctures," but he is still a man of the same character that he was when his "loyalty" was questioned. While Gov. Morton is primarily responsible for this appointment, announcement is officially made from Albany that it was recommended by Frank S. Black, who is expected to reappoint Worth upon his accession to the governorship on the 1st of January; by Timothy L. Woodruff, Lieutenant-Governor elect; by Judges Dickey and Goodrich of the Supreme Court; by Mayor Wurster; by Benjamin F. Tracy, Stewart L. Woodford, and other men of the highest standing in the

Governor's party. Indeed, Mr. Morton may well plead that, in making this ad-interim appointment, he has only recorded the wish of the Republican party in Brooklyn as expressed by its foremost representatives, and of the State leader selected by the Republican party of the commonwealth. Really the most disheartening aspect of the matter is the revelation that the Jake Worth sort of politician secures recognition from the next Governor even before his election. We had hoped for better things from Mr. Black.

Comptroller Fitch kept this whole city in confusion, and kept a contractor out of his money lawfully due to him, for many days, simply, he says, because he got it into his head that the contractor's men engaged in collecting pieces of paper ought to be examined under the civil-service rules. The Corporation Counsel says there is nothing in this, and thereupon Mr. Fitch declares he is satisfied, and he will pay the money. But he might just as well have started, out of his own head, the opinion that the contractor's men must be all Protestants, and have taken the Corporation Counsel's opinion on that. There is no end to the foolish notions which a man careless of the public interests might not use as an excuse for not doing his duty by them. One of the Comptroller's first duties, towering above even his duty to be honest, is not to be silly, if it causes inconvenience to other people, though at home in his own house he may be as silly as he pleases. A moment's reflection on the civil-service law by anybody above the age of ten would show him that the civil-service law was not intended for private employees; and all employees of a man who is personally responsible for the results of their work, are private employees. How we wish Mr. Fitch would grow up, and learn that the road to glory in this community now is to facilitate, not to hinder, the policing, lighting, paving, and cleaning of the city.

The Overseers of Harvard University have not adopted the full recommendation of their Committee on Composition and Rhetoric. That is, they have not made a certain proficiency in English a condition of admission. They have simply approved of the course pursued by the Faculty and recommended its continuance. Still, the resolution of the Board will be found pretty drastic by the schools. It says:

"Voted, that, in the judgment of the Board of Overseers, every candidate for admission to the undergraduate departments of the university should give evidence that he can write the English language with such degree of neatness and skill in penmanship, correctness in spelling and grammar, and with such facility of expression as will enable him to enter, without further elementary instruction, on the elective studies to which he proposes to devote himself, including the more advanced courses in English composition; voted, that the Faculty be requested to press steadily towards the attainment of the above end."

The main effect of this will be to increase the importance of English and cause more attention to be given to it. The difficulty has largely arisen out of the fact that the old oral system of instruction in English at Harvard has been abandoned under President Eliot for the written, but the schools still prepare for the oral, and we know the result.

The news that Bismarck had a secret defensive treaty with Russia from 1884 to 1890 seems to be authentic. His personal organ affirms it, and the official mouthpiece of the Government refuses either to affirm or deny it, though practically affirming it by a severe comment on the enormity of a betrayal of such high state secrets. That Bismarck should have been capable of thus cutting under the Dreibund, about which at the time he was making such a flourish, ought not to surprise those acquainted with the professed cynicism of his theory of diplomacy. The wide reverberations of the disclosure show into what a state of nervous tension the European Powers have got themselves. Each new "European concert," in fact, seems to mean fresh international suspicion and jealousy, as if the participants in the concert were so many irritable musicians playing out of tune and doing their best to smash each other's instruments. Many things account for this condition of international nervousness, not the least of them being the strain of matching army with army and fleet with fleet. If you are bound to keep yourself stronger than an unmannerly neighbor, every step he takes to strengthen himself necessarily makes you fretful and angry. Then there is, as the *Economist* remarks, the tendency to exaggerate everything that any statesman or semi-official newspaper says, through forgetting how they must say something whether they have anything to say or not. Lord Salisbury must speak at the Guildhall banquet next week, however much he might prefer to keep still. He will also be bound to m[illegible]at England was never greate[illegible] diplomacy never so skilful and [illegible]l, and everything never so likely to turn out as he wants it. Careful consideration of this compulsion under which he labors should always be present in interpreting his language. Then, as for the press, it is one of its old failings to be most furious when most empty.

Mr. Curzon made a long speech in Glasgow on foreign affairs on the 14th, and it was expected in some quarters that he, as Under-Secretary and Salisbury's mouthpiece in the Commons, would hint at the line the Government proposes to take in the Armenian business. But he did nothing of the kind. What he had to say only went to confirm the fling at him in which Mr. Bowles indulged in the House of Commons one day, when he reminded some baffled inquirers that Mr. Curzon was put up, not to reveal Lord Salisbury's thoughts and intentions, but to conceal, so far as possible, Lord Salisbury's lack of thoughts and intentions. In defence of the Government's inaction, Mr. Curzon could only say that the concert of Europe was a great and solemn object of worship, that England would never be justified in doing anything for the Armenians and thereby infuriating the other Powers into falling upon her tooth and nail, and that slow methods—much letter-writing, and long waiting for answers—were of the very essence of diplomacy. But let the country not despair. In Lord Salisbury the country had "a minister of unequalled experience in foreign affairs." He was, in fact, "the *doyen* of the corps of European statesmen." Could such a doyen make a mistake? People talked of renewed massacres, asked what was England's navy doing, were in a hurry for some sort of positive action. Mr. Curzon begged them not to distrust the doyen; if you cannot repose confidence in him, whom can you trust?

There is reason to believe that among the persons surprised at the choice of the Bishop of London as Archbishop of Canterbury was the Bishop himself. He issued to his clergy, soon after Dr. Benson's death, a special prayer for divine guidance in the selection of a new Primate, which certainly did not look as if he dreamed of the appointment's coming his way. Then he delivered, on October 22, an address, on church reform, which was pretty radical for one of the higher clergy. He spoke strongly against the scandal of advowsons, or the sale of livings in the church, one-third to one-half of which he said were frequently in the market to be knocked down to the highest bidder. Dr. Temple also expressed sympathy with what he asserted to be a widespread feeling, that parishioners ought to have a voice in the appointment of their ministers—at least to the extent of keeping out clergymen not fit for their work. Another grave defect in the machinery of the church, argued the (then) Bishop, was the lack of any way of removing incompetent clergymen. He was willing to draw a distinction between those who were incompetent through no fault of their own, and those whose incompetence arose from the fact that they would not work. To throw the former upon the poor-rates would be a serious scandal; the latter really ought to be sent to the workhouse, the future Archbishop intimated. The significant thing is, that Dr. Temple is not the kind of man to change his opinions through promotion, and that the English movement for church reform may therefore count upon active support from the new official head of the church.

THE EDUCATION OF THE CONSCIENCE.

MANY a time during the past few months have those whose happiness is bound up in the honor of their country longed for the sound of voices that are now silent. Strong and earnest voices we have indeed heard in numbers, voices that we could have ill spared and that have been raised in righteous indignation and soul-stirring eloquence. But it is impossible for those whose memories run backward for a generation not to miss the inspiration that came from the utterances of great men who are no longer with us. Their fame was so widespread as to carry the influence of their teachings throughout the length and breadth of the land, and their personal power gave an effect to their arguments far greater than the same arguments can have in the mouths of men less widely known.

Fortunately these voices, although silent, yet speak to us from the records of the past. We know what Webster said concerning the attempt to array the poor against the rich. We know what Curtis said when a policy of dishonor seemed likely to find favor with the multitude. We can read the fiery utterances of Lowell as he looked across the ocean at "the land of broken promises." What Beecher thought, Mr. Bryan learned to his discomfiture, when he assured his Brooklyn audience that Beecher if living would be on his side; an appeal as dismal in its results as King Saul's invocation of the spirit of the prophet Samuel. What James Freeman Clarke would have said, the following extract from what he did say nearly twenty years ago sufficiently shows. Every word of it is as apt and true as if spoken to-day. His subject was the education of the conscience, the chief diseases of which he called stupor and ignorance. The conscience, he said, might be inactive or it might be badly instructed. The sins of the time, the crimes against society, the swindling transactions, the defalcations, the betrayals of trust, the repudiation of public obligations, are not usually deliberate violations of what is seen to be right, but rather come from consciences stupefied, sophisticated, and uninstructed. Dr. Clarke continued:

"Take, for example, the proposition made a few years since to pay the national debt in silver, when silver was below par—a plan at one time very popular, and which would have inflicted so much injury on the honor and welfare of the nation, and which would have been a blow to national credit, and the source of disaster. We mistake if we suppose that the people of the West and South were deliberately doing what they knew to be wrong in supporting it. They were misled by artful demagogues. They were taught to believe that, as the letter of the law allowed payment of the early bonds in coin of either kind, there would be no injustice in paying them in a depreciated currency. They were persuaded that the demonetization of silver was a cunning trick of rich bondholders, done in order to oppress the poor, and that the people had been defrauded thus of the money which would give new activity to business and furnish employment to thousands. But when they were taught that this was all false, and that the plan was in the interest of speculators; when they saw that it would be defrauding every man who had any money due him of ten cents on a dollar; that it would be cheating the foreign creditors who lent us their money in our war when we needed it to save the nation; that it would be cheating the widows and orphans whose small means were intrusted to the honor of the country: that it would be cheating every farmer out of a tenth part of the price of his wheat, every day-laborer of the tenth part of his day's wages; and all to put more money into the pockets of the rich owners of the silver mines—then the conscience of the land refused to accept such a proposition.

"These truths were taught boldly, plainly, unequivocally, in tones which reached every log cabin beyond the mountains. The people were taught that the collapse of business was the natural result of over-trading, over-investments in costly speculations, and pushing the credit system to an extreme point. They were taught that what we needed for the revival of business was not more money, but more confidence; that there was money enough, but that those who had it would not risk it. They were made to see that confidence comes not by repudiation of debts, not by expansion of the currency, not by trying to cheat creditors, but by exactly the opposite course, and that all these measures would only increase the evils under which we suffered. They saw at last that the remedy for the state of commercial distrust was that each man should learn economy, give up extravagance, quit speculation, do a safe business, pay his debts promptly, and that the Government should lead the way by resuming specie payments; that is, by beginning to pay its honest debts in honest money. As soon as the conscience of the nation was enlightened on such points as these, such a piece of dishonesty as the Bland bill became impossible."

Nothing more appropriate for the present crisis has been uttered by any living man. There is nothing to add to it, nothing to subtract from it. It is the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. The principles of right and wrong are immutable; the sophistical pleas of demagogues change their form, but they too remain essentially the same. They consist in appeals to the baser passions of mankind. They seek to arouse hatred and envy and cupidity and revenge. They excuse dishonesty on the ground that dishonesty has existed, and propose to defraud creditors of the present day because, as they claim, debtors were defrauded in 1873. We may fairly say that during the last few months correct views of political morality have been fully presented to the people. The truth has been "taught boldly, plainly, unequivocally," and no one who could read or hear has needed to remain unenlightened. There is no excuse for the disease of ignorance or the disease of stupor. Never was an appeal made more directly to the consciences of the people, never were more votes determined to be cast by conscientious voters.

MR. MORETON FREWEN.

WE make this gentleman a subject because he is just now doing, in our opinion, a great deal of international mischief. The only reason we can think of why the London *Times* should make him the chief explainer of America to England, instead of leaving the work to its own correspondent, is that, having once lived in this country, he is supposed to know it from the English point of view, and to be ready to speak of it in a way which might not be expected from a man who lived here still. Mr. Frewen has had a ranch in the West in which he failed, has since then been in rather embarrassed circumstances, and is extremely fond of writing about America in the English papers, displaying in all his writings a large amount of inaccuracy, misinformation, credulity, and want of judgment. After saying this we need hardly add that he is an ardent bimetallist, and has a high opinion of all bimetallists, and thinks something dreadful will happen if we do not all become bimetallists. He has contracted, too, the bimetallic affection for Silver, and has measurably succeeded in personifying it, and devotes a large proportion of his waking hours and literary capacities to glorifying it. The Bryan movement, having so much silver in it, is therefore exceedingly grateful to him, as it seems to be a fulfilment of his own prophecies. One of the most striking effects of bimetallism on the mind is the prophetic spirit with which it fills its votaries. They are all sure that within, say, ten, if not five, years the whole world will be bimetallic, and that "the ratio"—some ratio—will bring peace into millions of humble homes. The sources from which these predictions occasionally come are often amazing. Men whose judgment one would no more trust about finance than that of Wilkins Micawber, are certain that within a very few years the nations will be tumbling over each other in eagerness to make a bimetallic "international agreement."

Mr. Frewen is aided in his explanations of America to the English people by two things. One is the English disposition, at crises like the present, always to believe that the worst is going to happen to us. This is not unnatural, for we often do act like drunken men until the consequences begin to stare us in the face, and then, just as our ruin seems certain, we suddenly become rational and sober-minded. This tendency to go to the brink of the precipice and then withdraw hastily was evident as early as Tocqueville's day, and is commented on by him in his book. There were several illustrations of it during the war of the rebellion, and it led to the publication in 1861 of one of the oddest of literary products, a book on America by a man named James Spence. He managed to be even more irritating and incompetent than Mr. Frewen, and it would hardly be unfair to hold him responsible for much of the ill feeling between the two countries which lasted down to the conclusion of the *Alabama* treaty. He was a Liverpool merchant who had lived here for some years and had then gone back. His style was good and his octavo was large. He showed how greatly Americans had degenerated since the foundation of the government; how frivolous, fickle, and boastful they were; how difficult it would be to subdue

the South; how probable it was the attempt would be abandoned in a few months, and how certain it was that the money borrowed for the purpose of making it would never be repaid.

The book's effect was prodigious. It furnished proofs for ideas of America to tens of thousands of good old Tories. They believed all its statements because they seemed to them to be probable. They thought Americans would behave as Spence said they were going to behave, because this was how they were likely to behave. All the newspapers had articles on the book. Citations from it were constant in everything written about America. In fact, during the greater part of 1861 any one who disputed Mr. Spence's authority was "dismissed with a smile." His influence did not begin to decline for a year. Somewhat the same state of things prevails now. It seems extremely likely, after the silver agitation of both parties since 1873, after even McKinley's state of mind during the last ten years, that we should all now, except a few bankers in New York, be furious silverites; and after the Venezuela uproar, and our attempts to go to war with various nations last winter, that we should, with our usual frivolousness, elect a rag-tag young fellow for the Presidency if he promised us all plenty of money and unlimited credit. The whole outlook, as foretold by the judicious Frewen, has fallen in with preconceived ideas.

The second thing which helps him is our press. It is true the bulk of the press, every paper which has much weight or influence, has fiercely opposed Bryanism and predicted Bryan's defeat. But ordinarily our press is boastful in the extreme about the American people and national affairs; it is delighted with the prospect of a war about anything; it is much occupied with crimes and scandals and personal gossip—things which a European thinks very childish and trivial. The consequence is that, at a crisis like this, when events have made it serious, its utterances, as expressions of national feeling, have not their due weight. Poor a reporter as Frewen may be, he seems more reliable than the *Daily Fuz-Buz* or the *Evening Ragpicker*. So Englishmen have gone on believing with the Frewens that Bryan would be elected and that Teller and Altgeld were busy telling the truth. The only thing which could remedy all this was the election. Spence has been dead many years, but he lived to see his book sold to the ragpickers by weight and himself become an object of ridicule. Mr. Frewen will now return to England a quieter, less positive, and possibly wiser man, and will dismiss those who ask him about American politics with a sad bimetallic smile. That smile has ordinarily much pity and contempt in it for the grovelling gold-bug world. Now that Bryan is defeated there will be much deprecation and appeal and resignation in it.

THE BILL TO AUTHORIZE ANARCHY.

We need make no apology for returning more at length to the subject of Senate Bill No. 2984, which is unaffected by the fortunate issue of the election just over. For how can law survive and justice be maintained if that bill passes the House and goes upon the statute-book at the next session? The public can hardly have realized what a weapon of misrule was forged by the Senate when it passed the measure on June 10 last; and the public verdict at the polls leaves untouched the task of preventing any further Congressional action in the spirit of the Chicago platform. The paternity of the bill ought alone to suffice to discredit it. Introduced, in December last, by Populist Peffer, again in another form by Populist Allen, reported from the Judiciary Committee by David B. Hill, and championed in the closing speech by Marion Butler, it was rushed through, without a roll-call, on the day before adjournment, by a quorum hastily got together, of whom one-half had not heard the debate, and the other half had made no pretence of listening. It cannot face the sober consideration of the American people, and its pernicious features need only to be pointed out to insure its condemnation.

The essence of its provisions is to substitute, in the federal courts, a jury for the judge in all cases of "indirect" contempt of court. That is, when an order has been issued by the court, and a certain person is brought before the court for not obeying the order, the question whether he has in fact disobeyed the order—in legal language, the fact of contempt—is not to be investigated and decided (as from time immemorial) by the judge, but by a jury summoned, sitting, and deciding in the usual way of litigation. It is the seeming innocence and plausibility of this proposed innovation that constitutes its vice; for underneath it lie the most far-reaching and disastrous consequences, and the layman is not likely at once to see what these are, and how nearly they touch the security of his person and his property.

What is this "indirect" contempt of court? It is, as every lawyer knows, simply the disobedience of an order of the court. Now, in the great multitude of cases, the order of the court is the ultimate support on which rests all possibility of the practical doing of justice. If, for instance, there is any practical way of evading obedience to such an order, the juryman who is summoned need never come; the man who is ordered to pay us money need never pay; the person who is ordered to transfer a house or a lot, found by a jury to belong to us, need never make the transfer; the designing oppressor who chooses to kidnap and shut another man in his strong room, need never unlock the doors; the public officer who is ordered to disgorge embezzled funds, or to refrain from a usurpation of power, may snap his fingers at the order, and the whole power of enforcing specific redress goes by the board. In short, wherever it is necessary, in order to realize a legal right, that an order of court be issued, the legal right, without the order of court to back it up, remains a mere matter of vain theory to its possessor.

Now, what is it that makes the order of court worth anything more than the paper it is written on? Simply the power of the judge to call into court the person who disobeys it, and send him to jail until he does obey. What, then, is the surest way to encourage and protect such disobedience? To let the disobeyer demand an ordinary jury trial for investigating the simple question whether he is disobeying. A jury trial means, in the first place, long delay—a delay during which the offender calmly goes on doing or refusing to do just what the order forbade or commanded, and consummating—perhaps irreparably—the very harm which the order was designed to prevent; and, in the second place, a jury trial means often—and just in those cases where it can least be afforded—a total evasion of the order in the end, either by corrupting the jury or by appealing to the popular passions which may happen to sway them. In short, an order of court, shorn of the judge's power of immediate enforcement against those who disobey, is absolutely worthless, and leads by the shortest cut to nothing less than the wreck of courts and of civil justice. It is an apparently trifling difference; but, under our system, practically all hinges on this matter of who shall enforce the judge's order. Those who propose to defy the courts know this well, and that is just why they want the change. In the bold and unscrupulous language of its champion, Marion Butler, it will "strip the courts of their power." That is what they firmly believe it will do, and that is what it undoubtedly will do. Such a monstrous proposition is unthinkable, except as a first step to anarchy.

How has it come to be advanced? Mainly because the defenders of the Chicago riots want to make it sure that there will never again be any legal obstacle for those who wish to burn and destroy property; and, incidentally, because it is the federal courts that have chiefly stood in the way of such attempts. But in the effort to secure immunity for a limited class of wrong-doers, while veiling it under the ordinary generality of legal language, they have made the terms of the bill so broad that any and every wrong-doer would, by this change, find shelter for disobedience to any and every judicial command. To wreak vengeance on a particular class—the employers of labor—they wantonly strip the courts of the power to do justice to any part of the community.

But suppose the bill were properly drawn to attain its chief and particular end; suppose it provided merely that no

federal judge should issue an injunction in any dispute between employers and employees, or in any dispute involving a strike; would the case be any better? We have had the wickedness of the injunction so dinned into our ears that we are apt to forget that it is not the injunction itself that is to be criticised, but the occasion of using it. There are occasions when honest and law-abiding persons may conceivably differ in opinion as to its propriety—as when Judge Jenkins orders certain railroad employees not to leave their work for the purpose of crippling commerce. It is at least an arguable question, both on principle and on precedent, whether a judge may order a man to go to work or to stay at work. But there are also occasions as to which honest and law-abiding persons ought not to differ—as when the federal court orders Debs and his men not to burn freight cars, or derail trains, or sandbag their fellow-workmen. Those are things which no decent citizen wants to do; and no one in his senses ought to wish to take away the power of a court to forbid him to do them. Even in the case where the propriety of the injunction is fairly arguable, there is no arbitrary order, no "tyranny," as the Populist fathers of this bill are fond of proclaiming. The person who is commanded or forbidden to act may appear in court and justify any claim he may have—whether to stay away from work, or to tear down a boundary fence, or to burn a freight-car. Debs could have had his day in court to oppose that injunction; he simply did not dare to come in, for there was nothing that he could say for himself. When Mr. Moseley, from the responsible office of Secretary of the Interstate Commerce Commission, has the effrontery (as he had in his address last June to the Railroad Commissioners) to condole with Debs for being punished "without a trial," he falsely invokes the sympathy of a good sentiment to help a bad cause. The notion, industriously propagated, that an injunction necessarily lacks the fundamental fairness of hearing both sides, is a false one; and it is never advanced except by those who have a bad cause, and dare not defend it in court.

It is the mere resistance to law and order, after all is said, that is at the bottom of all such proposals as that of Senate Bill No. 2984. These men oppose the injunction, not because it is improperly granted, not because it does not give a fair hearing, not because it interferes with an honest man's livelihood, but because it is law and because they have to obey it. They do not want to obey it; they do not want to obey anything or anybody; they want to do as they please. It is the obedience to lawful force which irritates them. But this is just the lesson which the American people must learn thoroughly, at whatever cost, that the law is to be obeyed as such, and simply because it is law. If an injunction is, in your opinion, improperly issued, appear and show cause against it, but obey it in the meantime nevertheless; for without obedience, law and order vanish utterly, and every man's hand may be raised against his neighbor. Obey first and dispute afterwards, should be the motto of the self-respecting citizen. Defy and resist first, and obey in the end only if you have to, is the motto which the innovators propose to sanction on the statute-book. Any bill which is going to make such disobedience easier attacks liberty and property in every household in the land, and is nothing less than a bill to authorize anarchy.

A FINE TYPE OF JOURNALIST.

THE recent death of Horace Rublee, for many years editor of the Milwaukee *Sentinel* and the chief journalist of Wisconsin, merits national attention for two reasons. One is that his career was so honorable, and so serviceable to the best interests alike of his State and of the country, that it ought to receive recognition. The other is that the conditions of what is now often and properly called "the newspaper business," have so radically changed during his lifetime that he is an admirable example of what has seemed to be a passing type of journalist.

Mr. Rublee's story was of the kind which has always been so familiar in this country, and which still remains as familiar, despite Bryan's lament that the gold standard does not allow boys to "enter life with an even chance." Like Horace Greeley, Horace Rublee was the son of a poor New England farmer, having been born at Berkshire, Vt., in 1829. The family removed to Wisconsin in 1840, and the boy worked at home until he was twenty, meanwhile teaching country schools several terms. He then entered the State University, which was little better than our modern academy, and got the best that it had to give, helping to support himself by working at the case as a printer. Naturally enough, he drifted into reporting the proceedings of the Legislature, and from this was promoted to editorial work on the Madison *Journal*, then a Whig and soon afterwards a Republican organ. In a few years he had become chief editor and part proprietor. In 1869 he began a period of eight years' service as Minister to Switzerland, but he remained faithful to his early profession upon his return. For fifteen years past he had been editor of the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, the leading Republican newspaper and the most influential journal in Wisconsin.

Mr. Rublee had been reared to accept Greeley's conception of the place which an editor ought to occupy, as laid down in the latter's doctrine, that a journalist was "a public teacher," that "he necessarily had convictions, and was not likely to suppress them because they were not shared by others"; "in short, that his calling was other and higher than that of a waiter at a restaurant, expected to furnish whatever was called for, so long as the pay was forthcoming." Such a man had repeated opportunities to impress his convictions upon a State which entered the Union with less than 300,000 inhabitants shortly before he became old enough to vote, and had a population fully six times as great when he died. Before the war, some special local causes contributed to make the extreme State-rights sentiment stronger in Wisconsin than in the West generally, and Mr. Rublee's first great service was in crushing out that dogma and holding his State to the cause of the Union during the civil war. He was one of those old-school journalists who combined the chairmanship of his party's State committee and the work of an editor without loss of dignity, because he made use of this partisan position to impress right ideas upon the direction of the organization rather than to dispose of patronage and build up a "machine."

Upon his return from Switzerland, Mr. Rublee was importuned to resume the old place as chairman which he had filled with success and honor for ten years before going abroad. He consented, but only upon one condition. The Granger agitation a few years before had demoralized the politics of Wisconsin, and the growing strength of Greenbackism had rendered the managing politicians of the Republican party so timid that, in 1877, they shrank from adopting a straightforward sound-money platform. Mr. Rublee announced that he must withdraw from management of the canvass unless the campaign could be made upon lines far in advance of this "wabbling" platform. He proposed that a meeting should be held in Milwaukee, at which the candidates on the ticket and other leading Republicans should go on record as absolutely repudiating fiatism and positively favoring resumption in 1879, as then provided by law, and that resolutions of like tenor should be adopted. The suggestion was adopted. The chairman followed it up with an address to the voters which left no doubt whatever as to the attitude of the party in opposition to the movement for debasement of the currency, and the campaign was conducted to a successful issue, with little regard to the compromise platform. Nearly twenty years have passed since then, and Wisconsin has always remained a sound-money State.

It is such a career as this which makes a man, in the best sense of the words, "a great journalist." But this is not the modern type of that class. Run over the "great journals" of the country, and how many of them are controlled by men who have convictions which they are not ready to suppress if unpopular; how many by men who have no other and higher conception of their calling than that of a waiter at a restaurant, ready to furnish "serio-comic supplements" or "carni-

vals of crime," if the pay is forthcoming and promises to be greater than decency and dignity would command? In his just published 'Impressions and Experiences,' Mr. Howells has an interesting chapter on "The Country Printer," as he knew him in his father's newspaper office in the Western Reserve of Ohio forty years ago. "The greatest event of our year," he says, "was the publication of the President's message," and he tells how much more interested the people then were in the great issues of Government than in the "deadly and selfish cult of business" which he finds now. He goes on to say:

"Very likely people were less bent on the pursuit of wealth in those days, because there was less chance to grow rich, but the fact remains that they *were* less bent in that direction, and that they gave their minds to other things more than they do now. I think those other things were larger things, and that our civic type was once nobler than it is. It was before the period of corruption, when it was not yet fully known that dollars can do the work of votes, when the votes as yet rather outnumbered the dollars, and more of us had the one than the other. The great statesman, not the great millionaire, was then the American ideal, and all about in the villages and on the farms the people were eager to know what the President had said to Congress. They are not eager to know now, and that seems rather a pity."

There is much truth in all this, and the causes of the transformation afford an interesting field for study.

THE TSAR IN PARIS.

PARIS, October 20, 1896.

THE visit of the Emperor of Russia to Paris has a studied significance which cannot be denied. It is symbolic of the great change which has taken place in the galaxy of the European Powers. It is the affirmation of the evidence of a *Duplice* in opposition to the *Triplice*. Viewed in that light, it is a guarantee of the continuation of peace, of such a peace as that to which we have accustomed ourselves for twenty-five years, ruinous to the nations and incentive of national hatreds which become all the more inextinguishable as they are felt to be unsatisfied and impotent.

Those who witnessed the Russian fêtes in Paris (and the number is legion, as, from the statistics of the railroads, we can ascertain that there was added during those festive days a million of visitors to the population of Paris), all agree in saying that there was felt in the presence of the Emperor of Russia more than an idle curiosity—a deep and real enthusiasm. It was felt even more on the plains of Champagne, at Châlons, where 70,000 men were reviewed by the young sovereign, who made the military salute to every French flag. Good judges tell me that they never saw their soldiers, notwithstanding their fatigue, march with more alacrity or more decision; one of them told me that his men seemed to be marching to the assault.

The Emperor created, wherever he went, a very favorable impression. Full of reserve, speaking very little, he admired sufficiently, and did not admire too much. He might have said what the Doge of Venice did to Louis XIV., who took him over his palace at Versailles. "What astonishes you most here?" asked the King. "It is to see myself here." Even a touch of sadness, which never forsakes the young Emperor, and the melancholy of his smile, contrived to add something to the emotion of the multitude. People remembered the fearful tragedy of the coronation at Moscow; they called to mind the sudden death in a railway carriage of Prince Lobanoff, whom the young sovereign had chosen for his companion and his political guide during his journey through Europe. He seemed as if he was attended by the saddest thoughts. Many people, before his departure, tried to prevent him from going in person to Paris, reminding him of the attempt of Berezewski in the Champs-Élysées, and of the recent exploits of the Anarchists in Paris. Nicholas II. was determined to walk in the footsteps marked out for him by his father and to make his tour of Europe complete.

It was perhaps all the more necessary to give a sort of personal sanction, by his presence in the capital of the French republic, to the alliance between France and Russia, because it was doubted in many places, and in Berlin denied, that there existed a binding accord between the two countries similar to the Triple Alliance. Events follow each other so rapidly, the impressions which they leave are of such a character, that we have almost to make an effort of the imagination to go back to the days of the Dreikaiserbund, when the political constellation Germany, Austria, Russia, threw its apparently permanent light on all the political horizon. When all the diplomatic documents, now shut up in the archives, come to light, we shall know how the secession of Russia gradually took place. For a long time, the form of government in France, the instability of its Cabinet and even of its Executive power, seemed an insurmountable obstacle to any serious association of France and Russia. But certain forces were at work to counterbalance those which at first separated autocratic Russia from republican and demagogic France. These forces may be said to belong to the class of elementary forces which are always at work in humanity. It had been the task of Bismarck to keep together Prussia and Russia, notwithstanding the innate antagonism—one might even say hatred—which separates the Slavs from the Germans. The time came, however, when Russia perceived that she had given much and received little or nothing in return.

We have not quite forgotten the series of articles which an eminent writer, Klaczko, wrote on the relations of Russia and Prussia after the war of 1870. He collected them afterwards under the title of 'The Two Chancellors.' Prince Gortchakoff, the Russian Chancellor, had been outwitted by the German Chancellor, Bismarck, whom he had long considered as his pupil in diplomacy. The services rendered to Prussia during such a long period had been vain, and Klaczko summarized the conduct of Russia in the phrase "Love's labor lost." Disappointed love is apt to end in bitter hatred; the estrangement between the Empire of the North and the new German Empire began as early as 1875. "Make yourself strong" was a word several times used by the Russian Emperor in his conversations with the Ambassador of France. France did make herself strong again; she reorganized her army and emerged by degrees from her isolation. She tried her increasing strength in many directions, and adopted an active colonial policy. Germany encouraged this new form of her activity, in the hope of seeing her more and more absorbed in her colonial efforts.

Meanwhile Russia's sentiments towards her powerful neighbor suffered a complete change. The great efforts and sacrifices which she made in the Turkish war ended in the Treaty of Berlin; the independence of Bulgaria was but a poor consolation for Russia, which had carried her army, after Plevna, to the very gates of Constantinople. Bulgaria was, however, for some time a sort of dependency of Russia; her army was officered by Russian officers, and Sofia was no better than a Russian town. This situation changed when Prince Ferdinand of Coburg was chosen Prince of Bulgaria. When he saw Bismarck at the time and seemed to ask for his advice, Bismarck said to him, "You may go to Sofia; it will always be a pleasant souvenir." The German Chancellor appeared to treat very lightly the enterprise of the young Prince of Coburg, and it was said at St. Petersburg that Austria was his only patron. I have heard it said that the Emperor of Russia some time afterwards received communication of a dispatch from Prince Bismarck, in which the candidature of Prince Ferdinand was treated very seriously; Prince Ferdinand was to be the obstacle to Russian aggression in the valley of the Danube, the instrument of the traditional policy represented so long by Austria. The anger of Russia became all the more intense inasmuch as Prussia had affected a complete indifference to the Eastern Question. I believe it may be affirmed that it was from that time that the alliance with France took a tangible form, and that Russia framed for herself a definite policy. She withdrew from the Dreikaiserbund and prepared herself for an understanding with the French Republic.

The time came when it seemed necessary to quit the diplomatic shadow, and to act in full light. In July, 1891, a French squadron was sent to Cronstadt; the Tsar came on board the French vessels, and was received to the sound of the Marseillaise, which he heard with uncovered head. The officers of the French squadron had a solemn reception at St. Petersburg, and were invited to visit the Exposition at Moscow. In 1892, on the 6th of June, the Grand Duke Constantine went to Nancy to make a visit to M. Carnot, President of the Republic. In October, 1893, Amiral Avelan and his staff stayed for several days in Paris, and their presence was greeted by the French population. The Tsar Alexander III. wrote a letter to M. Carnot, thanking him for the "warm and splendid reception" which his sailors had met with on French soil. He added that these proofs of sympathy "would add a new tie to those which unite the two countries." In 1895, on the 10th of June, in answer to an interpellation made by the Left, M. Ribot, the then Minister of Foreign Affairs, said: "We have knit the interests of France with those of a great power. . . . The security which we derive from this *alliance* is and will remain a guarantee for the peace of the world."

It has been remarked that during the recent visit of the Emperor there was a sort of gradation in his utterances at Cherbourg, at the Élysée, at the Camp of Châlons. In the short answer made to the compliments of the French President, the Emperor was merely polite; at the President's table at the Élysée, replying to a toast of the French President, the Emperor said: "Faithful to traditions which cannot be forgotten, I have come to France to salute in your person the chief of a nation to which we are united by such precious bonds." Then, after the great review at Châlons, where the Emperor had seen 70,000 men march before

him, he said: "France may be proud of its army. You are right in saying so, Mr. President, the two countries are bound by an unalterable friendship. There exists between our two armies a profound feeling of confraternity in arms." It is impossible not to be struck by the studied verbal gradation in these declarations.

It is very difficult to say what will be the consequences of manifestations which have apparently more of a sentimental than of a practical character. The Eastern question was in all probability discussed during the Russian Emperor's journey. It is impossible to suppose that the hearts of the young Emperor and his young wife, a granddaughter of Queen Victoria, should not have been moved by the horrors committed in Asia Minor and in Constantinople, on an unprecedented scale and with systematic ferocity. Thus far the action of diplomacy has been a mere mockery: the Sultan takes advantage of the jealousies and divisions of the great Powers. Time will show if at Vienna, at Breslau, at Balmoral, at Paris, some way has been found or even prepared for putting an end to atrocities which are a dishonor to our nineteenth century at its close.

There were not wanting some incidents in the Emperor's journey which must have spoken to his mind louder than the vulgar applause of the crowd. The Emperor added to the programme prepared for him a visit to the tomb of Napoleon. He was accompanied to the Invalides by a host of generals and aides-de-camp; but he left them all in the circular gallery which overhangs the place where the tomb stands in a crypt; he went down alone, stood for some time with his arms crossed on his breast, without a motion, gazing on the simple and solemn monument beneath which Napoleon sleeps his eternal sleep. What thoughts were his during these moments? "Sic transit gloria mundi." I have been told of another incident, which remains in my mind. When the Emperor and Empress were taken over the palace of Versailles by the very intelligent conservateur, who does all in his power to keep intact this admirable monument of French art and French greatness, they admired the splendor of the *grands appartemens* and the *petits appartemens;* they lingered a moment in the rooms which were inhabited by Marie Antoinette. In a narrow corridor the conservateur remarked to their Majesties, "It was by this corridor that Marie Antoinette escaped when the palace was attacked by the mob on the night of October 5." The Emperor and Empress looked gravely at each other without saying a word. Such incidents make one think of the "Et nunc erudimini" of Bossuet, or of the famous "Dieu seul est grand, mes frères," of the preacher who began with these words the funeral oration of Louis le Grand.

Correspondence.

ENGLISH AT COLLEGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In most of the large endowed academies and high schools a large percentage of each graduating class is made up of those who have been little more than one year in the school from which they have gone directly to college. These boys are able to offer themselves for admission to college with adequate attainments in mathematics, Latin, Greek, French, or German. But early habits have made their clumsy use of the English language almost incurable. The school hasn't the heart to tell them they ought not to enter college on account of their English, and it would seem as if the college had not the courage to do so. These boys, very many of them, have had very limited early opportunities for hearing or reading good English; somewhere about fifteen to seventeen years of age, they have been awakened to the importance of an education and have become ambitious for a liberal education. The first fifteen or more years of their lives have been as good as wasted, so far as culture is concerned, and it would be scarcely less difficult to work immediate and rapid improvement in their English than to teach them to carry themselves with the dignity and grace of the courtier.

Again, there are those who have been the victims of extraordinary and timorous parental supervision—who have not been allowed to go to school for fear of contamination from other children. Perhaps they have spent much time abroad, where, of course, they could not learn English. Perhaps they have been under French or German nurses in childhood, and governesses in later years, from whom they learned French or German, and geography, and mathematics, but from whom, of course, they did not learn English—they were not expected to learn it. The more able their parents were to maintain an expensive home and social life, the more have they been left to the society of servants whose English has not been considered one of the qualifications for their work; and at ten or twelve years of age they have been sent to school illiterate so far as the knowledge of their mother tongue is concerned.

Finally, the English heard and used by children when among themselves and away from the class-room will undo in one day the instruction of many days.

The work of the Harvard committee, therefore, should be to discover, as the schoolmasters claim, what the schools have been *trying* to do, and *how* they have been trying to do it, and *why* the results, in so many cases, have been so discouraging. I believe that a thorough search along these lines will show that the schoolmasters are right in insisting on an examination into their methods and the limited conditions under which they have been compelled to work, rather than the unintelligible and unwarranted exhibition of results that could not, under the circumstances, have been otherwise. The work of teaching children to use accurately, in their examinations, such English as the Harvard committee think they have a right to require and expect of candidates, is often as impossible of achievement as would be the effort to make a silk purse out of a pig's ear. EDWARD G. COY.

LAKEVILLE, CONN.

Notes.

A. C. ARMSTRONG & SON will be the American publishers of 'Meissonier: His Life and his Art,' by Vallery C. O. Gréard of the French Academy, with profuse illustrations, full-page and in the text, the former being partly in photogravure and partly in color.

'Driving for Pleasure; or, the Harness Stable and its Appointments,' by Francis T. Underhill, with elaborate illustrations, and 'Master Ardick, Buccaneer,' by F. J. Costello, are in the press of D. Appleton & Co.

George H. Richmond & Co. issue immediately 'The Triumph of Death,' by Gabriele D'Annunzio, with an etched portrait of this Italian novelist.

Henri Rochefort's 'Adventures of My Life,' Englished by E. W. Smith, and filling two octavo volumes, will be published by Edward Arnold.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have nearly ready 'The Mycenæan Age,' by Dr. Chrestos Tsountas and Prof. Manatt of Brown University, with a preface by Dr. Dörpfeld; a Cambridge Edition of Lowell's Complete Poetical Works; and a holiday edition of Thoreau's 'Cape Cod,' with a hundred illustrations in color by Miss Amelia M. Watson.

Ginn & Co. are on the point of bringing out 'Napoléon: Extraits de Mémoires et d'Histoires,' edited by Prof. Alcée Fortier of the University of Louisiana.

Henry T. Coates & Co., Philadelphia, announce for immediate publication 'Fireside Stories, Old and New,' collected by Henry T. Coates.

Way & Williams will publish shortly 'The Real Issue,' Kansas stories by William Allen White.

William Doxey, San Francisco, has in forward preparation 'Tales of Languedoc,' folklore stories, by Samuel Jacques Brun of Leland Stanford Junior University, with an introduction by Harriet W. Preston and forty illustrations by Ernest Peixotto; and 'The Itinerant House, and Other Stories,' by Emma Frances Dawson.

Bernard C. Steiner of the Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, has ready for the press and invites subscription to 'A History of the Plantation of Menunkatuck and of the Original Town of Guilford [the present towns of Guilford and Madison, Conn.], 1636 1896.' The price to subscribers is $2.50, and assurance of a return for the outlay of manufacture is a requisite preliminary to publication. The papers of the late Ralph Dunning Smith have been supplemented by much research on Mr. Steiner's part in the town records and elsewhere.

Mr. Charles Welsh, who, it will be remembered, exploded the long accepted story about the sale and purchase of the MS. of 'The Vicar of Wakefield' by his researches into the account-books of the celebrated publisher of St. Paul's Churchyard, to whose business he succeeded, has been for some months in New York associated with the *Art Amateur*. Mr. Welsh has made children's literature, both of the past and the present, his especial study, as his two opuscula on the subject presented by him to The Sette of Odd Volumes in London testify. He is at present engaged upon the revision and extension of his articles on "The History of Books for Children," which appeared in the *Newbery House Magazine*, with a view to their republication in volume form, and perhaps as an intimation that he may one day be again issuing books with his own imprint.

We resume our account of the reprints so numerously put forth this season with the concluding volumes (iii. and iv.) of Shelton's version of 'Don Quixote' (London: David Nutt). This work, we remind our readers, belongs in the admirable series of "Tudor Translations." It follows closely the original text—perhaps too closely in the eccentric punctuation, though this has its archaic effect, as has what Moxon would have called the capitalling. The volumes, we repeat, are in the first rank of book-making, and the binding is both rich and solid. The set makes a charming possession.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. add to the new editions noticed last week Cooper's "Leather Stocking Tales," with an introduction by Prof. Brander Matthews, and twenty respectable illustrations by Frank T. Merrill. The external appearance of these five volumes is attractive and the typography clear. Presswork and paper fall off a little, with a view to a popular price. The same publishers reissue Mrs. Carey's abridged translation of Victor Duruy's 'History of France,' in two volumes, with a few extra pages by Prof. Jameson, bringing the narrative up to date; likewise Browning's 'Saul,' with unequal but sometimes exceptionally good illustrations by Frank O. Small; and Lucy Crane's translation of Grimm's 'Household Stories,' prettily illustrated by Walter Crane. Quite new are renderings, by Helen B. Dole, of Pierre Loti's 'Iceland Fisherman' and André Theuriet's 'Rustic Life in France.' Both these books, the latter especially, are more elegant than the foregoing, and Léon Lhermitte's designs usefully accompany Theuriet's agreeable text. The translation is noticeably idiomatic and cultivated.

Much taste and good workmanship has gone into the making of Messrs. Lippincott's new edition of Ouida's 'Under Two Flags,' in two volumes with ornamented blue-cloth binding and a handsome page on fine paper. The best of G. Montrard's designs are spirited in action or sympathetic with nature. This latest dress will commend itself to admirers of the story and of Ouida.

A high level is also reached in Charles Scribner's Sons' reproduction of Thomas Nelson Page's 'In Ole Virginia,' to illustrate which no fewer than six of our leading designers have been called in. A very unusual evenness results from this coöperation, which is made interesting by the fact of a Frenchman, A. Castaigne, having his full quota. The eye of a native can see at a glance the deflection from nature which this artist must needs betray. Messrs. Smedley, Clinedinst, Reinhart, Frost, and Pyle offer each something to admire, but among Mr. Clinedinst's five we incline to seek the pick of the two dozen full-page plates.

Lovers of music will welcome the appearance of a new edition of a book by Dr. Hubert H. Parry, of the first edition of which we said that, were we asked to name a single book that every student of music ought to read and reread for its facts and opinions, we should unhesitatingly select the 'Art of Music.' We also referred to the title of the book as "modest and somewhat indefinite." To remove this indefiniteness the author has changed the title to 'The Evolution of the Art of Music,' which much better indicates the scope of the book. The new edition forms a volume of the International Scientific Series (Appletons), and, while the type is smaller, the price has, by way of compensation, been reduced more than one-half.

The eighteenth and closing volume of the beautiful illustrated edition of the works of Mrs. Juliana Horatia Ewing, published by the S. P. C. K. (E. & J. B. Young & Co.), contains a memoir by her sister, Mrs. Eden, and a selection from her letters. Her great industry as a writer is shown by an interesting bibliographical list of her stories and magazine articles; the first of a series of 122 appearing in 1861, the last after her death in 1885.

'A History of Rome to the Death of Cæsar,' by W. W. How, M.A., and H. D. Leigh, M.A., Fellows and Lecturers of Oxford (Longmans, Green & Co.), is thick and heavy, though not very large. It cannot be read. The affected style is an attempted cross between the euphuism of 1596 and the journalism of 1896. To be sure, our authors tell us the book was not meant to be read, it was meant to be crammed. They veil the intent in the phrase "to meet the requirements of the upper forms at schools and of the pass examinations at the universities." On constitutional and antiquarian questions they have bowed to Mommsen's "paramount authority, and even from his somewhat sweeping judgment of parties and persons they have never dissented without hesitation."

A new and well-printed edition of Dante's 'Vita Nova,' by Friedrich Beck, has just been published by Piloty & Loehle in Munich. The text is the result of the collation of thirty-five manuscripts, the variants being printed in the foot notes. There is an introductory criticism of all existing manuscripts, followed by a complete list of previous editions of the original text.

Two volumes of literary criticism, the contents of which have for the most part appeared in the Paris daily press, come from the house of Armand Colin: the second series of Adolphe Brisson's "Portraits Intimes" and the third series of Gaston Deschampe's "La Vie et les Livres." Of nearly equal bulk, they are of different grades of merit. Brisson is very sketchy, and attaches himself more to the personality of the writer than to the character and value of his work. Some of the more notable of the articles are those on Heredia, Brunetière, Mounet-Sully, Bodinier, and Coppée. Deschamps gives a better return for the time and attention bestowed on his book. He is more purposeful and serious; he both thinks himself and provokes thought. He writes agreeably, in a smooth and flowing style; his education, his reading, and his travels have combined to make him very pleasant, well-informed company. He gives a fair study of Heredia, a better of Verlaine; hits Bourget prettily, and gathers a comically erroneous idea of America from that author's 'Outre-mer.' He has a good chapter on Gaston Paris, and that on 'La Littérature et la Démocratie' is still more to be praised.

With the October issue, Mr. George W. Cable's little circular, the *Letter*, becomes the *Symposium*, adding one more to the host of magazines called into being and competition by the magic wand of "process." The illustrations and the spirit that breathes in this periodical are refined, and will secure entrance into many homes for the editor's well-known humanitarian propaganda. The publication office is at No. 41 Centre Street, Northampton, Mass.

The October number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History* prints for the first time, from a manuscript in the possession of the Pennsylvania Historial Society, Penn's draft of "Fundamentall Constitutions" for the future State, intended to be subscribed by the first purchasers, but probably never submitted to them, though there is evidence some were shown it. It is in all respects a very interesting precursor of the Frame of Government. One provision and one official designation, viz., that of Commissioners of Education, has a very modern sound. These officers formed one of four committees into which the Governor was to divide the Council, and they were to "inspect the breeding of Youth, as to Schools, Masters, Books and the way and Method of Cultivateing and improveing of science truely so called." It is well known that education in Pennsylvania did not respond to this early and high concern for it.

The September number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* contains a chart, with explanatory text by Prof. Sievers, of the distribution of vegetation in Venezuela. It is so ingeniously colored as to show the position and extent of the different tracts devoted to the cultivation of sugar, coffee, cocoa, and cereals, as well as of the forests and savannas. On a second map are traced the routes of the most noted travellers, from Humboldt to the present day, and it is surprising to see how little of the country has been explored. Dr. Sven Hedin describes, with the aid of a series of charts, the various changes noted since 1720 of the bed of Lake Lob-nor and its tributary streams, owing to the action of the wind and sand. There is further an account of the new boundary treaties between Chili and Bolivia and the Argentine Republic, and a strong appeal for an Antarctic expedition to be headed by Dr. Nansen.

The interest in Russia for geographical research seems to be on the increase. During the year 1895 the Geographical Society published a history of its work for the previous fifty years in three volumes, to which a new map of Russia in Asia (130 miles to the inch) is appended. There were also ten other publications — travels, memoirs, bibliography, an ethnographic periodical, etc. Eight other works, mostly on Asia, are being printed; and still a number of others, including two more volumes of 'Addenda to Ritter's Asia,' are in preparation.

In Russia one observes, too, a rapid development of practical instruction in agriculture in connection with the village schools. In the province of Ekaterinoslav, for instance, according to the biennial report, a résumé of which is given in *Nature*, "nearly one-half of the schools in the province (227 out of 504) are already in possession of small model kitchen-gardens, orchards, tree-plantations, or farms, at which gardening, sylviculture, and sericulture are regularly taught." These farms and gardens have an area of 283 acres, and contained last year 111,000 fruit trees and 238,300 planted forest trees, the province being mostly treeless. There are also a thousand beehives, kept partly by the teachers and partly by the children. In central Russia the culture of cereals principally is taught, while in Caucasia especial attention is given to instruction in the culture of the silkworm and the vine.

A rescript issued by the Prussian Minister of Instruction, and published in the September number of the *Zentralblatt für die gesammte Unterrichtsverwaltung in Preussen*, permits women to attend the lectures in all departments of Prussian universities, provided they have pursued the necessary preparatory studies and obtain the consent of the professors or tutors directly concerned. Heretofore, in accordance with the rescript of August 9, 1886, each special case of this kind had to be referred to the Minister of Instruction for his decision; but this inconvenient and practically almost prohibitory restriction is now abolished.

According to an order just issued by the Government of the Grand Duchy of Baden, physicians wishing to pass the so-called *Physikatsprüfung*, an examination enabling them to hold a medical position in the service of the State, must (1) have attended lectures on psychiatry and medical jurisprudence in a German university; (2) have had three months' clinical instruction and experience in

the treatment of the insane; (3) have pursued a course of study in bacteriology; (4) have practised medicine at least two years in the Grand Duchy of Baden. These conditions do not differ essentially from those already imposed by Prussia and Saxony, which are, however, more liberal in not confining the two years' obligatory practice of medicine to any one German State, but extending it to the whole empire; less advanced than Baden in not requiring either clinical experience as an alienist or special knowledge of bacteriology.

Additional folios of the Geological Atlas of the United States continue to be issued for various parts of the country by our National Geological Survey. A list of folios completed and in preparation may be had on addressing the Director of the Survey, Washington, D. C. The price, generally twenty-five cents a folio, is extremely moderate for work of so high a grade, including explanatory text, topographic, geologic, and economic map, and structural sections. The greatest number of sheets within a single district are in Tennessee and Alabama, where a considerable area is now covered. Other sheets are from widely separated localities. The lithographic work is executed with great skill, the register being practically perfect. The Three-Forks (Montana) folio may be mentioned as exhibiting a particularly harmonious combination of colors in a very intricate pattern, with an effect much more pleasing than that produced by hand-colored maps of the British Survey.

The waterspout on Vineyard Sound, August 19 last, observed by thousands of summer residents for many miles along the shore of Martha's Vineyard and Cape Cod, was well photographed by J. N. Chamberlain, Cottage City, Mass., who sells prints of various sizes at prices ranging from twenty-five to fifty cents. The larger view gives a most impressive picture of the cylindrical spout, majestically suspended from the clouds at the height of a mile, as estimated by Prof. Dwight of Vassar College, its whirling column reaching vertically down to the foaming waters of the Sound. This is by far the best photograph of a spout that has come to our notice. The heavy rain that fell on the island soon after the spout broke up, was found at several points to be salt; and this is naturally ascribed to the ascent of sea water in the spout.

The recent adverse decision of the Court of Appeal at Rouen in the now famous case of scientific plagiarism, Cremieux-Jamin vs. Lombroso, reinforces a good idea that comes from Prof. Michael Foster, secretary of the Royal Society. Prof. Foster suggests an international organization of scientific men for the purpose of registering at frequent intervals the results of contemporary investigation. Such a body would serve not only to protect the investigator from prosecution, but also to prevent him from going over ground already trodden. For the world of science at large, it could perform a valuable service by discriminating what has become common property from what is still in the possession of the original author.

The freshman class of the Johns Hopkins Medical School for the collegiate year 1896-97 shows better than any of the three earlier ones the non-local character of its students, as well as the promptness with which higher standards of admission to professional schools are responded to. The first freshman class under the requirement of a B.A. degree for admission numbered nineteen (three women), and represented ten States and eleven colleges. This year the forty-three freshmen (fourteen women) represent sixteen States and twenty-three colleges, of which seven are co-educational. Yale contributes the largest contingent of men (five) and Smith of women (four). Eight of the men and four of the women—(three of these B.A. Leland Stanford University)—have taken their bachelor's degrees at some co-educational institution. In addition to Smith, the other women's colleges sending graduates are Wellesley three, and Barnard, Radcliffe, and Vassar each one. Not the least interesting fact brought out by the list is the greater proportional increase of women in this year's class.

—Dr. Murray, in his new section of the Oxford English Dictionary (Macmillan), is still in the doldrums of the prefix dis-, casting anchor at *disobservant*. There is a light breeze at *dish* and *disk*, which are both derived, like desk and dais, from the Latin *discus*. "To dish," in the sense of 'to do for,' is first cited from 1798; "dishing the Whigs" was already proverbial in 1869. Phonetic reformers are confronted with the perverse preference shown for the spelling *disc* over *disk* in some branches of science, botany not included. They will hardly accept the plea that the distinction is convenient (for the eye), but the survival of the fittest will have its way. *Dismiss*, we are shown, has beaten out of sight not only its antecedent *dismit*, but "the etymologically more regular forms *dimit*, *dimiss*, and *demit*." In another camp, that of the purists in -our, some alarm should be spread on finding *discolor*, *discoloration* given precedence over *discolour*, *discolouration*, though *dishonour*, etc., still keep to the front. A dead uniformity, again, is forbidden, if only by the exigencies of poetry, in the accentuation of *discrepance*, *-ancy*, and *-ant*. The first form has obviously no rhyming utility (except comic) unless the antepenult be stressed, and this stress is marked dominant by Dr. Murray; *discrepancy* has greater utility for male than for female rhyming and tends in fact to be stressed on the antepenult (in this case the root); *discrepant* follows the one substantive for rhyme, the other for metre. Prose usage selects as it pleases. The United States has merely cherished, not invented, *disgruntle*, the citations ranging from 1692 in the mother country to 1884 in Dakota and the Lisbon *Star;* Mr. Bryce calls it "an expressive American term," but there is nothing piggish about us. "To disguise" with liquor remounts to 1563; the indispensable *disgust* and its derivatives are post-Shaksperian. To Horace Walpole in 1754 we owe *disjecta membra* in a loose borrowing from his Latin namesake. We reserve to the last Dr. Murray's trump card, the etymology of *dismal*, now first worked out: "Old French *dis mal*=Latin *dies mali*, evil days, unlucky days," also known as *dies Ægyptiaci*, "Egipcian daies." The proof of this is quite incontrovertible.

— Mr. Henry Bradley's section (Fish-Flexuose) chances to be somewhat richer in interesting vocables and etymologies, *e. g.*, *flask*, *flag*, *flake*, *flit*, *flix*, etc. American solely is the usage "to fit for college"; and "to fix up," "to fix it," and "fix a jury" originated on this side of the water, along with *fixings* and the more or less synonymous *fixtures*. *Flapjack* is ours only by survival, as it occurs in English literature in 1600 and still lingers in dialect. Something of our due is denied us when *flagpole* passes unrecorded; and might not one of our New England novels supply *flat*, abbreviated from *flat-iron?* "To flat out" is credited to us as indigenous metaphor, and so is "to fizzle," 'to fail.' The transitive verb "to flam," 'to deceive by a sham story or trick, or by flattery,' is set down as obsolete except in dialect or in the United States, the sole quotation for the latter being from 'Sam Slick.' Whether Judge Haliburton in this instance was truly reporting us or not, the word has now no meaning or currency, we believe, here any more than in written English. *Five twenty* (*viz.*, the Government bond so-called) is allowed a full rubric as a well-established Americanism. We must go back to England and the year 1772 for *flabbergast*. Marryat, in 'Peter Simple' (1833), appears to have invented *flapdoodle*, and to have furnished the definition—"the stuff they feed fools on," while *fishy*, in the sense of 'questionable,' shady,' etc., is traced to Disraeli's 'Coningsby' (1844); two instances of the part that fiction may play in extending the popular vocabulary. Many a poet might envy the making such an addition to our counters of speech as Dr. Samuel Clarke's "the eternal fitness of things" (1705). We conclude with a brief extract touching *flee* and *fly*. The confusion between these verbs, says Mr. Bradley, is met with in Old English:

"In modern English the association of the two verbs has the curious result that the ordinary prose equivalent of Latin *fugere* is *fly*, with past tense and past participle *fled* (the forms *flew*, *flown* have only the sense of Latin *volare*), while *flee* has become archaic, being confined to more or less rhetorical or poetic diction. Even *fly* and *fled*, indeed, now belong rather to literary than to colloquial English; expressions like 'run away' being substituted in familiar speech."

—The volumes of Mr. Traill's 'Social England' (New York: Putnams; London: Cassell) continue to make their appearance with commendable rapidity. The fifth is now before us, covering the period from the accession of George I. to the battle of Waterloo, and it is an evident improvement upon its predecessors. There is less incompetent work in it, and more than one of the really qualified writers who have contributed to previous volumes have now reached a period in which they are at home. Some names of weight disappear from the list of contributors, but in recompense there are acceptable additions to the staff. Mr. Sandys of Cambridge, for instance, furnishes us with an instructive little sketch, covering twenty pages, of the history of English scholarship between 1570 and 1742. We welcomed Mr. Saintsbury's arrival in the third volume to take charge of Elizabethan literature; it is, we must confess, with a sigh of relief that we find him giving place in 1784 to Mr. Traill himself. Mr. Saintsbury has much knowledge, some insight, and a good deal of individuality—blessed quality in a book written to order! Some of his happy phrases cling to the memory, like his characterization of Pope as a "performer on the couplet," and his description of the eighteenth century as one of "plain thinking and high living." But it is possible to get a little tired of his scintillations, his affectations, his slipshod ease; and Mr. Traill's more correct and dignified style consorts well with a juster and soberer judgment. When we come to the sections on religion we miss Mr. Hutton's amenity and charity. The writer who takes his place, and discourses on "The Established Church, 1715-1815," repeats with unguarded emphasis the conventional lamentations over Latitudinarianism. He fails to perceive either that the Deistic and Subscription controversies had a natural place in the history of Eng-

lish thought, or that England owes to the illogical compromises of eighteenth-century discussion its escape from the sharp antagonisms of Catholic and atheist, absolutist and revolutionist, which are the curses of Continental life. He might have learned this even from Mr. Leslie Stephen's unsympathetic pages; but we notice that both the 'History of English Thought' and Mark Pattison's well-known essay are conspicuous by their absence from the list of authorities for church history (p. 513).

—Mr. Traill has thought to avoid the charge of partiality by intrusting the history of "Nonconformity, 1689-1815," to Dr. John Brown, the author of the 'Life of John Bunyan'; but we fear he has saved his own reputation only at the expense of the book. Like his conformist colleague, but in different phraseology, Dr. Brown laments the "decline in spiritual life," "the wave of lifeless Arian teaching," and so on. That the movement of thought by which Presbyterian Calvinism changed itself into Unitarianism had close parallels in Scotland, in Geneva, and in New England, and is hardly explained with adequacy as "slumber and decay," has apparently never occurred to him. That the Evangelical movement had its reverse side is never hinted at; and the whole account from every point of view is meagre to an unfortunate degree. Twenty-two lines on George Whitefield are surely inadequate in a work on this scale: they are fewer than another writer is allowed to devote to the cut of men's coats between 1786 and 1800 (p. 495). In contrast to the skimped ecclesiastical sections are those concerning the military forces. Major Gretton takes sufficient elbow-room, but we do not grudge it to him; for this is, so far as we know, the first popular general history which has attempted to tell us something of the internal life of the army, and it is told entertainingly. So also Dr. Hughes's sections on the history of art are leisurely and complete—among the best in the book. While cutting the pages, we have noticed, more or less at haphazard, two or three questionable statements which may be recorded here, in the interests of a second edition. What evidence is there of any indebtedness on the part of Adam Smith either to Massie or to Anderson (p. 335), except to the latter, perhaps, for a few historical details? Is not "senseless" an over-strong epithet to apply to the laws of parochial settlement (p. 337), seeing how naturally they were begotten by the principle of parochial responsibility? And, finally, can Burke be fairly said ever to have held "democratic views" (p. 488)?

—It is exactly twelve years ago (Thursday, November 6, 1884) that the *Nation* drew the attention of its readers to the appearance of the advance sheets of an important Oriental work, 'Avesta, the Sacred Books of the Parsis,' being the preliminary announcement of a new edition of the Zoroastrian scriptures, in preparation by Prof. Karl F. Geldner, then of Tübingen, Germany, now of the University of Berlin. Since that time the publication of the great work has been steadily pushed forward, and the completed edition now lies before us, a monument of the learned editor's sound scholarship, good judgment, and untiring toil. The royal octavo pages, with clear print on heavy paper, and with initial rubric letters, make up three stately volumes, a bible from which the Parsis in their temples may read with pride, or expound the remains of holy writ of their prophet Zoroaster, who lived at least six centuries before the Christian era. The division *Yasna* of the texts is a sort of prayer-book; the *Gathas* are the Psalms, or metrical sayings of the Prophet; the *Yashts* are heroic tales or hymns of praise; the *Vendidad* is an Iranian Pentateuch. The edition is published in two forms, one with German and one with English foot-notes and introduction. The Prolegomena is of itself an important contribution, for it sheds a flood of light upon many obscure problems as to the relation between the various manuscripts which we have of the 'Avesta,' and it also makes clear the general plan and method which Dr. Geldner has adopted in his editorial task. Those who have watched with interest the progress of this monumental edition will be glad to know that a knightly order was bestowed by the King of Würtemberg upon the editor in recognition of the importance of his contribution to the science of philology; and special favors were conferred upon the publisher, the house of Kohlhammer, in Stuttgart, for the service he had rendered to the cause of Oriental learning.

LOTHROP'S SEWARD.

William Henry Seward. By Thornton Kirkland Lothrop. [American Statesmen Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

THERE have been but few longer and more eventful careers in our history than that of William H. Seward. He took up his political pen in 1824 to denounce the "Albany Regency," and one might almost say that he held it in his hand until he left the Department of State in March, 1869. At different times during these forty-five years he was a leader in three distinct parties. At first he worked secretly with the Anti-Masons; then he wrote their campaign addresses, and drafted the resolutions which became the platform of the first national convention. Before 1850, of course, Clay and Webster were greater and more imposing Whigs than the New Yorker; but, from the beginning of the struggle growing out of the Mexican war, Seward stood at the head of the movement designed to fight the Slave Power with weapons political. His speeches outranked all others, and are to-day the most profitable for reading by the student of politics. He gave a happy name to that "irrepressible conflict" which the abolitionists announced when they directed their attack on the pro-slavery Constitution. From 1861 to 1869 he shaped the foreign policy of the country. He gradually came to have so little sympathy with his old allies that by 1866 he had ceased to be a Republican.

The new volume in the American Statesmen Series is more satisfactory as a general sketch of the history of which Seward was a part than as a study of the life of a great statesman and politician. The author's style is lucid, and he shows much ability in defining the old issues with brevity and force. Those who have read the sketch of Seward which Mr. George E. Baker prepared in vain for the campaign of 1860, and who are familiar with the three volumes of memoirs and letters which Mr. Frederick W. Seward published a few years ago, will be surprised to see how little has been added as to either facts or interpretation, and how much has been omitted. Seward's theory was that "the faults of great men drop out in history," and he and his three biographers have aimed to illustrate this theory. Baker's volume was written under Seward's eye, and the work by Mr. F. W. Seward is largely made up of his own recollections and of the letters which his father wrote to Mrs. Seward. Seward was a devoted husband, and his letters to his wife, whose health compelled her to remain in Auburn much of the time, have much value. They were designed to soothe an invalid whose political ideas were much more in harmony with those of Sumner and of John P. Hale than with those of Seward and Weed, yet parts of these letters are quoted as if they were as authoritative and significant as was the confidential correspondence between Seward and Weed.

Seward was so much greater than his faults or mistakes that it is a grave error, for one who pretends to be an independent biographer, to fail to make entirely independent researches and to draw conclusions accordingly. Mr. Lothrop has been so disturbed by the criticisms of Seward's acts at different times by such scholars as Von Holst, Rhodes, Nicolay and Hay, and others, that his chief concern is to defend rather than to describe his hero. The result is that he gives us very little insight into Seward's character and the sources of his political power; he deprives Seward's career of much of its scope and vivacity. The ambitious, calculating, adroit politician, with a strong flavor of philanthropic zeal, who wrote party addresses, influenced senatorial committees, guided party caucuses, and trimmed his sails to the varying winds, is not to be found in this narrative. But impartial historians and unbiassed contemporaries of Seward so paint him. How, again, he managed to obtain his leadership and to keep an enthusiastic following, we are not distinctly told. Mr. Lothrop lacks neither ability nor candor, but he has made so poor use, or none at all, of such sources of information as the Albany *Evening Journal*, the *Times* and the *Tribune* of New York, the public documents, the *Congressional Globe*, and the unpublished diplomatic dispatches, that he sees only one side of Seward.

The three questions which attracted most attention during Seward's Governorship were his ideas on internal improvements, his recommendations in regard to the school question, and his contest with the Governor of Virginia and the New York Legislature because he would not surrender persons alleged to have violated Virginia's slave code. The present biographer has given a good summary of the discussion about the last question, but the treatment of the other two points is entirely inadequate. If he had explained how Seward came to say in his annual message of 1840, "I do not hesitate, therefore, to recommend the establishment of schools in which they [children of foreigners] may be instructed by teachers speaking the same language with themselves and professing the same faith," and if he had told us how Seward undertook to deny what this language plainly meant, he would have prepared us for Seward's emasculation of his "irrepressible conflict" when the Presidency was in sight. If he had found time to outline Seward's theories and arguments in regard to internal improvements, and to show how Seward favored the payment of State indebtedness by having the surplus revenue of the United States distributed among the several States, and by obtaining from the national Government a large sum for the use of public highways, he would have been describing an ardent paternalist, and would have disclosed one of the springs of Seward's popularity at a time when notions of finance and taxation almost as strange as those of to-day were current.

Mr. Lothrop does not mean to misrepresent or conceal the facts. It is evident that his omissions, his general terms, his failure to notice striking situations and to see and describe the sequence of events, are due to his unfamiliarity with New York politics of the time. Everybody knows, in a vague way, that Seward owed as much to Weed's devotion as he did to his own efforts. We are informed that an accident in Rochester led to "Seward's first meeting with the man whose friendship and influence played so important a part in his whole political career" (page 9). What was the wonderful relation between the two men, and how did Weed manage campaigns and legislatures in Seward's interest? Surely these are not side issues. Weed's autobiography, Seward's letters, and the newspapers of the period supply the whole story, but the present biographer leaves it to our imagination. The range of Seward's abilities was best manifested by the influence he exerted upon President Taylor, and by the arguments with which he confronted Webster, Clay, and the whole South. How did it happen that Taylor accepted such a radical as Seward for his most intimate adviser and public defender in the Senate? Taylor owed the Presidency largely to the manipulations of Thurlow Weed; the community of interests between Seward and Weed brought Seward into Taylor's confidence several days before the inauguration, in 1849. Seward was, what Mr. Lothrop does not show, a shrewd politician as well as a statesman with high moral purposes.

The outlines of the struggle over the great compromise of 1850 are excellent. It is commonly regarded as fortunate that the issue between the sections was not brought to a head in 1850, but Mr. Lothrop maintains the contrary. If he is right, then Seward must be classed as the master statesman of that day. It seems altogether probable that, if Taylor had lived, the fact that he was a Southerner and determined to make a forcible opposition to secession, would have made it impossible to unite the South in favor of disunion.

The wildest of recent Jingoes were tame indeed in comparison with Seward when he discussed the duties of our Government towards Hungary and the Powers that united to prevent her from securing her independence. Mr. Lothrop clearly sees the meaning of Seward's plea, and frankly says: "It advocated a meddlesome foreign policy, inconsistent with the position, the interests, and the prosperity of the United States. . . . The sober sense of Congress saved us from the possible consequences of Seward's rash and Quixotic proposal" (p. 118). This is none too severe, and Mr. Lothrop deserves much credit for having discarded his bias and cut loose from his predecessors. Seward's speech of March 9, 1852, shows that he early had a passion for a dashing foreign policy. A description of his attitude as Senator on several other foreign questions would have furnished an interesting introduction to the great Secretary of State of later years. In foreign affairs, Seward gave his imagination full sway where it would not favor the Southern policy of conquest and expansion. The necessity he was under, as an anti-slavery man, to oppose this policy, led him to make two or three very wise and sober arguments, exactly contrary, in purpose and meaning, to those for Hungary and "Irish Patriots."

Eight pages are given to an attempt to discredit Montgomery Blair's story that Seward told him that he (Seward) had suggested to Senator Dixon of Kentucky the idea of amending Douglas's first Nebraska bill so as to make the repeal of the Missouri Compromise entirely clear. It is a matter of very slight importance whether Seward made this suggestion or not. Prior to 1854, there was no chance of Whig success except by maintaining an alliance between the Northern and Southern wings of the party. During the last three Presidential campaigns, the Whigs in each section allowed their allies in the other section to follow the policy which seemed most likely to attract voters. Their leaders consulted together then just as ours do to-day. The Southern Whigs had lost popularity because the Democrats had shown themselves to be more strongly pro-slavery. At the end of 1853, no one supposed that the Missouri Compromise had been repealed or was likely to be; but men talked of it because it interested Buncombe. If Seward had thought that it would strengthen the Southern Whigs to be more explicit than the Democrats about the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, it would have been perfectly natural and consistent with his methods to make the alleged suggestion. In fact, if he had wished to help the Southern Whigs and at the same time benefit the cause of anti-slavery, the political situation indicated that he could best do so by causing the reference to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise to be made more distinct. This would and did make its passage more difficult, because it set the issue clearly before Northerners; while Southerners were sure to favor as little or as much as they could obtain for slavery. The outcome was a great surprise. Some have inferred from what Blair says that Seward professed to be aiming to form a sectional party. Even the language of Blair, who was a bitter enemy of Seward, does not warrant this; and the reluctance with which Seward gave up the Whig party clearly shows that he had no desire to wreck it.

Seward's ulterior purposes were generally high, and better than those of many of his rivals. He adopted the means which he thought best suited to accomplish his ends. It would be hard to find anything more bitter than his denunciations of Buchanan and the Supreme Court for the alleged conspiracy in regard to the Dred Scott decision. Our author supports Seward in the assumption that Buchanan would not have dared to hint at the nature of the forthcoming decision, if he had not received authentic information of what that decision was to be. This assumption would be warrantable if the character of that decision had not been generally and correctly understood at least two or three days before Buchanan foretold what it would be. When, in 1858, Seward said of the Dred Scott decision (Seward's Works, iv., 595),

> "The people of the United States never can, and they never will, accept principles so unconstitutional and so abhorrent. Never, never. Let the court recede. Whether it recede or not, we shall reorganize the court, and thus reform its political sentiments and practices, and bring them into harmony with the constitution and the laws of nature,"

his language was regarded as revolutionary. In February, 1860, he made a speech in the Senate which was plainly designed to put himself in harmony with the more conservative element of the party, and hence make him an eligible Republican candidate for the Presidency. He carefully avoided his former phrases about the "higher law," the "dominant class," the "Slave Power," the "irrepressible conflict"; and in place of them euphemistically spoke of the "capital [slave] States" and the "labor [free] States." After he had failed to obtain the nomination in 1860, he swung back to his radical course, and was the most brilliant figure in the ensuing campaign. We infer that the biographer does not appreciate the meaning of these changes, for he has failed to call attention to them.

The rest of Seward's public life is an open book in comparison with the part which fell between December, 1860, and April 15, 1861. Scholars do not doubt that his purposes were patriotic, but what pains Mr. Lothrop is, that they maintain that the great New Yorker made many mistakes and miscalculations and was constantly grasping for power. Every student of biography ought to know that no mistake is more common than for a leader or a central figure in a conflict to believe that the success of the cause depends upon his own supremacy. Seward was so thoroughly of this opinion that on March 8, 1861, he wrote to his wife: "I did not dare to go home, or to England, and leave the country to chance." For want of observing this trait, Seward's biographer does not understand why it is that there was so bitter a contest over the question as to who should go into Lincoln's Cabinet and control the Administration. Seward's idea was not to rule or ruin, as some have inferred, but it was to insist on holding the helm so as to prevent others from ruining the Government. Mr. Lothrop thinks, on grounds not set forth, that Seward asked to withdraw his acceptance of a position in the Cabinet because he had heard of Lincoln's remark, that if the Cabinet slate broke again it would break at the top—that is, Seward would be left out. This explanation, it should be noticed, does not explain why Lincoln made the remark, and it overlooks the very bitter recriminations which the friends of Seward and of Chase, respectively, were exchanging, and for which Lincoln believed Seward to be largely responsible.

Mr. Lothrop's chapter on Justice Campbell and the Confederate Commissioners to Washington proves that he has read so small a part of the available material printed or in manuscript that he has no appreciation of Seward's unavailing struggle to outmanœuvre both the Confederate diplomatists and the Republican radicals. If he had followed Seward's acts from day to day, as different sources of information make it possible to do, he would have seen that what Seward said to Campbell was only a part of his determination to rule the Administration and avert war. Our author is quite at sea as to Seward's motive in writing the famous suggestions of April 1, 1861, about a foreign war and a dictatorship. Wishing to defend Seward, but not being in possession of the facts, he concludes that Seward made these suggestions before he knew the President had definitively determined on the expeditions either to Fort Sumter or to Fort Pickens (p. 278). Nicolay and Hay's 'Lincoln' (vol. iii., pp. 436 37) shows, on the contrary, that on March 31 Seward bore to Scott the President's positive orders to reinforce Fort Pickens. The whole sequence of events indicates that Seward's surprising propositions were a final and desperate effort to force the Administration to let him rule, and get up a foreign war as the only means of escaping a civil one.

Considering that the diplomatic history of Seward's eight years in the Department of State has never been carefully written, much skill and industry is displayed by Mr. Lothrop in making a smooth and pleasing summary of it. Were there no unpublished dispatches which throw important light upon such as have been printed, the narrative might be called excellent although brief. We feel

confident that there are many of these dispatches which our author has not read, because he is vague and inaccurate as to several points which they fully explain. One of the best chapters is that on the *Trent* affair. If Mr. Lothrop had known just what led Seward to take the position he did, and had frankly admitted that Seward juggled with international law so as to reach an important conclusion in the way which would cause the least popular anger, he would have greatly enhanced the value of his contribution to diplomatic history. We are especially glad that he has struck an effective blow at a sentimental story which Lossing tells about an interview with Lincoln shortly after the seizure of the *Trent*. All the known facts were against this story, and Mr. Lothrop has put them in such a shape as to make an end of it. In describing Seward's refusal to receive the British and the French ministers together on a certain occasion in June, 1861, we are told (p. 300) that they came "to present a joint offer of mediation." Mediation, however, was not the purpose of England and France, who had merely made up their minds to ask both the United States and the Confederacy to agree to follow certain rules adopted by the Congress of Paris in 1856.

There was an excellent opportunity for the biographer to show his powers as attorney for the defence in answering the charges about Seward's treatment of political prisoners prior to February, 1862, when he had supreme control of them. The original records are well known to be in the Department of State, and it is generally supposed that they have not been printed, but this is a mistake. We can only guess why our author has entered a brief general plea instead of making a thorough defence or explanation.

There is only one way for a biographer to do full justice to Seward and to himself: to tell the story of his life and complex character as Parton has Voltaire's, as Lewes has Goethe's, as Schurz has Clay's—fully, frankly, and without concern for results. The narrow compass of a duodecimo volume is doubtless responsible for many of Mr. Lothrop's shortcomings. Notwithstanding these, the public will be grateful for his conscientious efforts to write a popular vindication of one of the ablest, most brilliant, fascinating, energetic, ambitious, and patriotic men in American history.

GODKIN'S PROBLEMS OF MODERN DEMOCRACY.

Problems of Modern Democracy: Political and Economic Essays. By Edwin Lawrence Godkin. New York: Scribners. 1896.

ALL but the first of these essays have appeared in leading magazines during the past ten years; the first, on "Aristocratic Opinions of Democracy," was printed in the *North American Review* for January, 1865. We are thus able to trace the continuity and evolution of Mr. Godkin's views on some of the most important questions of our time. We find, in truth, more continuity than evolution, if by the latter term be implied variation. Mr. Godkin has not changed his principles since 1865; whatever change may be apparent is due merely to their application to new phases in political and social development. Whether in 1896 or in 1865, he is the unswerving supporter of liberty, reason, and individualism, and the unsparing critic of whatever tends, either by excess or insufficiency, to impair any of these.

The eleven essays deal for the most part with the great political and economical questions of the past generation. The earliest paper, written just before the conclusion of our civil war, is a defence of democracy against those critics who, following the conspicuous lead of De Tocqueville, declared democracy to be a system under which arts, science, literature, and statesmanship inevitably tend towards mediocrity, and manners towards a vulgar restlessness. Mr. Godkin, while admitting the existence of many of these defects, shows that these defects do not inhere in democracy, but spring from the conditions under which our country was expanded and settled between 1790 and 1860. In similar fashion he confutes Sir Henry Maine's assertion that popular government has a very fragile foundation by exposing the inadequacy of Sir Henry's comparison. And, indeed, it does not require a powerful logician to explode so much of Sir Henry's argument as may be expressed thus: The governments of Central and South America are unstable, owing to constant revolutions; but these governments are democratic; therefore, democracy is an unstable form of government. In a third article, called out this very summer by Mr. Lecky's 'Democracy and Liberty,' Mr. Godkin comes again to the defence of democracy, not blinking its obvious failures, but laying bare the insufficiency or irrelevancy of Mr. Lecky's data and his incorrect deductions therefrom. In each of these three apologies, Mr. Godkin's conclusions seem to us to gain greatly in weight from the fact that his attitude is avowedly that of the devil's advocate rather than that of the unquestioning champion of democracy.

"I am not an enthusiast for popular government," he says, "or for any other form of government. I believe politics to be an extremely practical kind of business, and that the communities which succeed best in it are those which bring least enthusiasm to the conduct of their affairs" (page 72). Our democracy is suffering, he says in another place, "from unforeseen evils, as well as enjoying unforeseen blessings. It will probably be worse before it is better. It is trying a great many experiments in laws and manners, of which some, doubtless, will be hideous failures. The régime of 'crazes' through which it is now passing is very discouraging, but it is engaged, like most other civilized countries, in a search after remedies" (page 308). Again, addressing himself to critics like Mr. Lecky, he very pertinently remarks, "When a monarchist or conservative begins to complain to a democrat of the defects of his system, and of the gloominess of its prospects, in order to produce any effect he must point out from what period or from what system there has been a falling away. When and where were things any better, taken as a whole? And how much better were they?" (page 288).

As illustrations of Mr. Godkin's ability to apply to special cases the general principles which we have thus sketched, we should cite his paper on "Criminal Politics," in which he describes the rise, vicissitudes, and methods of Tammany Hall, and another in which he analyzes the "Political Situation in 1896." Persons who have hitherto been reluctant to admit that the protective system has fostered the rank growth of many of the evils which now confront us, will find in the latter some stubborn facts against them. And only those who wilfully turn away from Mr. McKinley's record—first, his long patronage of silver while he was a Congressman, and next his disingenuous and cowardly avoidance of stating his position last winter and spring, while he was a candidate for the Presidency—will be apt to disagree with the opinion that Mr. McKinley's nomination marked the culmination of a thirty-year-old tendency "to eliminate men of ability and independence of thought from public life" (page 270).

Turning from political to economic subjects, Mr. Godkin's most important essay is entitled "Who Will Pay the Bills of Socialism?" With characteristic bluntness he puts point-blank the question which neither professed Socialists nor their miscellaneous coddlers and abettors have ever answered. They always talk grandiosely about a vast reservoir of wealth, which would suffice to make every man, woman, and child comfortably well off, if not rich, if Mr. Bellamy or some other philanthropic gentleman were only permitted to wave his benevolent magic wand and bid it pour forth. Wicked or heartless men—millionaires and monopolists—are supposed to be engaged in preventing the Socialist benefactors from consummating a revolution by which, in the twinkling of an eye, the very mud and cobble-stones in our streets would be turned to gold, and society would live happily ever after, like all true citizens of fairyland. Mr. Godkin disposes of these Midas dreams by showing that no such hoard exists, and that the total wealth of the United States in 1890 would, if divided per caput, and put at 6 per cent. interest, yield a per-caput return of but $6 a week—a sum ludicrously inadequate for carrying on even the cheapest of the many proposed Utopias. Hardly less important is his reiterated warning that the large numbers of men of unlimited ability, integrity, disinterestedness, and zeal—whose existence is taken for granted by the prophets of Socialism—do not now exist and never have existed. Without them, and without that imaginary hoard of wealth (*Benjamin* Kidd's Treasure, let us call it), the Socialist ship of state would hardly go faster than would the *Great Eastern* without officers, crew, and fuel.

We must speak more briefly of the rest of Mr. Godkin's book. Such papers as "Idleness and Immorality" and "The Expenditure of Rich Men" mirror the manners of our leisure class, and suggest how much mere wealth needs civilizing. Every other form of government has held out incentives by which a part at least of its leisure class have been drawn to busy themselves in worthy pursuits: will Democracy (or Plutocracy) fail to do this? Mr. Godkin considers elsewhere "The Duty of Educated Men in a Democracy," and finds that this duty can be most easily discharged by them through unremitted, intelligent, and impartial criticism. Let them not suppose, however, that the post of public critic can be held by any one: it calls for tenacity, indifference to social and partisan obloquy, disinterestedness, and clear-thinking, rare even among educated men, rarer still in happy combination. Of the two remaining essays we need only say that that on "The Economic Man" contains pungent reflections on the recent "historical schools" of economists, while that on "Some Political Aspects of the Tariff" presents a diagnosis of the effect which protection had had up to 1887 on the development of "labor" and "capital" in this country.

"If the protectionist policy is persisted in," Mr. Godkin concludes, "the process of assimilating American society to that of Europe must go on. The accumulation of capital in

the hands of comparatively few individuals and corporations must continue and increase. Larger and larger masses of the population must every day be reduced to the condition of day-laborers, on fixed wages, contracting more and more the habit of looking on their vote simply as a mode of raising or lowering their wages, and, what is worse than all, learning to consider themselves a class apart, with rights and interests opposed to or different from those of the rest of the community" (page 121).

Our sole comment on this passage is that every year of the nine since it was written has but emphasized its truth.

We have said enough to give some hint of the substance of this volume. As regards the writer's style, unlike most men who since Mill have devoted themselves to the discussion in print of economics and politics, Mr. Godkin does not affect a dread of being "popular"—that is, of writing so that intelligent readers who are not specialists can understand him; he is, on the contrary, as "popular" as Mill himself, and he has even dared to imbed in his language the political slang of the time, by which he makes it all the more evident that for him politics and economics are not abstractions, but realities, manifesting themselves concretely every day. The great problems of democracy he approaches on their political or on their economic side, whereas the current fashion is to approach them from the ethical or sociological standpoint. Whoever prefers the latter will naturally cry out against the limitations of the former method. It is by no means certain that ethical considerations may not have great influence in solving every one of our present difficulties, or that some sort of socialistic state may not sooner or later be set up; but the merits of Mr. Godkin's work are not affected by these possibilities, for he has spoken so strenuously in behalf of liberty, reason, and individualism that even the enemies of those ideals must reckon with him.

SAYCE'S EGYPT OF THE HEBREWS.

The Egypt of the Hebrews and Herodotus. By the Rev. A. H. Sayce. Macmillan Co.

Mr. SAYCE'S book is in two pieces without visible connection. We shall confine our remarks to the first part, because there is little in the other that the author has not said before, and his unfair estimate of Herodotus has been criticised often enough by competent scholars.

Mr. Sayce begins with Abram's visit to Egypt, placing it after the Hyksos conquest, which must then have been anterior to B. C. 2350. Notice is taken of several objections to the Biblical narrative of Abram's visit and to the story of Joseph: that there were no camels in Egypt in Abram's time; that the name of Potiphar was not in use in Joseph's age; that Potiphar was a eunuch and yet married; that this story suspiciously recalls that of the "two brothers," by Enna the scribe, which some regard as the original. In discussing these, the author states the objections strongly and the argument on the other side in a very half-hearted way; which is remarkable in one who has been recently taken to task by Prof. Bevan (*Contemp. Rev.*, Dec., 1895) as an uncompromising defender of the Mosaic writings. As a result of his studies, Mr. Sayce believes (p. 49) that the Bible chronology "fits in" perfectly with that of the Egyptian monuments. The reader who knows Canon Cook's excursus on Genesis in the Speaker's Commentary may remember that Canon Cook also finds the two chronologies to tally, although Mr. Sayce's date for the Exodus is 1270 B. C., while his is 1647.

The next chapter professes to deal with Moses and the Exodus, but is mainly devoted to the tablets discovered at Tel el-Amarna. These show that Egypt, under Amenophis IV. (Khu-n-Aten), had adopted a monotheistic religion which prepared it to welcome the Hebrews in Joseph's time, while the counter-revolution which restored the ancient faith naturally led to the oppression and the Exodus. This is the best part of the book, as Mr. Sayce is perfectly at home in the field of the cuneiform inscriptions. The uninitiated will be surprised to hear that in the age of Khu-n-Aten the clumsy and difficult cuneiform was the medium of correspondence on a vast scale throughout the region between the Nile and the Euphrates.

The third chapter discusses the Exodus. The reader will agree with Prof. Petrie, that the Pharaoh of the Exodus will never be discovered by chronological computation, but only, if ever, by what further excavations may reveal. We next pass to the relations of Egypt with the Hebrews in Canaan, and then to the Israelite monarchies and their precarious position between Assyria and Egypt. We are now on historical ground, the dates are tolerably certain, and Mr. Sayce is quite at home in all that relates to Assyria. The reader will find here some interesting bits of history, and may be good-natured enough not to observe that they are wholly irrelevant. Such is the fact that under Necho (B. C. 610–594) Egyptian mariners sailing from Suez circumnavigated Africa in three years.

The age of the Ptolemies is the subject of the fifth chapter. Here the connection with the Israelites is of the very slightest—just what is involved in Egypt's occasional interference between the Jews and the rulers of Syria. We are struck here, as before, by the author's candor. He does not disguise the horrible crimes of the Maccabees, nor blink the gross formalism into which the chosen people had fallen, so that, for example, their city was regularly taken whenever their assailants knew enough to attack it on a Sabbath day. This part of the book ends with the fall of Jerusalem in B. C. 63, and with some little reference to the Christian antiquities of Egypt, in which Mr. Sayce is now greatly interested, and especially to the discovery, at Ekhmim, of the "Apocalypse of St. Peter" and the Gospel known to the early Church as that of St. Peter, in which Pilate is exonerated of all blame for the crucifixion.

We have praised Mr. Sayce for his candor, and we should prefer to make no offset to our praise; but fairness compels us to say that he occasionally relapses into professional disingenuousness. When he admits the pious frauds of the early Christian chronologists, when he owns that the Abram of Genesis xii. and the Abram of Genesis xiv. may be different persons, we admire his candor and courage. On pages 37, 38, his criticism of the story of Joseph's famine has no meaning unless the story is judged as a mere romance in which it behooves the narrator to avoid all improbability. He admits that the story betrays a later date by implying the improbable circumstance of a simultaneous famine in Palestine. And yet, with all this, he repeatedly shuts his eyes to truths which only the veriest bigot should ignore. How can so candid a writer consistently argue from a promise in Genesis and its fulfilment in Exodus xii. 40? If "forty years" in the Old Testament means, as he asserts, an indefinite number (page 91), what shall we think of the symbolic forty days in the wilderness and all the argumentative use which is made of it in the New Testament? And when Mr. Sayce, in answer to the objection that Pharaoh, as appears from Egyptian sources, was not drowned in the Red Sea, repeats the old answer that the Exodus does not say he was, does he honestly forget the usual interpretation of Psalm cxxxvi. 15, which he himself seems to accept on page 100?

Mr. Sayce's book addresses itself to "tourists and students." For the tourist it is far too learned, while the student is not likely to be pleased with a work so full of unsupported assertions. For example, we are told at the very start that the Sphinx was a mystery as early as B. C. 2350. Perhaps so; but where is the fact recorded? On page 21 we are told that naturalists have shown that the camel was not introduced into the northern coast of Africa until after the beginning of the Christian era. This point is so important that we should greatly like to be informed who these naturalists were. On page 82 we hear of a remarkable treaty between Ramses II. and the Hittite Khitasir, one item of which protects political exiles from extradition. Who would not wish to know where and in what form the treaty is preserved, and the very words of a proviso so very modern in character! On p. 106 we are told that the true form of Shishak's name is that preserved in the Old Testament. It is so paradoxical that the Egyptians should not have known the true name of the founder of their 22d dynasty that we feel entitled to demand the evidence of a fact so astonishing. For some of these statements the author may have in reserve proofs familiar to the learned; but a book intended for tourists and students is not to be defended on the principle of φανέντα συνετοῖσιν.

The reader will feel this lack of foundations the more as he discovers how inadequate is the author's idea of historical evidence, and how loosely he argues from it. Thus, on page 144, Mr. Sayce regards it as proved that a certain tax-gatherer did not know Greek, merely because his son wrote the tax receipts that have come down to us; as if he could have had no other reason for employing his son as a clerk. On page 68 the author of the 'Travels of a Mohar' is said to have been "clearly very proud of his geographical knowledge." Why? merely because in a book of travels he has mentioned the names of many places. On page 22, while defending the Scripture account of Abram's visit to Egypt against the objection that in Abram's day there were no camels in that country, he alleges that dromedaries' bones were dug up from the Nile mud between 1851 and 1854. He fails to show that they did not get there a thousand years after Abram's visit; but he seems quite unconscious that his argument is worthless without this link. Again, on page 110, because the prisoners represented at Karnak have, as he thinks, the faces of Amorites, he is sure that the Amorites were still strong in Palestine. The artist, we suppose, took as his models such of the captives as chanced to be at hand; it is for Mr. Sayce to show that he especially selected those who represented the majority, and this he fails to do. He does not even see that his argument proves too much, namely, that there were no Jews at all in Palestine.

Such is the looseness of Mr. Sayce's work that we are sometimes in doubt whether we are dealing with an inadequate statement or a blunder. Thus, on p. 107, we read that Shishak led his forces against Jerusalem and plundered it, and that a record of the cam-

paign was engraved on a temple at Karnak. Any reader might think that here was a valuable confirmation of Scripture, but on the very next page we have a list of the places taken, and we see with surprise that Jerusalem is not mentioned; so that, after all, the author was relying on the first book of Kings, and not on the evidence of the monuments. On p. 88 Mr. Sayce speaks of the successor of Ramses II. as the fourteenth son of that monarch and calls him Meneptah, whereas Prof. Petrie (*Contemporary Review*, May, 1896) calls him "Mery-en-Ptah (usually Merenptah)," and tells us that he was the thirteenth son. Another loose statement is found on p. 102, where we are told in what seems a general way that the Red Sea of the Authorized Version is the Gulph of Akabah. Of course, as a glance at any map will show, this is not meant to apply to the Red Sea which the Israelites crossed.

That a good deal of this looseness and inaccuracy is due to haste and lack of revision might be inferred from certain peculiarities of style and diction which we do not commonly look for in the works of learned Oxonians. Thus, on p. 45, we are told that certain excavations "have brought to light remains of the Hyksos Pharaohs, including one [one remain?] of Apopi." On p. 113 Mr. Sayce jumbles two statements, that there were no more petty princes in Egypt, and that Egypt and Ethiopia were under the same king, into this: "Egypt as well as Ethiopia obeyed a single head." On p. 123 we read that Psammetichos "had the satisfaction of seeing Egypt under a monarch who claimed to be of native race," by which the author means Psammetichos himself, whose "satisfaction" rested, we venture to say, on considerations altogether more practical if less noble. On p. 161 we are told of "a woman stained with every possible and impossible crime." In spite of all which, we are willing to believe that the spelling of the singular of *savans* as *savan*, without a "t," may be laid on the broad shoulders of the uncomplaining "typo."

The book has an index, which, though scanty, is not too inadequate to be of some use.

History of Oratory and Orators: A Study of the Influence of Oratory upon Politics and Literature, with special reference to certain orators selected as representative of their several epochs, from the earliest dawn of Grecian civilization down to the present day. By Henry Hardwicke. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

The History of Oratory from the Age of Pericles to the Present Time. By Lorenzo Sears. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1896.

The title of Mr. Hardwicke's volume is misleading. It is divided into six chapters—on oratory in Greece, in Rome, in modern times, in England, in France, and in America. Dealing with these various periods and countries, it necessarily embodies much of the material for a history of oratory, but it is rather a collection of biographical sketches, quotations, and anecdotes, accompanied by a quantum of criticism, than an historical treatise. It is made up, of course, out of other books, and the process of manufacture is a little too visible. Considered as a book of anecdotes, it is entertaining, and brings together in a small compass many of the "good things" of a department of literature which is full of them, otherwise only to be hunted up by laborious research through a mass of biographies and histories.

Underlying the author's critical remarks seem to be two assumptions, one of which is no doubt true, the other, we believe, mistaken. The first is that oratory is connected with freedom. This is a commonplace: the instinct of despotism is to strangle free speech. The other assumption is that oratory and debate are very much the same. This is not true. A funeral sermon or panegyric comes under the head of oratory, but has nothing to do with debate. Oratory covers the whole field of speech addressed to any number of people large enough to be called an audience, while debate is only one branch of it. Hence rhetorical rules applicable in debate will by no means cover all oratory. When Fox said, "Did the speech read well? If so, it was a bad one," he must have had in mind extempore speech addressed to a parliamentary body for the purpose of influencing it immediately to action, and not composed at leisure to be read. Such a speech, for its full effect, must be heard by those to whom it is addressed. But it by no means follows that every speech which reads well is a bad speech. Indeed, modern public life has produced a kind of speech having nothing to do with debate, which is apt to read almost as well as it sounds when heard—we mean the orations now delivered so frequently to large public meetings on events of the day, or "issues" in a campaign, which are generally addressed to sympathetic audiences, and are now often prepared very much with a view to their effect when read in the columns of a newspaper the next morning.

Prof. Sears's manner of dealing with the subject is more elaborate than that of Mr. Hardwicke, and covers more ground, but is rather an outline sketch than a history, and even as a sketch it can hardly be called satisfactory. The author's style bears marks of an indifference to accuracy in the use of language which, in treating of an art of which language is the substance, is surprising. "Secretary of the Treasury" is a curiously modern term to apply to the office held by the orator Lycurgus, and to call Aristotle "the Rhetorician" is to apply to him a term which does not describe a writer on Rhetoric at all. There are several references to "demonstrative" oratory, but no clear description of what the author means by the term.

The book suggests, without answering, the question, how far an historical treatment of the art of oratory is possible. There are two great difficulties in the way which do not apply to other arts—first, that a large part of every oratorical style disappears and is lost with the death of the orator; second, that the materials of the art have been, during the historical period, pretty much the same in every age. In architecture, music, poetry, and painting this is not so, at any rate not to the same extent. The Taj Mahal is the same building to-day in all essential respects as when it was erected; the music of Wagner and that of Palestrina can be compared; Homer remains the same whether we believe the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' to be the products of one brain or of twenty-five generations; our capacity for judging of Raphael's painting is not impaired by the fact that he has been dead for centuries. But in oratory three-quarters of the art perishes with the man. His voice, manner, and action die with him, or are imperfectly preserved here and there by some auditor happily gifted with a rare power of description. What remains can be repeated, declaimed, and read, but never again spoken as it was delivered by the orator himself. The result is that in a book like Prof. Sears's we feel that we are passing in review the remains of an art rather than the art itself. We have the substance of oratory so far as it can be preserved, but three-quarters of it is now pure literature, and not oratory at all. Any history of it must deal with it as preserved; there can be no history of the evanescent part. There may be continuity, no doubt, where there is no record, and the manner of an orator of to-day may be connected by some hidden process of evolution with that of Demosthenes; but we cannot trace the connection any more than we can that between the acting of Irving and that of the fashionable tragedians at the time of Euripides. Prof. Sears mentions Hortensius, as in duty bound, but we know no more about the art of Hortensius than we do about that of Peter the Hermit, certainly one of the most effective speakers who ever lived.

The fact that the materials of the art have been, during the historical period, pretty much the same in all ages, may be an explanation of its successful study having been thus far mainly analytical, rather than historical. Aristotle, Quintilian, and Cicero analyze the principles which underlie the art of persuasion, and the means of persuasion have not changed since the time of Demosthenes. Human passions and human motives and the human intellect are the same to-day as they were two thousand years ago, and hence the most striking fact about oratory is that we recognize in the great orations of antiquity all the marks of a perfected art.

Prof. Sears points out that oratory has its periods of decadence and revival, and thinks that there are signs of a revival with us at the present time. This raises an historical question which is undoubtedly of great interest—how far the condition of oratory is dependent on the condition of public life. Leaving out of view forensic and pulpit oratory, the nursery of the art is debate, and we should hardly expect to find deliberative oratory flourishing in a period of legislative decay. For the last fifty years our legislatures have steadily declined; the men sent to them have been lower and lower in character, and, what is more, legislative questions have tended to settlement, not by debate, but by private arrangement by those in control of political machines. Legislative debate and oratory have died out *pari passu* with the rise of the boss system. It would be a waste of time to debate what is not to be decided by deliberation. If we are to have a new period of oratory in public life, it must be through a higher class of men going to the legislatures and to Congress: a revival of debate among legislators unfit to debate would only make oratory ridiculous.

Pope Leo XIII. By Justin McCarthy. With a frontispiece. Frederick Warne & Co.

Mr. McCarthy's brief sketch and study of the reigning Pope makes a volume of 260 pages in a useful series entitled "The Ruling Men of To-day." In its paucity of dates and facts, and in the general manner of treatment, the book bears many marks of hasty and imperfect preparation. It is much the same kind of book as our campaign biographies, which have occasionally been written by men of literary ability. If Leo XIII. should read the book, it would certainly please him on the whole, not only relatively as compared with Zola's 'Rome,' but absolutely; yet he would make a great mistake if he imagined that the coming generations will take this for genuine

history and characterization much, if any, more than Zola's novel. It is essentially a eulogy, and is saved from being literally a panegyric only by the consistency of Mr. McCarthy's political principles as an Irish home-ruler and his sympathy with the protagonists of Italian unity. A good many of his readers will probably wonder how he could subdue his convictions to the material he was working in to such a considerable degree, and some of these will fancy that they know now better than ever why he has been comparatively ineffectual in politics, seeing that a literary interest in a great cause is one thing and a moral enthusiasm for it is quite another.

An introductory chapter deals with Pius IX. A single sentence disposes of the hopes which he encouraged in 1848 and their melancholy disappointment. The dogma of infallibility, to which Pius was devoted heart and soul, is minimized as much as possible, but nothing is said to make clear how a Pope who is not infallible in the usual operations of his mind becomes so when speaking *ex cathedra*. Except for the passionate interest of Pius in the matter, we should probably never have had an infallible Pope; nor, again, if he had not long outreigned the average Pope (only eleven of all the Popes having reigned more than seventeen years).

The early life of Leo is passed over rapidly, and no explanation is given of the secret of his succession to the papal throne. In describing his personal appearance, Mr. McCarthy avails himself of varied help, most lavishly of Marion Crawford's, but he also gives his own impressions. "His face is as bloodless as that of a marble statue." No one, he tells us, has impressed him more by his appearance, not even Newman or Charles Sumner or (considerate climax!) "the late Prince Consort." But hardly does the frontispiece likeness bear out this praise, and especially is the note of saintliness on which Mr. McCarthy insists entirely wanting. It is to be hoped that the likeness is a bad one, for it is intensely disagreeable, being compact of all that is shrewdest, craftiest, foxiest in the typical ecclesiastical physiognomy.

Inheriting the *Kulturkampf* from his predecessor, Leo was involved in it from the beginning of his reign, and Mr. McCarthy discusses his attitude towards it and his dealings with it more fully than anything else; and naturally, for it was the brightest jewel in his crown to contend in a battle of diplomacy with Bismarck and win the victory. It may be granted that the *Kulturkampf* was Bismarck's great mistake, but that he was so inordinately and gratuitously silly in the business as he is here represented is too hard for belief. "Perhaps it may be owned," we read, "that for the public opinion of his generation, and of many generations afterwards, Pascal created the Jesuit." But Bismarck certainly never went to Pascal for his ideas of the contemporary Jesuit in Germany. Mr. McCarthy's account of the long and desperate struggle is interesting without being final or sufficient. Not alone the eulogists of Bismarck, but the sedate historians, will qualify to some extent this representation of Leo XIII. as the glorious defender of religious liberty.

Chapter VI., "The Empire of the Pope," adds little or nothing to the value of Mr. McCarthy's sketch. It is highly rhetorical, and it is calculated to excite rather than to allay those apprehensions of undue papal influence in political affairs which are not the exclusive property of the ignorant and the demagogues. We read: "Except as a matter of news in the daily papers, the people of the United States do not care three straws about what England and France and Germany and Russia are doing. [This is pure nonsense.] But the Papacy is an influence everywhere, and it has to look after everything." Mr. McCarthy's sympathy with republican France makes it much easier for him to defend the course of Leo in deserting the Catholic monarchists of France and sustaining the republic. He was, we are told, "always inclined to make the best of things"; a judgment to which his dealing with Italian politics seems to involve an exception of first-rate importance.

Coming to the chapter on Ireland, we are much interested in learning how Mr. McCarthy will manage a very difficult business, for "the Land League was condemned morally and socially by the Vatican," and the Land League "was in reality a strike of the tenantry against an intolerable system." To his credit be it written that he stands fast by the Land League and condemns the Pope, but he is saved from the extremest awkwardness of his dilemma by the happy circumstance that the Pope's condemnation was not delivered *ex cathedra*, and was therefore not infallible. "The sincerest affection inspired, beyond question, the condemnation, such as it was, of the Land League. But the intervention was a mistake all the same, for it was founded on imperfect knowledge and a misappreciation of the whole conditions of the political and social struggle in Ireland."

Mr. McCarthy is hardly less frank in dealing with the Pope's attitude towards the Italian Government, yet he has no word to show how much more was implicated in the taking of Rome for the Italian capital than any merely sentimental regard for the Eternal City. So political is the temper of Leo XIII. that he might have proved an excellent temporal sovereign, but in that case he would have been a striking exception to the rule—the misrule—of Papal government before his day. It is with regard to Leo's assertion of his temporal sovereignty that Mr. McCarthy's book is from first to last a neglected opportunity. The future historian will probably find in this assertion the key of his position. Evidently Leo has been as passionately devoted to his temporal sovereignty as Pius was to his infallibility. His attractions here, his repulsions there, find in it their most adequate explanation. Meantime to Italy he has shown a less friendly disposition than has any other Power. His attitude has been a source of constant irritation, alienating some from the Government, many from the Church. Mr. McCarthy has written many just things in his praise, but, when his account is finally made up, it may appear that all the good he has done, and it is much, is little in comparison with the good he might have done if he had made the best of the Italian situation by declaring, "My kingdom is not political, but spiritual."

Through the Subarctic Forest: A record of a Canoe Journey from Fort Wrangel to the Pelly Lakes and down the Yukon River to the Behring Sea. By Warburton Pike. Edward Arnold. 1896. 8vo, pp. x, 295, 17 plates and 2 maps.

THE map of the whole region traversed by Mr. Pike is on too small a scale to be quite satisfactory, and the lettering leaves us at a loss as to the real relations of the Stikine, Dease, and Liard Rivers; but if we resolve our doubts by consulting even such maps as that of British Columbia published at Victoria by the Commissioners of Lands and Works in 1895, we have no further trouble in tracing the rubricated line of our author's journey. His other map, on a scale of about 15 miles to the inch, is very clear in the region of the Pelly Lakes and eastward, where Mr. Pike's original observations enable him to make some important geographical rectifications. The main discovery thus indicated, and fully treated in the text, is that the river draining the Pelly Lakes, and marked as the Pelly on previous maps, is not the main stream, but an inconsiderable tributary of a much longer river coming from the northeast.

Mr. Pike is already known, like Caspar Whitney, as a wanderer in the Barren Grounds and a slayer of musk-oxen. Some men seem goaded on to such dangerous exploits by a spirit of unrest. They love adventure for its own sake, and almost always make readable books about their exploits; and most of us prefer to have adventures brought to us in this form, instead of going in search of them for ourselves. Mr. Pike is no exception to the average of excellence in such purveying, and has made another notable contribution to the literature of travel, though he modestly characterizes it as "a rough description of what happened in a long journey through a good game country." Some of it was over the absolutely new ground, upon which the author dwells most, in the Pelly and Liard regions, where the discoveries just mentioned were made; with this exception the route is identical, in British Columbia and the Yukon District of the N. W. T. as far down the river as Fort Selkirk, with that explored in 1887 by Dr. George M. Dawson, now Director of the Geological and Natural History Survey of Canada, whose important report was published in 1888. This is accompanied by three large route-maps, in colors, by which Pike's journey can be traced mile by mile with the greatest ease, and is a veritable mine of scientific information regarding the region of which the present volume gives us a straightforward readable account, from a traveller's point of view.

In July, 1892, Mr. Pike started from Victoria to Wrangel, where his canoe route began. He went up the Stikine, and by its tributary the Tanzilla carried over to the Dease; down this to the Liard; up the Frances, and so on by another carry to the Pelly, which he descended, and continued down the Yukon nearly to the mouth of the latter. Before reaching the sea, however, he portaged over to the Kuskokvim and went down this to salt water, finishing with a perilous piece of coasting in his canoe till he found a ship to take him to Ounalaska. He was gone more than a year; his wintering in the wilderness involved great hardship, and his must indeed have been the "lucky boat" he says she was, to have done this immense voyaging without serious accident in the cañons and rapids he repeatedly encountered and was obliged to manage for himself. He must have been a pretty good voyageur to start with, and a first rate one at the finish. He writes mainly as the sportsman abroad, and has much to the point regarding large game, especially moose, which was found to be abundant, and seems to be rather increasing than diminishing in numbers. But what he has to say of the genus homo, both red and white, native and imported, is even more to our mind, and strikes us as very discerning. We have marked a passage as a sample of easy writing which does *not* make hard reading:

"At night we were comfortable enough, as we kept a big fire going. It was at first the

coldest man's business to put on wood, but this led to trouble, and I finally had to establish a regular watch. One of the common tricks of a winter camp is the habit men have of pretending to be sleeping, warm and snug, in the hopes of freezing some other poor devil out of his blankets to make up the fire. You can get up shaking with cold, and throw on big sticks from the wood pile, chop kindling and make as much noise as you like, yet not a soul will be sufficiently awake to lend you a hand. But as soon as the fire burns up brightly and the kettle begins to boil, the least rattle of a spoon against a tin cup will rouse the whole camp as readily as a gunshot."

The book is not quite free from infelicities, as witness Couer d'Alene for Cœur d'Alène, on p. 3; and, p.153, *Scopolax Wilsonii*, intended for *Scolopax wilsoni*, though *Gallinago delicata* is the right technical name of the bird. We also hold that Bering is better spelling than Behring for the name of the sea as well as of the person concerned. The volume is handsomely printed on smooth paper in large clear type, and has a number of good full-page illustrations, besides the two folding-maps, both done in colors.

Adeline, Countess Schimmelmann. Edited by W. Smith Foggitt. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE ordinarily sensible person generally feels angry when he has perused a column of his newspaper, only to encounter, at the end, the flagrantly improbable announcement of a quack doctor's universal specific, winding up with "Adv." One does not have to read to the bitter end of Countess Adeline Schimmelmann's lucubrations, however, before his mental and moral stomach, so to speak, is thoroughly upset. A fairly strong taste of the quality is afforded by Mr. Foggitt's preface. In the Countess's first chapter, entitled "Childhood, and at Court," she collects all the trivial incidents of her childhood, and converts them into self-advertisements of the crudest description. When she clung to a chair, in her infantile efforts to walk, she mentions: "Thus early did I begin to evince a strong character." Of her education she says: "Nature did much more for me than all my masters," adding that she habitually did her sums "seated at the top of an old fir-tree in the park"—which may serve to explain her present toplofty ideas of herself and of her "mission," as well as her literary style. It must have been about this time that she arrogated to herself the credit for the "conversion" of a murderer. Though she never saw the man or held any communication with him, he confessed his guilt before execution, and professed religion. "My heart was filled with joy when I heard the news," she says, "and I knew that it was in answer to my prayers." Strange to say, she did not venture to mention the fact for fourteen years. It is pretty nearly the only thing she has forgotten to mention—with the trifling exception of the reason why she left the court of Berlin; why she could afford, as she alleges that she did, to contribute £900 to a society which was formed to further her "work" and collect funds for her; why, after she had, nominally, given "all she possessed" to her "work," she still had jewels, court dresses, which her brother stole, and an estate which he damaged to the extent of 21,000 crowns, in addition to the wherewithal to build and run a yacht.

The "work" which she so industriously parades is preaching to the fishermen of the Baltic, and her humility is so great that, when her brother had her incarcerated for five weeks in an insane asylum, asserting that she had been mad for nine years (or more) as the result of the morphine habit, her chief concern is, that the universe is going to swift and certain perdition because she is not at large and engaged in saving its individual and collective soul. Her descriptions of her sovereign influence over the Berlin Anarchists, before whom even the entire police force shook with fear, are equally modest. She incorporates in her book an article by Pastor Otto Funcke, called "A Home Abroad," wherein the good pastor waxes enthusiastic on the rather slender foundation of two exceedingly brief conversations with her, at an interval of several years, and a visit of a few hours to her house on the island of Rügen. The latter dates from 1890, and one wonders whether Pastor Funcke would reauthorize the account under current date after reading the portion of the book which she contributes.

She makes a loud appeal for money, but decidedly overshoots the mark when she ventures on an explicit statement of her programme for her "mission" "(1) to the fishermen of the Baltic, (2) to sailors of all nations in European ports, and (3) to the distressed and troubled elements of society everywhere." This is both too vague and too definite to act upon the sympathies of rational beings, who believe that in no department of human experience is there more need of the rare jewel, common sense, than in that of religion or pseudo-religion. The clever vagueness which leaves the limits of contributions needed for ever undefinable, suggests a sieve like capacity for absorption, and an equally sieve-like expenditure on agreeable yachting trips whose tangible results cannot be given, if any contributor is so unwise as to demand an accounting. On the other hand, the programme is too definite, because, to any thinking mind, it is altogether too ambitious, and quite beyond the powers of any one person; and there is not a hint that the Countess intends to divide the contributions with anybody else, or that she is unequal to her task. On the contrary, she says: "The success of woman's work on the Continent depends largely on the success of the mission which God has intrusted to me." She coolly ignores the existing missions for sailors in every port.

Our conclusions are based wholly on the evidence which she herself furnishes, and in absolute ignorance of her personality, or even of her name outside of the present book. Precisely what is her object in thus attempting to "get even with" her brother and others in Denmark by publishing her book in America, it is difficult to see—unless, perchance, she intends to run across the ocean in her yacht and hold out her contribution sieve to our public with her own fair hands (she assures us that she is handsome, though the portraits do not entirely bear out the assumption), as soon as the leaven of this volume has had due time to work.

Daddy Jake, the Runaway, and Short Stories Told after Dark. By "Uncle Remus" (Joel Chandler Harris). New ed. The Century Co. 1896.

The Story of Aaron (so-named), the Son of Ben Ali. Told by his Friends and Acquaintances. By Joel Chandler Harris. Illustrated by Oliver Herford. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

A PURE coincidence, surely, brings out together a new edition of 'Daddy Jake' and a first edition (may there be many) of 'The Story of Aaron.' They are both snatches of that "Life among the Lowly" which Mrs. Stowe was not the first to depict under the veil of romance, and Mr. Harris will not be the last. In other words, they take their place on the shelf beside 'Archy Moore' and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' but with the capital moral and historic distinction that they are the product of a Southern pen.

The art of 'Daddy Jake' was admirable, but the mechanism was all terrestrial and human. It opened directly and in the most matter-of-fact way with "an uproar on the Gaston plantation, in Putnam County, in the State of Georgia," "one fine day in September, in the year 1863." This plantation "lay along the Oconee River" "not far from Roach's Ferry." Uncle Jake, the carriage-driver, strikes and thinks he has killed the overseer, who presumes to give him orders and to assault him, and, fearful of the consequences, takes to the woods. Dr. Gaston's young children, Lucien and Lillian, go in quest of him in a bateau let drift down the Oconee. In 'The Story of Aaron' we are still "on a large plantation in middle Georgia," but Lucien and Lillian are transformed into our classic friends Buster John and Sweetest Susan, with their back-door relations with "Mr. Thimblefinger's queer country," while Daddy Jake gives place to Aaron, the offspring of an Arab slave-hunter who was properly punished by being confounded with the Africans he was marketing, and an Arab girl who shared the same fate and was transported with him to this country. Aaron shows his pedigree in his carriage and in his spirit, was early regarded and treated as a "dangerous nigger," and later passed for a conjurer among his fellow-slaves In fact, Brer Rabbit had directed Buster John and Sweetest Susan to him to learn the language of animals, and, this acquired, the story of Aaron is most cleverly pieced out in turn by the subject of it himself, by the gray pony, the track dog, the white pig, the black stallion, and by Free Polly.

We do not mean to spoil the pleasure of younger or older readers by revealing the plot. Aaron, too, becomes a runaway, and seeks refuge in the swamp, the lair of the white pig. The aspects of slavery which Mr. Harris incidentally displays are the slave coffle, the slave auction, the oppression of small proprietors by large slave-owners, and lynch law in operation upon an abolitionist, along with the passion of the Southern temperament and its instinctive resort to the shot gun whether for good or for evil purposes. In the end, the rescue of the abolitionist, before the war, redounds to the security of the Abercrombie plantation when Sherman passes that way on his march to the sea, and the great General figures in the narrative like any other personage, but in the unwonted light (in Southern eyes) of a benefactor. The story is neither as dramatic nor as pathetic as "Daddy Jake," but the skill of it is consummate, and its fidelity to the life not inferior, while its supernatural element will perhaps render it more attractive to that imaginative age which can make a happy family of "Ole Brer Tarrypin," Tecumseh Sherman, and "Miss Meadows and de gals."

Die Maya-Sprachen der Pokom-Gruppe. Zweiter Teil. Die Sprache der K'e'kchí Indianer. Nebst einem Anhang: Die Uspanteca. Von Dr. Med. Otto Stoll, Zurich. Leipzig: K. F. Köhler. 1896. 8vo, pp. viii, 221.

AMONG the Central American regions Yuca-

tan and Guatemala were the first to attract preeminently the attention of the Spanish conquerors on account of their dense population and great fertility. The inhabitants were found to belong to one race or family, and when the whites began to learn their languages, these proved to belong to one common stock; the Maya and the K'iché being the most widespread among them all. At an early period grammars, dictionaries, and devotional books were composed in them, but the real number of the Maya dialects was not known until recently, when exploring linguists fixed it at sixteen. The Huaxtec, representing the most archaic forms, is spoken in the Mexican States of Vera Cruz and Hidalgo, the Tsendal in Chiapas; but the majority of the smaller dialects are heard in Guatemala.

Maya proper has been the object of a more extensive literary culture than all the other dialects taken together, and this had certainly its cause in the large literary productiveness of the people along the coast long before the Spanish armies put an end to paganism. The Maya dialects are remarkable for the brevity and conciseness of their diction, the tendency to monosyllabism, and the suave, well-sounding pronunciation. The verbal paradigms are short, the tenses and moods well defined; the multiplicity of the personal pronouns forms a curious contrast to the pregnant and laconic brevity of all other grammatic forms, while the lexicon is as rich in vocables as that of any other American tongue. No modern scientist has shed more light upon the structure of the Maya dialects than Edward Seler, whose writings on Nahuatl ethnography and language are also as yet unsurpassed. The epigraphic relics of the Maya nations or tribes are likely to take us back, when correctly understood, to a period of American history further remote than that of any other aboriginal people.

But to advance our knowledge the study of the dialects must go hand in hand with that of the stone inscriptions and the codices, and in furtherance of this purpose Prof. Dr. Otto Stoll of Zurich, who explored Guatemala from 1878 to 1883, has published grammars and vocabularies of Íxil, Pokonchí, and Pokomam. To these he has added in the present year a bulky volume on the K'e'kchí dialect (grammar, dictionary, phraseology), spoken on the highland in the central parts of the republic. This book forms volume second of his series on the Pokom group, which consists of the following dialects: Pokonchí, Pokomám, K'e'kchí, and Uspantec. At present this dialect is spoken by about 85,000 Indians. Its most striking characteristic is an excessive abrasion or grinding down (*Verschleifung*) of grammar forms, and this gives it the appearance of being recently formed as compared with the more archaic languages of the Kiché group. Indeed, many K'e'kchí forms can be morphologically explained only by comparing them with the older and more explicit forms of Cakchiquel and Kiché, especially as regards the verbs derived by suffixion.

The grammar occupies 122 pages of the book, and is the result of a thorough comparative study of all the dialects accessible to the author, spoken in Guatemala or in the States adjoining. The syntactic examples are spread over five pages only, the dictionary extends from p. 128 to p 191, the remainder of the volume being taken up by the Uspantec dialect, which at present is limited to one solitary town. In former writings Stoll had placed it with the K'iché group, but, after a clearer insight into its peculiarities, he now classifies it with the Pokom dialects. These peculiarities refer to the verbal inflection; but if we base our judgment upon the lexicon only, Uspantec would stand just as near to the K'iché as to the Pokom dialects, for in the course of centuries Uspantec became separated from its original congeners further west, and borrowed many terms from the K'iché Indians who had meantime become immediate neighbors.

The Great Rift Valley; Being the Narrative of a Journey to Mount Kenya and Lake Baringo. By J. W. Gregory. With maps and illustrations. London: J. Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896. 8vo, pp. xxi, 422.

THE expedition of which this attractive volume is the description was remarkable for several reasons. Purely scientific in its objects, its leader a British Museum official without previous African experience, unprecedentedly small and imperfectly equipped, it accomplished more in the same length of time than any other recorded African expedition. The territory of the most hostile savages of East Africa was traversed without bloodshed, and the severest hardships from cold, hunger, thirst, and rapid marching were endured with the loss of but a single porter. Though upon the leader, being without a white companion, fell all the burden of the care of the caravan, he made numerous valuable scientific observations, as well as, to quote Sir William Flower, "a very important collection of rocks, fossils, and zoölogical and botanical specimens." This probably unequalled record was due to Dr. Gregory's courage and endurance, but especially to his tactful and sympathetic treatment of his men, who in consequence served him faithfully.

He left the coast in March, 1893, and followed the line of the projected Uganda railway as far as the Rift Valley, where he turned northward to Lake Baringo. On his return march he made a détour to examine the glaciers of Mount Kenya, and reached Mombasa in August, having travelled 1,650 miles in a little less than five months. Notwithstanding the fact that he was nearly all the time on ground familiar to the student of African exploration, with the exception of the few days spent in unsuccessful attempts to reach the summit of Kenya, his personal narrative is unusually fresh and interesting. There are numerous bright and often humorous sketches of life in camp and on the march, and graphic descriptions of noteworthy scenes and incidents. The most important contribution to our knowledge of the region traversed is to be found in the observations upon the Rift Valley. The character of this extraordinary fissure in the earth's surface, which begins at the Lebanons and ends at Lake Nyassa, can best be realized by Dr. Gregory's description of it near the equator. He was marching over a plain covered with thin scrub when, "suddenly, without the slightest warning, I found myself on the edge of a precipice 1,900 feet in height. For some hundreds of feet the cliff was absolutely vertical." At the base of the precipice was a long, narrow lake of an exquisite blue color, "broken by the green of dense growths of alga, or by pink where vast flocks of flamingoes floated on the surface." A series of terraces, like a vast amphitheatre, rising to the summit of a mountain, formed its opposite shore, while twenty miles distant rose the precipitous western valley wall.

The geological history of the earth movement which formed this valley, so far as examination revealed it, is told in the second half of the volume. Here are also general chapters on the physical geography, fauna and flora, and native races, frequently enlivened by illustrative anecdotes of adventure. At the time of Dr. Gregory's expedition the big game was almost destroyed by the cattle disease, but in some places lions and elephants were "still so numerous as to be a serious plague to the inhabitants." Several remarkable instances of protective mimicry are described, one of which, a group of insects so arranged as to resemble a spike of flowers, is beautifully represented in the frontispiece. There is also an admirable characterization of the Zanzibari porter, much berated by most travellers, but for whose endurance and faithfulness Dr. Gregory has no scant praise. He tells, for instance, of one of his men who was willing to die in the snow of Kenya rather than to leave his load "without my master's order." At another time, after they had been without water for forty hours, his headman refused to take his share of a scanty supply, and gave it to the porter who seemed most overcome by thirst. "Later on, I asked him how he had denied himself. He said: 'It was nothing! I've seen Bula Matari (Stanley) do the same thing lots of times, and if he could do it, Inshallah! so can I.'" The closing chapter treats of the future prospects of this part of the British Empire, which our author regards as apparently without great mineral or agricultural wealth, and as unsuited to white colonization, yet certain, under patient and wise rulers, to become the abode of a peaceful and industrious native population. A list of plants collected is supplied in an appendix, and there are several useful indexes, some interesting illustrations, and two excellent maps.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barnes, Mary S. Studies in Historical Method. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90c.
Biddle, A. J. D. The Madeira Islands. Philadelphia: Drexel-Biddle & Bradley.
Cannan, Edwin. Lectures by Adam Smith on Justice, Police, Revenue, and Arms. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Captain Cook's Voyages Round the World. T. Nelson & Sons. $2.
Crawford, F. M. Taquisara. 2 vols. Macmillan. $2.
Drinkwater, Jennie M. Dolly French's Household. Philadelphia: A. J. Rowland. $1 25.
Duruy, Victor. A History of France. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Everett-Green, Evelyn. Olive Roscoe. T. Nelson & Sons. $1 75.
Farnell, Ida. The Lives of the Troubadours. London: David Nutt.
Fiske, J. The American Revolution. Illustrated [Holiday Edition.] 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Guerber, H. A. Märchen und Erzählungen für Anfänger. Zweiter Teil. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 65c.
Hale, W. T. Showers and Sunshine. Memphis, Tenn.: Gayoso Bookstore.
Hatfield, Prof. J. T. Materials for German Composition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 19c.
Jewett, Sarah O. The Country of the Pointed Firs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Kopta, F. F. Bohemian Legends, and Other Poems. 2d ed. W. R. Jenkins.
Le Baron, Grace. The Rosebud Club. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75c.
Morrison, Sarah E. Chilhowee Boys at College. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Osborne, Francis. Advice to a Son. New ed. London: David Nutt.
Phelps, Elizabeth S. Chapters from a Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sloane, Prof. W. M. Life of Napoleon Bonaparte. Vol. I. Century Co. $3.
Smith, E. B. My Village. Scribners. $2.
Some More Nonsense. London: Gardner, Dalton & Co.
The American Digest. 1896. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Theuriet, André. Rustic Life in France. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.50.
Thompson, E. E. Studies in the Art Anatomy of Animals. Macmillan. $10.
Thomson, Prof. Arthur. A Handbook of Anatomy for Art Students. Macmillan. $5.
Thoreau, H. D. Cape Cod. [Holiday Edition.] 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Wakeman, H. O. An Introduction to the History of the Church of England. Macmillan. $2
Watson, E. H. L. The Unconscious Humorist, and Other Essays. London: Elkin Mathews; New York: G. H. Richmond & Co.
Wells, H. G. The Wheels of Chance: A Bicycling Idyll. Macmillan. $1.50.
Wiggin, Kate D. Marm Lisa. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 12, 1896.

The Week.

FOR the first time in twelve years Mr. Cleveland's name has cut no figure in the election returns, yet it may be doubted if he ever won a more substantial triumph than in the campaign just ended. His foresight, his courage, his methods have been splendidly vindicated. No man got himself earlier right on the conquering issues of November 3, no one sooner saw that the currency question was one of life or death to the Democratic party, one that could be settled satisfactorily only in a non-partisan spirit and as a matter of national honor. In his letter to the Chicago sound-money conference of April, 1895, he clearly predicted the mad rush into repudiation which the silver agitation was certain to lead to, and declared even then that "the line of battle is drawn between the forces of safe currency and those of silver monometallism." Before and after that date he was called upon to use every power in his office, in the face of a recreant party, a hostile Congress, and the yelping *Tribunes* and Lodges of the time, to maintain the national credit; and he has now lived to see his resolute and almost solitary stand referred to with cheers in the meetings of his political opponents, and endorsed by an overwhelming vote of the people.

In a very lavishness of good fortune, the distinction was also given President Cleveland of having made and triumphed on the other great issue of the campaign —the supremacy of the law. No one supposes that he foresaw in 1894 the way in which the red, fool fury of those days would raise its head in this Presidential year, but he met it then and stamped upon it as if he had foreseen it. His action at that time in taking anarchy by the throat won half the battle in Illinois this year, and his name was daily used by Republican orators in that State to arouse enthusiasm against the civic enemy whom he had faced and disarmed in 1894, and whom the whole nation had to confront in 1896. Such things constitute the truly great achievements and rewards of political life. Party support may come or go; conventions may cheer or hiss; popular enthusiasm may wax or wane. But to have taken a position in advance on the two great issues of a critical campaign, and then to have seen the greatest of democracies swing round to it as by the force of gravitation, while the wrath of political adversaries was turned into praise—this is the thing that makes all politicians look so petty. Nor does it require a towering genius to accomplish such results. As we see, all that is needed is honest thought and the courage of it, and an unshaken constancy. These seem very ordinary qualities, but we wish we could discover a Republican leader in whom they give promise of doing as much, either for individual fame or for the country's good, as they have wrought in the case of Mr. Cleveland.

Mr. Hanna announces that he will accept no office from the McKinley Administration, and up to the time of going to press he is the only eminent Republican who has taken this remarkable position. In many parts of the country there are discernible signs of cabinet and other booms in a state of rapid development, and able editors are already making up lists of those who are "mentioned" for most of the best places, including the leading foreign missions. It is thought that there will be no lack of material with which to fill all places, in spite of the discouraging example set by Mr. Hanna. Candidates for Secretary of State are already numerous, and Bill Chandler has made a bid for the Treasury portfolio by announcing his exclusive discovery that the election is merely preliminary to a verdict of the people in favor of bimetallism. He admits that there was nothing of the kind in the election, since bimetallism did not have any hearing in the canvass. No educational campaign, no matter what its severity, could be expected to affect Chandler's intelligence.

In conversation with a reporter, Mr. Hanna is made to say that "the farmers and laborers in the Western cities" were won over "by explaining to them that we stood on the St. Louis platform, which advocates bimetallism under an international agreement, and that we were not gold monometallists." Now the St. Louis platform was drawn before the Bryan platform, and it is a safe assumption that if it had been drawn after the Bryan platform, this passage would either have been omitted or materially altered. Nothing has done more to bring us to our present pass than the persistent maintenance of the belief that there is going to be an international conference at which European nations will agree with us to establish and maintain a double standard. There is not the slightest reason to expect any such thing. Fancy such an agreement with Spain, Italy, Turkey, Greece, Russia, and Austria! Even if it were entered into, it would be useless unless it included every country in the world with which these nations had commercial relations or communication. But there is not the smallest likelihood that any country would enter into it which was not in financial difficulties. Moreover, if such an agreement were entered into, there is no probability that it would be observed when there would be large profit in breaking it. The last and final objection is, that telling people any commodity can be kept above its market value by treaty is *Bryanism pure and simple*, and naturally leads farmers and laborers to ask why it cannot be kept above par also by statute. Finally, it would be the beginning of unnumbered woes for mankind if civilized governments undertook to substitute artificial treaty money for gold and silver at their bullion value. We could not be sure that any popular government would stick to such an absurdity. The people would speedily break away from it, and where should we be then? Consequently, if this "international agreement" talk be kept up, and the public is kept in expectation of seeing "England brought to her knees," we shall have no sound financial legislation this winter. We shall have only more compromises and makeshifts. The only way out of this muddle, and the only way to prevent a reappearance of Bryanism four years hence, is to stop such talk, to say we are a monometallic nation with a gold standard, and do not care who knows it, and that we use silver only for small change.

The verdict of the elections upon Hill and Gorman, undoubtedly two of the most pestiferous influences in modern politics, is serious enough to satisfy the desires of the most extreme theoretical reformer. Hill disappears in New York State beneath an adverse majority of 273,000, and Gorman is confronted in Maryland with one of over 30,000. In both States the Democratic party has not been defeated merely, but utterly routed. This outcome is the result of the management of the two most entirely "practical" politicians in the party. They were the shrewdest of their kind, and yet the fruit of their years of shrewd management is complete disaster. Hill saw it coming, and sought to escape some of its consequences by hiding himself, but Gorman faced it till the last and has gone down alone before it. He was the most conspicuous Democratic leader who had the bad courage to ally himself with Bryan, and he must fall with him. It is a pity that his term does not, like Hill's, end with the present legislative year. He has two years more of his term to serve, but it is to be hoped that the tide against him in Maryland is strong enough to last until his successor shall be chosen.

So far as the result in New York State is concerned, we shall probably see within a very short time that it is a dangerously complete personal triumph for Mr. Platt, at least in the legislative branch of the government. There is a very large Republican majority in the Legislature,

and it is more than suspected that it is in favor of sending Mr. Platt to the United States Senate in place of Mr. Hill. Tammany has succeeded in electing twenty-three out of the thirty-five Assemblymen from this city, which furnishes additional warning as to the strength which that organization still retains. Nearly all the Republicans elected here and elsewhere are Platt men, and the city will be obliged again this winter to fight for its rights at Albany. With Platt as Senator, and with a Governor and Legislature who will do Platt's bidding, shall we be much better off than under Hill and his machine? This is a question which time alone can decide, for we must give Mr. Black a chance to show that he is capable of being a better Governor than his signing of Jake Worth's application for County Clerk of Brooklyn indicated him to be. It seems incredible that a man who is elected to office by such an overwhelming popular vote as he has received, can be content to act in the office as the mere dummy of a boss.

A study of the Connecticut election figures shows that the Democrats in the agricultural communities in that State were less inclined to do something for silver, or were less subservient to party organization and "regularity," than were the Democrats in the cities and the manufacturing towns. In New Haven County, which contains the largest city in the State, three smaller cities, and several large towns, in each of which the factory employees predominate, the vote for Cleveland in 1892 was 55 per cent. of the total vote, leaving out of the reckoning the Populist and Prohibition vote, which was comparatively insignificant. Last week Bryan polled 39 per cent. of the vote in that county. In comparison, Litchfield County, made up, with few exceptions, of agricultural towns, gave 49 per cent. of its vote to Cleveland and only 27 per cent. to Bryan. The same praiseworthy distinction for the Democratic farmer is found in a comparison of the vote in the agricultural towns in New Haven County with the vote in the cities and the manufacturing towns in that county. In the latter, where Cleveland received 56 per cent. of the total vote in 1892, Bryan received 41 per cent. But in the country towns the Democratic portion of the vote dropped in the four years from 47 to 20 per cent.

"Rock-ribbed" New Jersey furnishes as astonishing a case of political revolution as can be shown in any part of the country. It has been proverbially a State which would go Democratic in Presidential years under any or all conditions. Last year the Republicans elected a Governor by a majority of 26,000, which was itself unheard of and a political portent. But last week McKinley received a plurality of no less than 87,000. The same State was carried by Cleveland in 1892 by 15,000 votes. Such a complete overturn, involving a transfer of 50,000 votes from one party to another, in a State where the total vote does not rise above 350,000, can scarcely be paralleled in the returns from any other State. In other words, the man who wrote the Chicago platform simply wrote off almost one-third of the Democratic vote in New Jersey. This result was no doubt due to the fact that New Jersey is what might be called a city State. The population of its own large cities, and of those many thriving towns which get most of their inhabitants and their tone from New York city, controls the vote of the State. Hence its quick and emphatic response to the Bryanite attack on intelligence and honesty.

Indiana was the closest of all the States in the central West, and the victors in the recent struggle there are entitled to a national hearing. Particular attention should be given them when they come with so admirable a suggestion as was made by the Indianapolis *News*, the chief independent journal of the State, on Saturday last. The *News* insists that "the duty of the hour is to be alive to one thing, and that is, that this campaign has settled nothing except the opportunity to begin a settlement." That such a settlement may be made, "there must be organization as compact as bound together the forces that fought the campaign which has secured the opportunity therefor." What is needed, in the opinion of the *News*, is a movement which shall unite all the boards of trade in the country toward the formulation of a method of procedure. In such a movement it thinks that Indianapolis might well take the lead, since with Indianapolis and Indiana men originated the sound-money protest within the Democratic party, and Indianapolis gave its name to the convention, the platform, and the ticket which more distinctly embodied the great issue of the campaign than any other. The *News*, therefore, advises that the Indianapolis Board of Trade take the initiative in organizing for currency revision; that a special meeting for this purpose be called at a very early day; that the board send out a circular letter to the boards of trade of the country, emphasizing the importance of concerted action, and suggesting that on a certain day meetings shall be held by these boards, at which representatives shall be appointed to confer with the national organization and to prepare a plan for reform; and that the body so created be empowered to invite to its deliberations men who are eminent for knowledge of economic subjects. The *News* believes that "if a wise plan were formulated, as we may almost be sure would be the case, public opinion would compel Congress to legislate on the committee's lines." We trust that the business men of Indianapolis will follow this advice. They may rest assured of coöperation everywhere.

Altgeld has been looking around for reasons to account for his and Bryan's defeat. Here is one of them:

> "We had no sinews of war; we had all the power of corrupt wealth against us; we had to reform under the fire of the enemy, and the time was too short to make a proper campaign."

"No sinews of war." That is what we told you in the beginning. We said that you were arraying all the wealth and intelligence of the country against you, and that when you came to raise money for legitimate expenses, you would not get it at the usual places, but that the very men who usually contributed to your campaign fund would give money to defeat you. We said, too, that in any election where all, or nearly all, the well-to-do classes were on one side, that side would surely prevail, and that experience had sufficiently attested this fact. The election of General Harrison in 1840 was a case in point. The Democratic party was the majority party at that time, and of the two candidates Mr. Van Buren was certainly the wiser statesman, but the panic of 1837 had convinced the business community that the hard times were due to the financial measures of the Administration. This was a mistake, but they believed it pretty generally. So they joined forces for Harrison, not with such unanimity, however, as they joined for McKinley this year. The Bryan theory this year was that mud itself has an irresistible attraction for the American voter, and that if you dive deep enough in it you can afford to dispense with the votes and services of those who believe in soap and water. Nobody was more firmly convinced of this than Altgeld. Consequently his wail that the Bryanites had no money is truly comic.

Kansas now cuts the worst figure of any State in the Union. It has tried Populism once. Years ago it chose a Peffer to the Senate, a "Sockless Jerry" Simpson to the House, and a Lewelling to the Governorship, and gave the Populists control of one branch of the Legislature. As a consequence, it saw its population decrease, the outside capital which had been invested within its borders largely withdrawn, and its good name disgraced. Yet, in the face of all this, it has now elected a Populist State ticket; a Legislature, Populist in both branches, which is to choose a United States Senator; and a Populist Judge of the Supreme Court, whose elevation to the bench will make a majority of that tribunal Populists. Such a performance sets at defiance all the laws by which we have heretofore judged the American people.

The break in the solid South is one of the most striking and encouraging results of the election. For the first time in twenty years, the sixteen States in which

slavery formerly existed have not gone together for the Democratic candidate. Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, and probably Kentucky have chosen Republican electors. Maryland gives McKinley quite as large a plurality as does New Hampshire. And as respects the States below this border tier, the large Republican vote cast in Tennessee, North Carolina, and in the industrial and commercial centres still further south, shows that the old sectional issue has disappeared, and that the people in that part of the country have at last begun to divide according to their views on the questions of to-day, and not according to race lines growing out of slavery.

We need not wait longer to be assured that the South will not respond to Bryan's appeal for a continuance of the silver agitation; and without support from the South such an agitation must fall perfectly flat. While some prominent journals in the South stoutly opposed Bryan's election—notably the Louisville *Courier-Journal* in Kentucky, the Montgomery *Advertiser* in Alabama, the New Orleans *Picayune* in Louisiana, and the Galveston *News* in Texas—most of the Democratic newspapers in that section gave him a perfunctory support. It was evident enough all along that there was no heart in this support, and no sooner was the election over than the editors made plain their relief that their nominal candidate had been defeated. The Savannah *News*, for example, says that "the reasons for the Republican victory are apparent to every one: the people don't want silver monometallism; they condemn Altgeld and uphold Cleveland." The Macon *Telegraph* says that it "cannot pretend to be surprised at the result," because, "when the Democratic national convention deserted the traditions of the party and defied the conservative feeling of the country, we felt that the success of its candidates would be little short of a miracle." The Jacksonville (Fla.) *Citizen* says that it is "not surprised at the result," because it has "always thought that the support of the free-coinage policy by the Democratic party would prove ruinous politically," as it "could not suppose that the nation would, after sober second thought, endorse this policy." Of the talk about "doing the thing all over again," the Mobile *Register* says that "the repetition will scarcely be seriously attempted," as "what the people most want now is a rest; and we feel sure that when they get it, it will be at such a price that they will value it too greatly to permit themselves easily to be led off into agitation a second time."

The first trial of voting-machines in a Presidential election seems to have been in the main successful. Those which were used in Rochester, N. Y., undoubtedly worked more satisfactorily than those which were used in Worcester, Mass. There were delays in both cities, caused by partial breakdowns or stoppages in the mechanism, but these were not serious in either case. Had the election in either city been close, they might have led to decided trouble by causing the count to be disputed. There are complaints that the Worcester machine did not secure secrecy in the voting, the working of the mechanism being so discernible from the outside as to disclose the nature of the vote which was recorded. No such complaint is made against the Rochester machine, and none could be, for its mechanism is completely hidden. Considering the haste with which the machines were got ready in both cities, the experiments may be regarded as surprisingly successful, but what is demanded before they can be adopted for general use is not partial or probable success, but absolute guarantee against failure of all kinds. In other words, they must be perfected thoroughly before they can be adopted, and it is evident that they have not yet been brought to this condition.

The remarkable success of Monday's sale of New York city bonds is ascribed by the Comptroller partly to advertising and partly to the election of McKinley. Mr. Fitch, quite inadvertently, of course, overlooks the fact that when the attempt to sell the bonds in July last failed, he attributed that failure mainly to the reform administration of the city. He said that "the result of the first year's experiment was that New York cannot borrow money readily, and has to pay 3½ per cent., when before it could get all it wanted for 3 per cent., and instead of currency bonds, the city now has to issue gold bonds." Mr. Fitch was talking for the benefit of Tammany Hall, for he saw an opportunity to do that gang of plunderers a service by misrepresenting the facts of the situation. Out of his own mouth he now convicts himself of disingenuousness, for if it was the failure of reform government which prevented bids for the bonds in July, the same influence ought to have prevailed on Monday, the reform government being still in operation. He would not admit that doubt about the national election was the chief influence in July, though he was as well aware of that fact then as he is now. If he had been simply a Tammany politician when he slandered the city and did his best to injure its credit in the estimation of the world, nobody would have cause to censure him; he would be doing only what was expected of him. But he was the chief financial officer of the city, with loud and vehement and constant professions of sleepless zeal in its behalf, and his utterances were scandalous and indecent because of his official position.

The November *Fortnightly* has two important and well-documented articles on the relations of Great Britain and Turkey. One of them is a damaging exposure of the suddenness of Lord Rosebery's discovery that England could not act alone. Only a little over a year ago, when he was Prime Minister, he was proposing to act alone. On May 27, 1895, the Foreign Office sent a dispatch to the English Ambassador at Constantinople, telling him to insist before June on a categorical reply to the demand for reforms, and adding: "Your Excellency should endeavor also to arrive at some agreement with your two colleagues as to the manner in which pressure should be exercised in the event of the answer not being favorable, for in that case it will be necessary to employ pressure, either joint or *separate*." Even after Rosebery left office, he believed it possible for Great Britain to act alone. What other interpretation can be placed upon his remarks in the debate on the Address, when he said that, should the European concert unfortunately fail, and should Lord Salisbury proceed "even *alone* to deal with this question vigorously and efficiently," the entire nation would support such a policy? Salisbury distinctly threatened to act alone a year ago, but now both he and Rosebery say it would be madness. To either of them the words of Disraeli to Palmerston in 1864 might well be applied: "After a course of menaces unaccomplished and promises unfulfilled, the noble lord comes to Parliament and announces to the country that we have no allies, and declares that England can never act alone."

The other article is a careful discussion of the Cyprus Convention, in which it is made clear that the real *quid pro quo* was the engagement of England to defend Turkey by force of arms from Russian aggression. It was "in return" for this engagement that the Sultan promised to introduce "necessary reforms"; and the cession of Cyprus was made, not as a pledge that the reforms should be carried out, but "in order to enable England to make necessary provision for executing her engagement." Lord Salisbury's dispatches are quoted at large to show that he obtained and regarded Cyprus as a military base against Russia, not at all as a guarantee of Turkish reform. This, of course, with the changed circumstances, only makes the whole thing more grotesque. Lord Salisbury now says that England and Russia are and are likely to remain the best of friends, and that the Sultan's promise of reform is worthless, but that nevertheless not an inch of Cyprus shall be given up. In other words, the club which was got for the express purpose of thwacking two sinful heads, is retained though neither head is to be thwacked at all.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE VERDICT.

Our electoral system serves now again, as more than once in the past, to obscure the nature of the national verdict in a Presidential election. An analysis of the division in the electoral college is therefore necessary, in order that people may comprehend the true meaning of the majority given the representative of sound money and national honor in that body.

There are now 447 electoral votes. A majority is 224. McKinley has 260 without counting Kentucky, South Dakota, or Wyoming, all of which, however, appear to have gone for him. But this figure, whatever the final total may be, by no means represents the relative proportion of the population, wealth, and intelligence of the country that has been cast on his side. The simplest and clearest way of bringing this out is to take a map of the United States and fix in one's mind the fact that all the region between the North Atlantic coast on the east, the Potomac and Ohio Rivers on the south, and the Missouri River on the west has gone solidly and overwhelmingly for the right side. This region includes the six New England States; the four old "Middle States" of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware; Maryland; and the great Western States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa—eighteen in all of the forty-five in the Union. These States have 238 electoral votes, or fourteen more than a majority; and every one of these votes will be cast for McKinley. He has, of course, many others; six from West Virginia, thirteen probably from Kentucky, three from North Dakota, four probably from South Dakota, four from Oregon, and nine from California; but we now consider only the solid block of eighteen States east of the Missouri River and north of the Ohio and Potomac.

(1.) As to population. The United States in 1890 had 62,622,250 inhabitants. Of this total, 35,297,990 lived in the solid McKinley block of eighteen States. In other words, more than 56 per cent. of the inhabitants of the nation are found in this region, which voted as one man for sound money. Other McKinley States outside this block will raise the proportion nearer 66 than 56 per cent., but it is over 56 per cent. here.

(2.) As to wealth. The true valuation of real and personal property for the whole country, according to the last census, was $65,037,091,197. Of this total, $41,717,479,491 was found in the McKinley block of States. In other words, these eighteen States contained more than 64 per cent. of the wealth of the nation. States for McKinley outside this belt would carry the ratio nearer to 74 than 64 per cent., but it is more than 64 per cent. here.

(3.) As to intelligence. The number of persons ten years of age and over in the United States six years ago who could not read or write, was a little more than 13 per cent. The average in the McKinley block of States was only about 6 per cent. An exceptionally large foreign element carried the proportion in Rhode Island up to nearly 10 per cent., and the negro population raised it in Delaware and Maryland to about 15 per cent.; but nowhere else in the East did it reach 7 per cent., while in the West it ranged from 6.7 per cent. in Wisconsin down to 3.6 per cent. in Iowa. For the whites alone the showing was even better—only about 7 per cent. in either Delaware or Maryland, and nowhere higher except in Rhode Island. On the other hand, the number of whites above the age of ten years who could not read or write in 1890 was about 15 per cent. in Texas, 16 in Mississippi, 18 in Virginia and Louisiana, 20 in Florida, 22 in South Carolina, 23 in Georgia, 25 in Alabama and Arkansas, 27 in Tennessee, and 31 in North Carolina.

(4.) As to the cities. Population, wealth, and intellectual forces have for many years drifted into the cities of the country. The last census showed that there were twenty-seven cities in the United States with a population exceeding 100,000—not counting Washington, where the people do not vote. All but seven of these cities are in the McKinley block of States. Every one of these twenty cities went for sound money. So, also, it may be noted, did Louisville, Kansas City, St. Louis, and San Francisco of the seven outside this belt, leaving on the other side only Denver, Omaha, and New Orleans among all the large cities of the country. In many the majority was perfectly overwhelming—about 60,000, for example, in Chicago.

(5.) As to electoral votes. In the McKinley block the great majority are large States, where the two electoral votes allowed for the Senators of a State cut but a small figure—two out of 36 in New York, 32 in Pennsylvania, 24 in Illinois, 23 in Ohio, 15 each in Massachusetts and Indiana, 14 in Michigan, 13 in Iowa, and so on; only Delaware has as few as three, and New Hampshire and Vermont are the only ones with but four apiece. On the other hand, Nevada gives Bryan three electoral votes for only 45,761 people, Wyoming three for 60,705, Idaho three for 84,385, and Utah three for 207,905—twelve for a population of less than 400,000 souls. In the larger part of the South, moreover, the electoral votes represent but a small proportion of the male population. The bulk of the blacks are practically disfranchised under legal forms by the new constitutions of Mississippi and South Carolina; in many other States they are either not allowed to vote, or are counted out after their ballots have been cast.

To recapitulate, we have in what we have called the McKinley block of States (leaving all other electoral votes for him out of the account) more than 56 per cent. of the inhabitants of the nation, 64 per cent. of its wealth, and four-fifths of its great commercial centres. We have a population which has only about 6 per cent. of illiteracy, including all of its foreign element, as against an illiteracy ranging from 15 per cent. up to 31 among the whites of those Southern States where the whites (almost all native-born) decide how the electoral votes shall be cast. We have here, in a proportion larger than any census statistics can show, the great civilizing forces of the republic, as against the still surviving barbarism bred by slavery in the South and the reckless spirit of adventure in the mining-camps of the far West. We have here electoral votes that bear a reasonable proportion to the population and to the number of votes actually cast, as against bulldozing and ballot-box stuffing in one section, and the grossly exaggerated political power of a few thousand electors in the mining States. In a word, we have all the great dominating forces of the nation which make for intelligence and righteousness massed in a solid body, in the most impressive vindication of democracy governing according to law and justice that the country has ever seen.

CURRENCY REFORM.

The time has come when the Republican party must take some step to put the currency of the country on a permanent and sound basis. This is not merely its duty, for as surely as the revolving years move on, the fight we have just passed through will be renewed unless a satisfactory adjustment is reached. There can be no peace until the Government is taken out of the banking business. All forms of Government demand-notes and circulating paper must be retired. To make the victory just achieved lasting, something must be done to make the currency automatic. As long as it is exposed to the nostrums of politicians and the changes of party platforms—as long as it is subject to the caprices of the kind of mobs that dominate national conventions—so long will the gold standard be threatened not merely by silver, but by something much cheaper than silver. Silver is only a half-way house. The standard of the Populists is not the silver dollar, but the greenback dollar.

In view of these facts, how paganish is the statement sent out on Thursday by Senator Sherman, to the effect that we ought to maintain in use the largest amount of silver that can be kept at a parity with gold. This is the kind of talk from Republicans in high places that has done all the mischief in the past, that came near wrecking the republic, and would have done so had not stronger men than John Sherman taken the helm at the St. Louis convention. Who is to determine that largest amount? Is Bryan to be consulted about that? They reckon ill who leave him out. Suppose that Sherman, Bryan, Sewall, Watson, Bill Chandler, and a few others

were appointed a committee to decide how much silver can be maintained at a parity with gold. What a confused mess we should have, to be sure. Bryan believes that all the silver in the world can be so maintained by our action alone. At at events he said so in his campaign speeches. Perhaps Mr. Sherman means that he would determine by experiment how much silver can be so maintained. But no new experiments can be made without new legislation. Under existing law the amount of silver in our circulation can be neither increased nor diminished. Are we to have the whole question reopened in order to enable Mr. Sherman to straddle it a little longer?

Prof. Hadley delivered a lecture in Brooklyn on Friday evening on the financial problem now confronting the people of the United States. He appears to take a rather pessimistic view of the situation, but perhaps that view proceeds from his extremely candid and unreserved exposure of the obstacles to be overcome in restoring our currency to a sound basis. The opposing forces may be all summed up in one. In order to get the Government out of the banking business all fiat money must be retired. Under existing conditions of public income and expenditure, there is no surplus revenue to be applied to this object, and, even if there were, it would seem to involve contraction of the currency. It would not actually do so, since gold would flow in to take the place of the retired greenbacks. This movement would take place as surely as the water of the ocean finds its level, but it would not be visible, and therefore the cry of contraction would be raised by demagogues and would find eager listeners. In fact, the business community—the very classes which joined with such unanimity to crush the Bryanites—would grow uneasy, and, if they should forbid the step, it would not be taken. Therefore, in order that the movement may succeed, there must be some step equally visible to supply a new currency in place of the old. What shall that be? Here arises a fresh difficulty. If we are to have more national banknotes secured by the deposit of United States bonds, how are the bonds to be obtained? Will the public consent to the creation of an interest-bearing debt to take the place of a non-interest-bearing debt? Here is the crucial point of the whole problem. To the well-instructed mind this is as simple as the proposition that a man against whom a large number of small claims are outstanding, which are liable to be called at any time, to his great embarrassment, should fund them and make them payable at his own convenience. But this is not the way it is generally considered.

Suppose this difficulty could be got over—and it is probably less formidable now than it has been in the past, since we have been compelled to issue two or three hundred millions of bonds to meet these demand obligations without extinguishing them or any of them. Suppose the people would consent to the issue of bonds sufficient to retire the greenbacks and form a basis for an equivalent amount of national banknotes. The act of issuing does not put the bonds into the hands of the banks. It does not keep them there even if it puts them there in the first place. As Prof. Hadley shows, the public will compete with the banks for the purchase of these securities. As the country increases in wealth and population, the price will be bid up in the market. There will be a constant pull of private investors against the banks in the future as in the past. Moreover, the Government itself will by and by have a surplus revenue, and then it will itself be a bidder for bonds against both private investors and banks, and its bidding will be the most powerful because, in order to extinguish the interest, it can afford to pay a higher price than anybody else for the principal. It is true that this competition of the Government may be controlled by Congress, but will Congress consent to pay interest for ever after the necessity has passed? Ought it to do so? No.

Permanent relief is not to be found that way. There must be some form of banknote issues different from the present. But here we are confronted with perhaps the greatest political difficulty of all. The national-banking system is so good in most ways—it has so commended itself to the judgment of thinkers as well as of the public in general—that its note-issuing limitations and shortcomings have not attracted much attention. Yet it is demonstrable that, while the other features of the system may last for ever, the note-issuing function is and must continue to be crippled and will surely come to an end whenever the public debt is paid off. Therefore some other system must be devised. The so-called Baltimore plan, which is an adaptation of the New York Safety Fund system, now in force substantially in Canada, is a possible remedy, but we shall not here go into the details of it. We shall close this article with the remark that we have not an unlimited range of choice or an unlimited time within which to make it. The political majority which elected Mr. McKinley is in a state of unstable equilibrium. A very little disturbance of its component parts may put the majority on the other side, and the majority will almost certainly go to the other side unless something is done within the next four years to settle the currency question permanently. Our situation is in many respects what it was in the early seventies. There was just as much financial madness rampant then as now. There was just as fierce opposition to the resumption of specie payments then as there is now to the gold standard. Yet the Republican party, in fear and trembling, adopted a plan for specie payments and carried it through and saved itself by that means.

We may add a word to what Prof. Hadley says about silver certificates. If the fiat money proper—the legal-tender notes—were retired and cancelled, the vacuum created thereby would be such that the silver certificates would be simply the "large change" of commerce, something like the five-franc pieces of France. We are indebted to Prof. Taussig for that term. They would perhaps not give any more trouble than our small change does. At all events, if everything else in our monetary problem were settled, we should have a sufficient breathing-spell so that we could deal with the silver certificates at our leisure.

REDEMPTION OF OUR CITIES.

For the first time in the history of the country all the larger cities in the land, outside the South, cast a majority of their votes, on November 3, on the same side in a national election. Moreover, the cities having the largest population and the largest percentages of foreign-born citizens cast the heaviest majorities in support of sound money and social order. We append the majorities given in sixteen of the principal cities:

City.	Majority.	City.	Majority.
New York	90,000	Baltimore	20,000
Brooklyn	82,000	Cincinnati	19,000
Buffalo	12,000	Cleveland	8,500
Chicago	60,000	Detroit	7,000
Boston	91,000	Indianapolis	14,000
Providence	7,000	St Paul	4,000
Philadelphia	115,000	Milwaukee	9,800
St. Louis	17,000	Minneapolis	6,000

These figures are of great significance. They show in regard to the great cities what we have pointed out in regard to the returns in the chief States of the Union, that the "ignorant foreign vote" is not the main source of our political ills. It has been the habit of most commentators, native and foreign, to ascribe the uniform and scandalous misgovernment of American cities mainly to the presence of this vote in most of them. We have repeatedly dissented from this view, but have been almost alone in doing so. Our contention has been that the chief cause was the division of the native-born, intelligent, and so-called respectable vote into two about equally divided factions, through the introduction of national party issues and names. It has been this division into opposing forces which has made it possible for the most disreputable elements of our great cities to get possession of their governments. While the property-owners and other reputable persons were voting against one another on the tariff, the bloody shirt, and other irrelevant issues, the liquor-dealers and political gamblers were uniting and were organizing the ignorance, cupidity, and criminality of the community into a solid body, by means of which they secured a minority of sufficient numbers to get possession of the offices. There has never been a time when the divided respectable voters could not, by combining, forgetting that they were Democrats and Republi-

cans, and confessing that the tariff and the treatment of Southern negroes had nothing to do with the business of municipal government, have carried every city in the land by a good majority, and secured a government which was representative of the best intelligence and the property of the community.

What the figures in our table do is to prove the truth of this contention beyond dispute. The misgovernment of American cities is due solely to the partisan folly of native-born Americans. These have only to unite in municipal elections, as they united on November 3, to have a permanent majority in every city of the land. The issue which brought them together is presented to them in every city election. They agreed last week that they would sink all minor considerations and unite for the common preservation of their property and the common credit and welfare of their government. That is what they ought to do in every municipal contest. Their own property is at stake; it is their money which must foot the bills of dishonest and extravagant government; it is the American name which is smirched by the notorious misgovernment of American cities. They were able to overlook the tariff issue when the country was threatened by precisely the same type of politicians as those who have so long pilfered our cities. Why not agree to overlook it again next November, or March, or whenever the time comes again to say who shall conduct a great city's affairs?

There is not one of the cities in our list which would not be immensely better off under a strictly non-partisan administration than it ever has been or ever will be under an administration which is either Republican or Democratic. No matter how good a partisan administration may be, it can never be permanent, for change is inevitable within a very short period, and with change comes the "clean sweep" and a new set of municipal employees. But with non-partisan administration there comes in the business theory of municipal labor, the idea that the city employee is the servant of the city and must give it the best service possible. He cannot do this when part of his time must be devoted to politics, and he will not do it so long as he knows that his retention depends, not upon the way in which he does his work, but upon the favor of the man to whose "pull" he owes his position. Col. Waring's men clean the streets and keep them clean because they are a permanent body of freemen who know that, so long as they do their work well, they are sure of their positions. That is the real non-partisan principle, or the application of business methods to municipal administration. Every city in the land can have these methods applied to all branches of its service, and maintained there in perpetuity, if its intelligent citizens will drop party names and issues and combine to control their own affairs. If they do not do this, they must not try to escape the responsibility for their failure by charging the resulting evils and scandals upon the "ignorant foreign-born voter." That excuse will not suffice any longer. The foreign-born voter has shown that he is neither ignorant nor vicious, and it now behooves the native-born voter to show that he is as patriotic as he professes to be.

THE VENEZUELAN SETTLEMENT.

THE only thing to be regretted about the Venezuelan settlement, which Lord Salisbury announced on Monday at the Lord Mayor's banquet, is the manner in which the controversy was begun by Mr. Olney and President Cleveland. We can testify from careful perusal of the correspondence from 1846 down, that never until Mr. Olney's taking office had we made the question our own. All our Secretaries had been careful to appear in the character simply of friends of both parties, and to repudiate the Venezuelan contention that it was our affair. There was nothing to hinder Mr. Olney's taking a new position and informing Lord Salisbury politely that we considered the business to be ours and should like to have it settled. Had this been done, instead of flinging an unmannerly and incoherent lawyer's brief at his head, accompanied with a threat of war from the President, the controversy might have been pushed with equal vigor and have had an equally happy ending. There would have been no panic, and no rousing into activity of the hateful Jingo spirit, and no damaging of President Cleveland's reputation for decency and common sense.

It is true that the sensation which this first outburst created seems to have frightened both the President and Secretary into civil and courteous argumentation, and Mr. Olney has undoubtedly shown since then, that it was want of judgment and experience, and not want of capacity, which caused his earlier indiscretion. But the evil result of this indiscretion, we fear, will not be removed, and will continue to cast a shade of unfriendliness over our relations with England. The coarse, brutal, and Jingo element in the population, which was pleased with the President's dispatch, and joyfully "stood behind Cleveland" when there was prospect of a war, will love to think that the way we opened the controversy was the right American way—that to be ruffianly and overbearing in diplomatic controversies is a sign of strength and independence, and that the proper way to approach Great Britain, in particular, is always with a threat. Far from looking back on the Olney-Cleveland outburst with regret, they are inclined to make it a precedent. When England agreed to accept arbitration, one Boston paper announced the fact with the refined and kindly heading "Victoria Crawls," and one of its congeners in New York heads Lord Salisbury's announcement of a settlement with the heading "England Backs Down"—the object in both cases being the same, to make Jingo Englishmen regret the peaceful ending of the negotiations, and, if possible, to humiliate the peaceably disposed who rejoice over it. They are intent on keeping up the national reputation for bad manners, and making the United States the typical bully of modern civilization.

We do not know the particulars of the settlement, and consequently cannot say more of it than that it *is* a settlement. But we believe it may be said that the Commission has entirely failed to discover the line for which President Cleveland was to fight, for the simple reason that there never was any line. In past times people did not define frontiers through tropical wildernesses in which no one wished to settle, and least of all the Spanish Americans. These frontier lines, like mathematical lines, were imaginary. They were "somewheres along there." It is only now, when railroads have begun to lead to mines, and population to push into waste places, that the necessity of lines in such regions is felt, and the duty of civilized men is to make them by agreement, not lie about them and fight over them when they do not exist.

Lord Salisbury's position has all along been reasonable. He has been willing to arbitrate about the line, but not to surrender portions of territory in which British subjects have settled in good faith. To do so would be very like surrendering British subjects to be tried by Turks or Chinese. No one not born under it, we believe, wishes to live under a Spanish-American Government, and no highly civilized nation like England or America is willing to make him. Lord Salisbury said, therefore, that he would arbitrate on any line which did not cut inhabited settlements out of British jurisdiction. Mr. Olney has met this in an equally rational spirit. He made the following excellent proposal:

> "Provided, however, that, in fixing such line, if territory of one party be found in the occupation of the subjects or citizens of the other party, such weight and effect shall be given to such occupation as reason, justice, the rules of international law, and the equities of the particular case may appear to require."

As we understand, Lord Salisbury has accepted this. The line is to be drawn by arbitration, but if it includes the British settlements in Venezuela, the owners are to be bought out. Ownership is to be ascertained either by fifty years' adverse possession, or by the ordinary legal proof, and by occupation. This is the whole matter, and how simple it seems. Had the controversy been settled by war, the process would probably have cost the whole value of Venezuela and about 100,000 lives besides. All Jingo processes are frightfully expensive, to say nothing of their wickedness.

Now that it is all over, who can look

back on the controversy as conducted on the stump and in popular periodicals without wonder? Now that the Commission has been unable to find a line, is it not marvellous how many of us a year ago knew exactly where the line was, and gave in figures the superficial area of Great Britain's encroachments on the Venezuelan territory? Think how well informed the *Tribune's* "Old Pensioner," and Senator Lodge, and Theodore Roosevelt, and a host of less noisy Jingoes were about the whole matter, and how well supplied the monthly magazines and the weekly papers used to be with their views, and what a hollow hypocritical pretence our profession of ignorance used to be considered. At one time there seemed to be a certain personal danger in not knowing where the Venezuelan boundary was, and in not being willing to die or reduce one's family to poverty for it. In fact, one could tell beforehand who knew all about it and who did not by mere knowledge of their character. A certain kind of man always knew the extent of Great Britain's encroachments, while another kind did not.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

DUBLIN, October 26, 1896.

To judge from the English press, the most notable circumstance in Ireland is the dissension that still exists among Irish members of Parliament. Like every other Irish event, this is both distorted and exaggerated. A trifling affray in an Irish country village is usually described as if it were an incipient revolution, and a squabble at a poor-law board or municipal council is paraded as evidence of the unfitness of Irishmen for self-government. At the same time, serious and prolonged riots such as those which occurred this year at fishing villages in England, where fishermen from a distance landed their fish for sale on Sunday, or gross corruption in municipal bodies, or scandalous personal altercations among members of local councils—matters of frequent occurrence in England—are barely mentioned and evoke but little comment except in the local press.

Among important events that affect Ireland, the first place must be given to the passage of a new Land Act. No Liberal Government could have passed such an act through the House of Lords; but it must be looked on more as an accidental than a designed piece of legislation, for, if it had not been for the collapse of other important Government bills, no time could have been found for this, which apparently was produced for show and for the embarrassment of Irish parties. What construction the Irish courts will put upon this measure remains to be seen. It is evidently meant to remedy certain glaring injustices and defects which arose out of the interpretation by the courts of the Land Act of 1881. That act purported to exempt from rent all improvements made by tenants, but the decisions of the judges laid down that in many cases there was no exemption, and in most only a partial exemption, from rent in respect of the expenditure by tenants on the permanent improvement of their farms. The present law requires an exhaustive enumeration of all improvements on farms where tenants apply to have fair rents fixed, and the court is to assign to landlord and tenant respectively such improvement works as they find to be the property of each party, making a deduction from the full letting value of the farm in respect of all works which are credited to the tenant.

It will be easy enough for partial or prejudiced administrators to drive coaches and fours through this act. Carelessness and ignorance may bring about the same result, and one great difficulty has been to find and secure the appointment of competent and qualified judges. In England there is a large body of skilled surveyors and valuers who are constantly engaged in the estimation of value of real property for assessment, compensation, and such like purposes. In Ireland no such body ever existed, and almost the only professional valuing that was ever done was for the purpose of raising farm rents; a valuer being employed to give a semblance of fairness to a transaction that always ended in the same way. The English Surveyors' Institute requires all its members to qualify, not only by practice and apprenticeship, but by passing a series of examinations in such matters as are necessary to the intelligent practice of their profession. Surveying in all its branches; the law as to value, compensation and assessments; political economy; farming and estate management, are subjects which all practising surveyors and valuers should be theoretically acquainted with. In Ireland there are no tests, no prescribed qualifications for surveyors or valuers under the Land Acts, and it would probably be found that most persons employed or practising as valuers could not pass an examination in the elements of mensuration or political economy. The laymen who are valuers and fair-rent fixers under the Land Law are appointed by the Lord Lieutenant, on the recommendation, it is believed, of persons who have influence at "the Castle." It is needless to say that the farming classes are not represented, and one ground of dissatisfaction on the part of the tenants is their belief that the official valuers not only belong to a hostile class, but are often profoundly ignorant of their business.

The new act is an addition to the many complex and intricate statutes dealing with the relations of landlord and tenant passed since 1860; in addition to these the law has to be found out from a mass of undigested and conflicting legal decisions extending over a period of thirty years. The bill as brought in was hastily remodelled by the Government, incompletely discussed, hurriedly passed with sundry amendments in the small hours of the night, and, as a patch on the former tangle of laws, promises an infinite amount of litigation. It is no more a settlement of the Irish land question than any other act has been.

Another matter of great importance to the future of Ireland has been the final report of the Royal Commission on the Financial Relations of Great Britain and Ireland. A practically unanimous conclusion was that while the actual tax revenue from Ireland is $\frac{1}{17}$ of the total revenue of the United Kingdom, Ireland's taxable capacity is *not more* than $\frac{1}{20}$. This general report was qualified by a number of separate and supplementary reports. The Chairman, O'Conor Don, and four other members reported that the ratio of Ireland's taxable capacity to that of Great Britain is not more than 1 to 20, and *possibly is much less.* Messrs. Sexton, E. Blake, and Slattery found that the true proportion of taxable capacity is 1 for Ireland to 36 for Great Britain; that this ratio is the highest for which any equitable basis can be found, without regard to past over-taxation or the continual increase of disparity between the resources of Great Britain and Ireland. English opinion will probably attach most weight to the separate report issued by Lords Farrer and Welby; the latter for many years principal officer of the Treasury, the former an ex-official of the Board of Trade. They also found that Ireland's actual tax revenue was $\frac{1}{17}$, while it should not have been more in 1893 4 than $\frac{1}{20}$. In one of the concluding paragraphs this report says: "After the exposure of the over-taxation of Ireland made by this inquiry, it will be difficult for the Imperial Parliament to maintain the present taxation of Ireland, at any rate without compensation." The excessive and wasteful expenditure in Ireland is not lost sight of; Lords Farrer and Welby describe it as "a pecuniary loss to the taxpayers of Great Britain and a cause of demoralization to Ireland."

After eighty years of unavailing protest from representative Irishmen, it is at last discovered and officially recorded by English Royal Commissioners that Ireland is over-taxed, and that imperial expenditure in Ireland is to a large extent useless and demoralizing. But unless agitation passing the limits of what is considered "constitutional" both in and out of Parliament, quickens the English conscience into action, another eighty years may pass without any reform of our financial relations with England. This report says: "The evil of excessive taxation cannot be properly remedied unless excessive expenditure be abated at the same time"; but the revenue raised in Ireland is spent wholly under the direction of the Imperial Parliament, and it is against the useless waste of her revenue, as well as against the excessive contribution required for British purposes, that Irishmen protest.

Lord Welby has for years been the principal officer of the Treasury, and it has been his duty to furnish English ministers with figures and arguments against the Irish view of this question. The forces of tradition and prejudice appear strongly in this report; almost all the evidence is ignored, and it appears to be based wholly on the returns furnished by the Treasury, although the fallacious character of these was clearly demonstrated, both by Mr. Giffen, the well-known statistician and economist, and by Mr. Thomas Sexton in his examination of the Treasury officials. By a process of "adjustment" and conjecture as to the amount of articles consumed in England, though the duty is paid in Ireland, Lords Farrer and Welby estimate the Irish contribution to the imperial revenue at six and three-quarter millions. The latest Parliamentary return shows that the revenue collected by imperial officers in Ireland is slightly over ten millions, and though there may be some question as to whether the revenue from Irish duty-paid articles consumed in England should be credited to Ireland or not, the deduction of three and a-quarter millions on this account cannot be justified. In addition to ten millions collected by imperial officers, three millions are collected by local authorities, so that the local and imperial tax revenue raised in Ireland amounts to nearly £3 per head of the population. Any Government with such a revenue would be dangerously rich. The total cost of Government, federal and local, in the United States, was estimated by Mr. Edward Atkinson (*Engineering Magazine*, November, 1895) at £2-16-0 per head, and your adminis-

tration appears to be one of the most generous and extravagant among modern states. In Ireland we have a lavish expenditure on officials, police, soldiers, and generally useless public works. We have a bad and out-of-date system of primary education; no Catholic university, but abundantly endowed Protestant colleges; and in local and municipal matters, taxation without representation is the rule. Irishmen, having no control, have no interest in economical government, for Ireland gains nothing by economy of the imperial revenue; the less spent in Ireland, the greater the gain of the British Treasury.

Another addition to the literature on the subject of what ought to and might be done for Ireland is the report of the Recess Committee, a voluntary body brought together by Horace Plunkett, a Unionist member of Parliament, for the purpose of suggesting what should be done for Ireland in matters outside the sphere of party politics. This Committee has published an interesting report relating the crimes and mistakes of past governments in Ireland, pointing out the deficiencies in our educational system, describing what is being done in other European countries to develop their resources and promote social and industrial progress, and finally making a series of suggestions to the Government for the creation of new departments, agricultural and educational, through which "the State" is to act for the benefit of the Irish people. In other countries held up in this Report as examples, "the State" is the whole body of the people acting through their representatives, but in Ireland "the State" is the British Parliament, which has sole control of the Irish revenue, and in which Ireland is practically disfranchised. The State in this sense crushed Irish industries, trade, and enterprise in the past, passed laws which prevented three-fourths of the population from being educated, or accumulating wealth of any kind, and even in recent years crushed and discouraged attempts made by Irish departments to promote agricultural and technical education, which the Recess Committee hold to be the necessary foundation of any progress.

The reforms proposed by this committee would need (1) legislation in the Imperial Parliament, for which no time can ever be found; (2) ample funds, which are not likely to be got out of the British Treasury; (3) a complete change in the methods of Irish administration and in the minds of the ruling classes. For half a century it has been an accepted principle with these that there were too many people in Ireland. The inhabitants of the country were, dreadful to relate, consuming the greater part of the produce of their native soil, and this was wanted for taxes by the English Treasury and for rents by absentee landlords. The policy of compelling and promoting emigration was established, instead of seeking to educate the people and make them more productive. Government favored and helped this policy; it did not hold it to be an undisputed maxim of government that "people are the riches of a nation," and the result has been achieved of reducing the population of a fertile country by one-half in the space of forty years. Lecky says that by the penal laws "nearly all the talent, the energy, the ambition of the country was driven to the Continent"; the land system and the absence of useful education have had a similar expelling effect in later years. This week the Catholic hierarchy, in a manifesto on the education question, speak of "the impossibility of raising a nation in which three-fourths of the population are cut off from the direct and indirect advantages of the full training of their best intellects."

Until some measure of home rule gives the Irish people the control of their own revenue and internal administration, the methods of reform suggested by the Recess Committee could not operate effectively. Experience shows that an increase of departments under the British Treasury, and an addition to the already excessive army of officials, means spending money without receiving any corresponding benefit. Lord Farrer's report says: "We believe that the expenditure of public funds cannot be wisely and economically controlled unless those who have the disposal of public money are made responsible for raising it as well as spending it." But the Recess Committee propose that more money shall be got from the Treasury to be spent by unrepresentative and unsympathetic officials. This recommendation is openly put forward by Mr. Plunkett as an antidote to home rule; so, while the Nationalists are not likely to oppose the spending of money in Ireland, they have abstained as a body from any active coöperation with the Recess Committee.

Another Unionist movement is one for the more humane treatment of the poor and sick in the Irish workhouses. But the excessive centralization of our entire system of local government, the "red tape" of the administrative bodies, the continued refusal of successive Governments to place the poor-law system on a popular and representative basis and to allow the ratepayers to effectively control the present extravagant expenditure, prevent national coöperation and interest in this matter. The Poor Law was introduced into Ireland about fifty years ago, when the country swarmed with paupers and vagrants, largely the result of the wholesale "clearances" of their estates by the landlords. Immense jail-like barracks were built for the accommodation and confinement of these unfortunates. The total number of paupers in Ireland is now one in 46 of the population, while in England it is one in 36. The poor rates have been a continually increasing charge in Ireland, though the number of persons relieved has diminished, while in England the charge has become less than at almost any period of this century. The Irish Poor Law is much stricter and more harshly administered than the English; the Irish Boards of Guardians are largely composed of landowners who become ex-officio members, while the elected guardians are chosen by a system of plural voting which practically deprives the poorer ratepayers of any voice in the matter. The upkeep of the workhouses, built to accommodate treble the present number of paupers, is a serious and useless expense. The workhouse infirmaries are used as county hospitals by comparatively well-to-do-persons, for no other institutions are available in country districts in case of serious and infectious diseases.

Last year the Irish Medical Association made an attempt to investigate the condition and management of the workhouses, of which there are about 160 in all. They were able to get official information as to only 79 of these institutions, the medical officers in other cases declining to answer, generally on the ground that they did not wish to incur the hostility of their Boards. The Medical Association said, "It would be impossible to describe the misery and wretchedness of the unfortunate poor doomed to enter and perhaps end their days in some of these institutions." They reported that out of 79 cases where they got information, 48 infirmaries have no trained nursing; in 65, beds and pillows are merely bags filled with straw; in 6 only is there satisfactory ventilation; in 59, sanitary arrangements are of the most disgusting character imaginable; in 43 the inmates have neither plates, knives, nor forks; in all there is an absence of proper food, nursing, sanitation, and comfort. The first step in reforming the scandalous condition of the workhouses would be that the guardians should be freely elected by the ratepayers, who would then feel interested in economy and efficiency of administration. Few of the well-to-do persons in this district know anything of the internal economy of the neighboring workhouse, containing 700 to 800 inmates. Though a large ratepayer for twenty years, I have never been asked for a vote or had an opportunity of electing a guardian. No person can visit the workhouse without leave of the guardians and master. The object of poor-law reform should be not so much the better treatment of workhouse inmates as the prevention of pauperism, and for this it is essential that children should no longer be confined in these institutions, but that they should be boarded out and sent to village and country homes and schools. This is done in England, but in Ireland the powers of the guardians are more limited, and those they have are not fully availed of.

The condition of the lunatic poor is another illustration of the deadlock arising from excessive centralization and overlapping of authorities. Harmless lunatics are confined in the workhouses, but in yards and cells, and under conditions which make recovery very improbable. The asylums proper are overcrowded. For example, there are at present 1,700 lunatics in a Dublin asylum calculated to contain 1,000. A malignant disease called beriberi, known to arise from overcrowding and bad food in Eastern countries, but of rare occurrence here, is now epidemic among the patients and attendants. Medical officers have called attention repeatedly to the insufficient accommodations in this asylum; the Board of Governors have resolved that more accommodation should be provided, but they have no power to provide it. Over them is a "Board of Control," and this board requires orders from the Privy Council before it can act. Money to build must be got from the British Treasury, which is too fully occupied with the affairs of the Empire to act very promptly; and this supreme authority declines to lend the money for new buildings at less than 3½ per cent., although the value of money indicated by the price of consols is about 2 per cent. The governors of the asylum cannot raise money in the open market unless they are enabled to do so by an act of the Imperial Parliament; this could not be got for a year, and even an unopposed act of Parliament costs an inordinate amount of money in fees and legal costs. While all these boards are resolving, considering, charging each other with delay, and the Treasury with avaricious and unreasonable usury, the poor lunatics are dying of beriberi and other diseases due to the overcrowded and unsanitary condition of their prison.

In every department of local administration, difficulties and insuperable obstacles due to excessive centralization and conflicting jurisdiction are met with. The road authorities are nominated by the Lord Lieutenant; a different body is constituted every year, and only meets twice a year for the hasty

transaction of business, after which they cease to have any existence for six months. There is no control over this body, either by any department of the State or by the ratepayers; and there is no efficient audit of their accounts, nor are the accounts made-up in any intelligible fashion. Hardly any municipal improvement can be carried out without an act of the Imperial Parliament authorizing special powers to be exercised; the cost of such an act may run, as it has during the past year, to from £10,000 to £20,000, and a large expense is frequently incurred in promoting improvement bills which may fall through on some trifling and technical point at the last moment. Each bill must pass through the stages of first, second, and third readings in the Houses of Lords and Commons; and fees are charged on an elaborate scale in each house. On a small, unopposed bill of a single clause the House fees alone amounted to £204. This system is a check on all municipal and local enterprise, is very costly to the ratepayers, and most oppressive to private individuals whose rights may be interfered with, as such persons can seldom bear the expense of opposing a bill promoted by railway or other wealthy companies.

It is a mistake to think that the home-rule movement consists even mainly in the land question. The social reformer is met at every turn by obstacles due to excessive centralization; red tape of imperial departments; ignorance, apathy, and neglect of the officials in London whose consent is necessary, or without whose concurrence no private Irish bill can pass through Parliament. The British Treasury, into whose hands 10 million pounds sterling passes every year from Ireland, scents a job in every proposal for expenditure in Ireland; and rightly so, for the system of governing Ireland from London has been and is saturated with jobbery and extravagance. It is impossible for the Treasury to discern the merits and demerits of the proposals laid before them, to decide whether a plan urged on them by "influential" persons in Ireland is meant to create new posts for private friends or political supporters, or to benefit the taxpayers.

In an excellent school-book, 'The English Citizen,' the author, Mr. Wyatt, describes the existing representative government in England thus: "The people send their representatives to Parliament to make laws and control the great executive departments; the people elect from among themselves those who carry on the local government of the village, the town, and the county; the people pay the rates and taxes, and they elect those who have the care of the public purse and the spending of the public money." No part of this description would apply to Ireland except that the people pay the rates and taxes. Representative government does not exist in local affairs, and in imperial matters Irishmen have practically no control in the raising or spending of the taxes paid into the imperial exchequer.

AN IRISHMAN.

BOTTICELLI'S ILLUSTRATIONS TO THE DIVINA COMMEDIA.

FLORENCE, October 22, 1896.

THE publication in a form almost popular of Sandro Botticelli's drawings for Dante's 'Divina Commedia' has long been called for, and is at last accomplished.* Something has been lost in reducing the illustrations to half the size of the originals. One or two have become quite inextricable in their entanglement, and the first sketching in with silver point has nearly disappeared. But these slight losses are more than recompensed by the comparatively small price and the extreme handiness of the present edition, bound in book form. Dr. Lippmann's introduction and commentary leave little or nothing to be desired in the way of information or elucidation.

To many these illustrations will be disappointing. They have heard that Botticelli was a great artist, and they expect him to give them, to an even intenser degree, feelings of the kind and quality that they have had in reading Dante. None of the gloom, the chill dread, the passion, the despair, the luridness of the "Inferno" will be brought home to them as they turn over Botticelli's designs. They will find scarcely an attempt at dramatic expression; they will find many more instances of the unconscious grotesque than of the realized sublime; and, throughout, conceptions as infantile as Fra Angelico's, but seldom so winning. Nor, taken as real illustration, are matters much improved in the "Purgatorio." There is no trace in Botticelli of the feeling of hope and convalescence and early morning which penetrates you as you read these cantos of Dante. And Sandro's "Paradiso" fails no less in communicating the one essential quality of this part of the poem—its sublimity. Here again the artist remains shut up in the Fra Angelico world. All in all, Rossetti's "Blessed Damozel" would have been a fitter subject for Botticelli's fancy than Dante's 'Divina Commedia.'

As illustrator, then, to the 'Divina Commedia,' Botticelli, it must be acknowledged, disappoints, partly because his genius was not at all Dantesque, but chiefly because the poem does not lend itself to satisfactory illustration. Although Dante describes with a vividness and tangibility surpassing all other poets', his effects seldom result from an appeal to vision only. Yet visual form, so small a part of the poet's outfit, is the illustrator's entire tool-chest. All his effects must come through it, and can come by it only. Think of making mere outline, as in the case of Botticelli's illustrations, convey all the manifold sensations, all the passions and emotions, which rapidly succeed each other in Dante's verses! One might as well attempt to render Beethoven's Ninth Symphony or Berlioz's "Dies Iræ" with no other instrument than the French horn.

And even if it were possible to make outline convey feelings as full and penetrating as Dante's, which episodes should the illustrator choose? They follow each other in bewildering number, with no connection in the realm of visually representable things, held together by nothing more tangible than the emotional tone of each canto. The fact is that Dante is not a great epic or dramatic poet. He has none of those stretches of culminating narrative, none of the working up to a climax, which lend themselves so admirably to the exercise of the visual imagination. In spite of the fact that he wrote one of the longest real poems in existence, and that this is apparently a narrative, Dante as a poet is great only as a master of the lyric, or (to make a concession) of the "dramatic lyric." Now the lyric is beyond the reach of the illustrator.

Dante does not lend himself to illustration; and, even if he did, Botticelli was not the man for the task. Then, pray, what is the value of these drawings? The answer is simple enough. Their value consists in their being drawings by Botticelli, not at all in their being drawings for Dante. And at this point the honest showman should warn the public that a drawing by Botticelli is something very peculiar. It does not so much as attempt to be correct; it is not a faithful reproduction of anything whatsoever. A hundred "artist-journalists" now at work publish daily drawings which are far more exact, more life-like, more clever, and more brilliant than any you will find in Botticelli's designs for the 'Divina Commedia.' If that is the only kind of drawing you care for, you will be no less disappointed in Sandro than if you went to him for interpretative illustration. His real place as a draughtsman is not among great Europeans, but with the great Chinese and Japanese, with Ririomin, Haronobu, and Hokusai. Like these, he is a supreme master of the single line. He gives it a swiftness and a purity which in the whole world of sensation find their analogy only in some few ecstatic notes of the violin, or in the most crystalline *timbre* of the soprano voice. His universe was of the simplest. It consisted of things that could and of things that could not furnish themes for rhapsodies in swift, pure lines. Dante happened to find himself among the blessed in this simple division; hence Botticelli chose him as a subject for his art. These illustrations required of our artist no coloring—with him always an afterthought—and scarcely any stereotyped composition. Here he could be free as nowhere else, and here, therefore, we see him in his most unadulterated form. The value of these drawings consists in their being the most spontaneous product of the greatest master of the single line that our modern Western world has yet possessed.

Now let us look at a few of these designs, beginning with the "Inferno," where Botticelli, feeling himself most weighed down by the story, is least himself. What do we see as we turn to the drawing for the opening canto? In the first place, a fretwork arrangement of exquisite pen strokes, by itself as pleasant as light on rippling water. Looked at closer, this smiling fretwork becomes a wood of graceful stems, whose branches cross and recross like the rapiers of courteous fencers. In rhythmic balance to the mass of this dainty forest you have a tangle of flower-bushes. Between, ramp three heraldic beasts, performing a figure with four men whose long cloaks fall into lines as swift and almost as pure as those of the tree stems. I defy any one to read gloom and terror into this piece of lineal decoration. Or turn to the illustration for Inf. xiii. Again a marvellous fretwork of lines which, seen closer, resolve themselves into a tangled wood where decorative dogs leap at decorative nudes, while even more decorative harpies sit upon the branches. We are in the pound of the suicides, but it would take a child with a feverish imagination to get a shiver out of this design. I will not deny that, in other sheets—indeed, in many of those for the "Inferno"—there is somewhat more correspondence with the text, but I doubt whether it ever is enough to be satisfactory as expression, while it is precisely in such drawings that the artist is least satisfactory as pure art. What does occur at times is a fortunate accord between the way Botticelli would naturally treat a subject and Dante's feeling about it. This occurs rarely in the "Inferno," where it would be hard to instance another example than that of the hypocrites under their copes of lead (singularly Japanese, by the way, in movement of line); but,

*'Drawings by Sandro Botticelli for Dante's Divina Commedia.' Reduced facsimiles after the originals in the Royal Museum, Berlin, and in the Vatican Library, with an Introduction by F. Lippmann. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896. Imperial quarto.

out of the "Inferno," as we shall see, this accord gets more and more frequent.

But Botticelli's strength was not in arrangement alone. He was, above everything, master of the line in movement. He loved to make it run and leap, to make it whirl and dance. He was truly great only when he had a theme which permitted the exercise of this mastery. Such themes the "Purgatorio" and "Paradiso" offered him in plenty. Examples become too many to cite, and I shall confine myself to a few of the best. You will rarely see a frieze of greater decorative beauty than is formed by the nudes leaping into the purgatorial flames, as if they were the waters of the Fountain of Youth, while Virgil and Statius and Dante pass by discoursing on the relation between soul and body. This is the illustration to Purg. xxv, and, after this one, every consecutive drawing becomes, if possible, more and more beautiful. The flames leap even higher, and the nudes are worked in with them even more harmoniously. And presently you come to a design whose beauty keeps you spellbound: rare trees shoot up with exquisite grace, and between them you see the poets breathing gladly and gazing at the pure ether. One lady, with fascinating movement of figure and flutter of drapery, is gathering flowers, and another addresses the poets. Are we in Dante's terrestrial Paradise, or in Poliziano's Realm of Venus? No matter which, it could not be more lovely. This is followed by a succession of scenes in which Botticelli's talents find their completest satisfaction: the car of the Church, the grandly draped elders, the dancing, flower-scattering angels, the torch-bearers, the streaming smoke, the heraldic beasts—each and all so many exquisitely drawn laughing, leaping, whirling lines in wonderful arrangement. But the crown of the whole work is still to come: it is the design for Par. i. The daintiest trees ever drawn wave softly over a smooth meadow wet by the water of Eunoe's placid stream. Behind the rare leafage of the reed-like trees, Beatrice and Dante, with faces of ecstasy, are wafted gently up to the higher spheres. To convey in words a sensation corresponding to the singular beauty of this page would require Dante himself, or perhaps Shakspere or Keats. Line, movement, and pattern can go no further. None of the remaining illustrations can be put beside this one; yet they are all lovely. The type of them is the one for Par. vi—a pure circle studded with exquisite flamelets, Beatrice pointing upward as she floats, and Dante with his face and hands expressive of the utmost ecstasy. The flicker of the flamelets, the flutters of the draperies, the bending towards each other of the two figures, with the whole enclosed in a pure circle, form one of those happy patterns which, for the very reason of their childlike simplicity, one can gaze at for hours, being soothed and refreshed.

To the few scores, or let us hope, hundreds the world over, who feel the difference between art and illustration, as well as between art and fidelity to nature or mere dexterity, Dr. Lippmann's publication is one of the great events of recent years. B. Berenson.

Correspondence.

THE MORAL OF IT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the present time McKinley appears to have 277 electoral votes, of which but 127 were cast for Harrison four years ago, when the campaign was on the question of tariff reform. Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and California declared as emphatically against protection in 1892 as they have against free silver in 1896. That any party could carry an election without the electoral votes of a large part of these States is exceedingly doubtful. Would it not be well for those who are demanding a new tariff bill to bear this in mind?

F. L. Bonney.

Boston, November 6, 1896.

PRINCETON'S UNIVERSITY INNOVATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As I have not noticed in your columns any allusion to the Princeton celebration, permit me to call attention to one of its aspects that has been little emphasized in the accounts in the daily and weekly papers. In inviting a number of distinguished foreign scholars to deliver courses of lectures on scientific and literary subjects during the week preceding the actual celebration, the authorities of Princeton took a step which should do more to make the occasion memorable than the burning of any amount of colored fire or the delivery of any number of after-dinner speeches, necessary as these adjuncts may be to a celebration. So far as is known to the writer, this step was a distinct innovation. To be sure, we have frequently had distinguished foreigners lecturing among us, but not usually to adorn such an occasion as this, nor upon such severe subjects. In Germany the excellent custom prevails, and it has lately been imitated in this country, that when a learned professor celebrates his jubilee, some of his former students join in the occasion by contributing pieces of original research, which they publish in the form of a book dedicated to the master. What could be a more suitable and permanent tribute? In like manner, what more appropriate to an academic celebration than the contribution, under the auspices of the university, of something of permanent value to the intellectual public?

As regards the quality of the lectures at Princeton, I will speak only of those of the most personal interest to myself. In inviting Professors Felix Klein and J. J. Thomson, the Princeton authorities secured two scientists of the first order in the departments of mathematics and physics; and the interest aroused in their lectures is attested by the fact that among their auditors were university professors from as far West as Chicago, and from Cambridge to Washington. These lectures were not a presentation of matter familiar even to a European public, but dealt with new, fresh, and extremely interesting problems. In his lectures on the Theory of the Top, Prof. Klein gave in a very concise form a brilliant and extremely suggestive exposition of the application of some of the latest developments of the Theory of Functions to a problem that has exercised some of the greatest minds among mathematicians, physicists, and astronomers. That the very recent subject of Automorphic or Fuchsian Functions should be necessary for the treatment of the motion of an ordinary peg top shows how much our mathematical methods will bear perfecting. Prof. Thomson, on the other hand, took as his subject what is practically a brand-new field, for while the phenomena of the Discharge of Electricity in Gases have been studied for years, very little of a satisfactory nature has been accomplished until quite recently. Moreover, some of the most interesting of these phenomena, those which occur in connection with the Röntgen Rays, were not known to exist earlier than last December. The lecturer devoted himself largely to the presentation of the results of his own work, giving evidence of an almost incredible degree of productiveness in the last few months, the results being no half-baked heterogeneous data, but fitting into well-considered theories in such a manner as to give rise to the conviction that we are on the verge of important discoveries in the domain of molecular physics.

I feel safe in saying that these two courses might have been attended with profit by every mathematician or physicist in the country, each of whom could hardly have failed to derive some inspiration therefrom. I am not aware that the authorities of Princeton have formally stated what they understand by the transformation of a college into a university, but may we not infer that the step that they have here taken betokens a true university spirit, and forms a fitting introduction to a career under the new and more imposing title? Arthur Gordon Webster.

Worcester, Mass., November 2, 1896.

ENGLISH IN PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have watched the debates on English teaching in the preparatory schools with surprise that one grave element of the problem should be so generally ignored. The professor and the littérateur might be expected to overlook a financial factor in practical education, but that the teacher should so suffer his case to go by default is passing strange. Permit me to state the problem for which thousands of teachers wish a solution.

Skill in composition is a question of practice under guidance and with criticism. Last year I sent to hundreds of teachers these words: "Long experience in the reading of themes would seem to prove that the careful criticism of twenty pages—letter-sheet size—about four thousand words—is a reasonable hour's work. Every pupil in the high school should write each week at least four pages, eight hundred words." Not in a single instance did this statement meet with dissent, but the teachers knew and I knew that the high school does not exist where these conditions can be satisfied. Any taxpayer whose wrath is great because his son is not better taught in composition, will find his indignation abating if he will but make a brief calculation. If one pupil writes four pages per week, and one teacher reads, with written criticism, twenty pages per hour, for what number of pupils will the whole time of one teacher suffice? Can the taxpayer solve that problem? If he can, the secondary schools can go far towards solving their problem.

But what is the answer as found to-day in our schools? Exceptional opportunities for observation give warrant for the statement that it is common custom with school-boards to require of the teacher of English as many hours in the recitation room as are given by any other teacher on the staff, and that the utmost allowance granted for the criticism of papers is, with rare exceptions, forty-five minutes a day, although the pupils instructed may exceed two hundred. When the day's

work in the class-room is finished, the teacher turns with weary brain to the exhausting toil of criticism, and donates to the public as much labor as her conscience compels or her strength permits.

Assuredly, our masters demand the full tale of brick, but grant us no straw. The profession of English teaching loses many competent teachers, notwithstanding its attractiveness, because the burden of essay criticism, imposed but not paid for, is greater than they can bear. The secondary schools could meet without difficulty the full demand of Harvard—I speak from experience—if adequate provision in time and teaching skill were granted by those who hold the purse-strings.

C. D.

November 4, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The ignorance of English among college freshmen has narrowly missed becoming much worse. It is admitted that those students have formed their style, so far as they have any, on the newspapers which they read as soon as they could read at all. In them were their first holiday excursions from dull drilling in readers. To them they owe their vocabulary, their grammar, rhetoric, orthography. In all departments the literary standing of country papers, which have furnished the main reading for the childhood of half our collegians, has been as a rule very low. In many cases a boy would learn from such models more errors than truths. The inevitable result would prove the paradox true, that the more one learns the less he may know; his ignorance growing greater and greater in proportion to his knowledge. Thus in the lowest deep a lower deep was still opening: the greater the quantity of information, the worse its quality.

But half these baleful influences of the rural press have now passed away. A majority of country papers now show on half their pages no bad spelling, nothing ungrammatical, scarcely a word misused or misplaced. If classically dull, all is coldly correct—proper words in proper places. These pages, too, which do not shrink from criticism, contain original articles by well-paid writers which form attractive reading, and the selections in themselves and by pictorial decorations fascinate every country child. This better half (forming the "patent insides" or "outsides") is the half for the last decade or two most read at farmers' firesides by the children who are still in their plastic period. Through the attractions of these non-local portions, the patent insides or outsides, many an element of accuracy and sound speech which cannot be condemned has been revealed unto babes while hid from their wise and prudent fathers, whose eyes seldom wander beyond the uncouth columns of illiterate home talent and home presswork. Had the improvement of preparatory schools during the last score of years kept pace with that of preparatory newspapers, the wall which preparatory students build would have been so propped where it was weakest, that college master builders would find little fault with the foundations laid for their superstructures. James D. Butler.

CHAUCER IN ITALY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With regard to a recent correspondence in your columns on "Chaucer's First Italian Journey," I beg to draw attention to the fact that the date assigned there to this journey (December 1, 1372, to May 23, 1373) is the date first given to the world in the 'Fresh Chaucer Notices' published December 20, 1873, by Dr. Furnivall. Dr. F. gives in this publication (which was later added to the 'Trial Forewords'), unfortunately in the succinctness of a "Calendar," the following note (p. 130):

"Exchequer to pay C. for his journeys to Genoa and Florence, 1374 or 3. Exch. L. T. R. *Foreign Accounts*, 47 Ed. 3, Roll 3.

"C.'s accounts for his journeys to Genoa and Florence, from 1 Dec., 1372, to 23 May, 1373."

When I saw this years ago, it became clear to me that May 23 marked the last day of his journey, and was to be accepted as such until some new proof should be brought to show the contrary. I used this "new" date in all the syllabi even of my beginners' classes in Chaucer, and have often been astonished to see this "new" date persistently ignored. This astonishment prompted me to write the following words in my review of Skeat's Chaucer, printed in the *Dial* of February 16, 1895:

"In the annalistic biography I do not miss anything; but when, under 1373, Dr. Skeat says of Chaucer's first visit to Italy, 'All that is known of this mission is that he visited Florence as well as Genoa, and that he returned before November 23, 1373, on which day he received his pension in person,' he does not lay sufficient stress on the fact, brought to light by Dr. Furnivall in 1873, and mentioned by Skeat only in a note, that Chaucer's accounts of this journey run for the period between December 1, 1372, to May 23, 1373. It would be strange indeed if these accounts had stopped in the midst of his journey. The more natural interpretation seems to be, that Chaucer's journey did not last more than six months; and so this document would corroborate what Prof. Lounsbury expressed, for the first time, I think, in the introduction to his edition of the 'Parliament of Foules'—that Chaucer had no time to learn Italian in Italy, but was sent there just because of his knowledge of the Italian language. Besides, the document seems to show that Chaucer returned months before the 22d of November [1373], there being no evidence that he stayed longer than May 23. The burden of proof then rests upon those who assume the later date."

Let me add in conclusion that I am very glad to learn that the document itself will, finally, be made accessible; it will, as the extracts show (*quo die rediit Lond.*), give conclusive proof of what before was only to be surmised from Furnivall's too short abstract. We fortunately have so many documents connected with Chaucer's name that I think it would be a debt of gratitude to Fate to print a whole volume of "Chaucer Documents," and the sooner the better.—Yours respectfully,

Ewald Flügel.

Stanford University, October 15, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The conclusiveness of Miss Scott's argument that Chaucer met Petrarch at Padua or at Arqua in 1372 or 1373 rests on the assumption that Chaucer is to be identified with the "Clerk of Oxenford." From the descriptions of the two in the 'Canterbury Tales' we know they both were shy. But, on the other hand, the Clerk is lean (A 287–288):

> "As lene was his hors as is a rake,
> And he nas nat right fat, I undertake";

while from the Prologue to the Rime of Sir Thopas we are probably to infer that Chaucer is represented in the 'Canterbury Tales' as portly—a description that agrees with the portrait in Occleve (B 1889–1892):

> "Now war yow, sirs, and lat this man have place;
> He in the waast is shape as wel as I;
> This were a popet in an arm t'enbrace
> For any womman, smal and fair of face."

Here, however, it is not absolutely impossible to take the second line as ironical rather than the third and fourth.

Moreover, if the Clerk and Chaucer are to be identified, Chaucer himself is the only person to whom three tales are assigned.

Again, the Clerk bears less resemblance to the Chaucer of later years than does the Squire to Chaucer in his youth. In 1359 Chaucer held some position, not clearly defined, in the train of Lionel afterward Duke of Clarence, whom he accompanied on King Edward's expedition to France. The country visited on this occasion was not greatly different from the scene of the travels of the Squire, who

> "had been sometyme in chivachye
> In Flaundres, in Artoys, and Picardye."

Numerous references to early poems now lost make it probable that Chaucer exercised his poetic faculty very young; and behind the existing early poems, from which some good biographers have inferred unutterable heart-burnings, we may, if we will, see the half-scrutable smile that tells us Chaucer has been only such another "lovyere and a lusty bachilere" as his own Squire.

It is, then, highly improbable that Chaucer intended any one of his pilgrims for a faithful copy of himself, unless it be the slightly sketched figure always mentioned in the first person. Of Chaucer, as of Shakspere, we may say that every line of his that really lives is impregnated with his personality. In his poetry he made freer use of his own personal history than did Shakspere, but his history no less than his personality is subjected to his art, and biographical satisfaction is not often found. With a poet's instinct he has preferred to open to us vistas of charming possibilities, and to leave us to their contemplation unannoyed by the officiousness of a cicerone. Henry Barrett Hinckley.

Northampton, Mass., October 24, 1896.

Notes.

Miss Mary Kingsley, who has inherited her father's love of travel and of nature, will publish through Macmillan her 'Log of a Naturalist in West Africa,' north of the Congo. The same house announces 'Domestic Service,' by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon of Vassar; 'Charles Darwin and the Theory of Natural Selection,' by Edward B. Poulton; and 'Michael Faraday, his Life and Work,' by Prof. Sylvanus P. Thompson.

'Philip Gilbert Hamerton: An Autobiography (1834-1858), and a Memoir by his Wife (1858–1894)' will bear of right the imprint of Roberts Bros., Boston, familiar in connection with this writer's works.

Mr. Frank R. Stockton will contribute the 'Story of New Jersey,' and Mr. Joel Chandler Harris the 'Story of Georgia,' to Messrs. Appleton's "Stories from American History."

'Karine; A Story of Swedish Love,' is in the press of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

A complete edition of Alexander Kielland's works, in sixteen volumes, is announced by Gyldendal of Copenhagen. Although Kielland's first novel appeared less than twenty years ago, he has published nothing during the past five years, and it seems hardly probable

that any additions will be made to the series here announced.

It is now five years since we essayed an estimate of the taking and the permanent qualities of Mr. John Fiske's 'American Revolution.' We should have been flattered, in the revision the work has undergone, to see the minor blemishes we then remarked removed from the new edition just brought out by his publishers, Houghton, Mifflin & Co.; but we accept as compensation for a neglect of our strictures, as well as for the sufficiently popular-patriotic tone of the whole narrative, Mr. Fiske's new concluding paragraph, ranking the Geneva settlement of the *Alabama* claims above the victories at Saratoga and Yorktown, and breathing a prayer for the success of Anglo-Saxon international arbitration. It remains to speak only of the remarkable beauty of this reprint, as bookmaking, with the wealth of illustrations almost without exception genuinely helpful—antiquarian and historical; carefully selected portraits; contemporary prints; caricatures; maps; views of buildings and places, etc., with a minimum of imaginative work. The portraits are generally engraved and set in the text, but there are numerous and excellent photogravures, and the whole series is indexed with admirable particularity as to source. This history is now assured of a fresh lease of life.

Very dainty indeed and quite another affair for the reader's hand, are the two volumes of Thoreau's 'Cape Cod,' to which the same publishers give a holiday attire. The copious illustrations, nearly all marginal, are from water-color drawings by Amelia M. Watson, and no one familiar with the Cape will deny their characteristic fidelity. They are fairly to be called charming, as are the print and binding; and happily they are mostly "centred" on the page—that is, they square with the text, either above or below. We ask any one to judge whether typographic taste is not subserved better, say, by the offshore view at the head of p. 35, vol. ii., than by the trailing vine on the following pp. 54, 55, or by the diagonals of bayberry on pp. 136, 137, vol. i. But these eccentricities, for which, we suppose, the art of Japan is ultimately responsible, are comparatively few in number. The vignette on p. 30, vol. ii., pretty enough in itself, fails as an illustration, the sun setting over Provincetown (presumably); but if this be possible in nature, it is not what Thoreau saw—*his* sun "set in the Bay," and it seemed odd to him "that at the same moment the sun was setting behind our native hills, which were just below the horizon in that direction."

Mr. Gosse gives, in his introduction to a new edition of Carlyle's 'Heroes and Hero-Worship' (London and New York: Ward, Lock & Bowden), a surprising estimate of the extensive sale of this work in fifty-five years, without present abatement. This latest form of it therefore properly belongs to the series of "Nineteenth Century Classics," and is in all respects attractive to the eye and likely to enlist the curiosity of fresh readers. The frontispiece is after Millais's unfinished portrait.

Mr. Anning Bell's five designs give the chief distinction to Keble's 'Christian Year' as reissued by Methuen & Co., London (Philadelphia: Lippincott). They are simple, slightly archaic, and skilful, and harmonize well with the heavy black type and rubrication of the pretty volume.

The advent of a new and considerably larged edition of Prof. Cunningham's rowth of English Industry and Commerce during the Early and Middle Ages' (Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan), furnishes pleasing evidence of the increasing attention now paid to economic history, and of the author's just reputation and unflagging industry. There are innumerable slight corrections and additions; the treatment of several points, especially in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, has been amplified; and some conclusions of the earlier edition to which exception had been taken are restated with fresh evidence. On most points in dispute Prof. Cunningham abides by the opinions he has already expressed; but on the subject of the changes in craft gilds in the sixteenth century he tells us that he has "considerably modified" his view "in consequence of Prof. Ashley's recently published investigation." Oresme's "Tractatus de Origine Monetarum" is no longer reprinted in the appendix, but it is hinted that the Syndics of the Press may shortly issue it in a separate form. We trust that when it comes to be edited, due consideration will be given to Endemann's criticism of Roscher's eulogy. Among the welcome additions to the appendix may be noticed the Anglo-Saxon description of the duties of a Reeve (hitherto to be found only in *Anglia*), with a translation and notes contributed by Prof. Skeat. Whatever may be thought of Prof. Cunningham's general conclusions, the book is an inexhaustible mine of learning and suggestion, and arouses a feeling of personal gratitude in all serious students of the subject.

'American Book-Prices Current' for the year ending September 1, 1896, compiled by Luther S. Livingston and published in a limited edition of 600 copies by Dodd, Mead & Co., turns over a new leaf in respect of arrangement, which in the former and initial volume followed the English example. Grouping by sales is now discarded, but the books sold are alphabetized by author or (if anonymous) by title, with the date of sale affixed to each entry, while the index is of subjects, with classification. The compiler has especially catered to the present passion for American local history and genealogy. A wholly new feature is a section of autograph and manuscript sales, in a separate alphabet. As the minimum price considered is $3, it will be seen that these 7,500 lots embrace nearly everything which has auctionable value. Cincinnati sales have been added to those of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia—whether for the nonce or not remains to be seen. On the whole, one can but praise as improvements the changes we have briefly indicated. The work remains very useful for bibliographical reference in the whole field of literature in English.

'Syria from the Saddle,' by Albert Payson Terhune, published by Silver, Burdett & Co. of Boston, is a record of a trip through Palestine in the late autumn and early winter of 1893. Mr. Terhune entered the country by way of Beirut and Damascus. He travelled alone with a good dragoman, who provided for his comfort admirably, and he enjoyed himself thoroughly. His manifest enjoyment of what he did and what he saw is the one thing which makes the book readable, for he has absolutely nothing new to tell. He alludes frequently to the numerous weighty and uninteresting tomes which, as he alleges, have been written about Palestine, and in contrast with these he seeks to make his own book light. The result is a flippancy which ultimately becomes tedious. In his preface he says that he has tried "to glean a few great historical and sacred facts from the mass of foolish and priestly traditions that surround every landmark of the country." As he is quite ignorant of the history and archæology of the country, his gleanings are worthless and sometimes almost laughable. To illustrate his unfitness for such work, he seems to regard the word "Aryan" as synonymous with "Oriental," and accordingly classes the Syrians as Aryans. The book is well printed on good paper. The illustrations, which are numerous and very fair, are chiefly from photographs taken by the author.

Some nine years ago we reported the publication, then recent, of an elaborate Hindi treatise on the Differential Calculus. To its author, Mahâmahopâdhyâya Sudhâkara Dvivedî, who has since become Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in the Benares Sanskrit College, his fellow-countrymen are now indebted for a companion work, also in Hindi, on the Integral Calculus, bearing the imprint of the Government Press, Allahabad. Besides a preface and a minute table of contents, it occupies 443 generous pages. Its title, necessarily Sanskritic, is *Chala-râs'i kalana*. No mere translation or compilation, it propounds numerous new methods, with the claim of their being simplifications of those current among European mathematicians. One of these, in connection with which such accepted authorities as Todhunter, Williamson, Hymers, De Morgan, and De Moivre are taxed with operoseness, is stated at length in English. The volume concludes with much valuable matter on the Calculus of Variations and the Dynamics of a Particle. In the occupancy, by Pandit Sudhâkara, of the chair long so ably filled by the learned Bâpûdeva S'âstrî, the Benares College is conspicuously fortunate.

We have received the first two parts of a Lexicon Frisicum ('Friesch Woordenboek') planned to be exhaustive of the genuine living Frisian speech. We say *genuine*, for the so-called East Frisian Dictionary of Koolman is not a dictionary of Frisian but of the Low German which has encroached upon lands once part of Frisia. The present work is professedly a continuation and expansion of the Lexicon Frisicum of the late J. H. Halbertsma, which covered the alphabet *A—Feer*. The present editors are Dijkstra and Hettema, with whom is associated Winkler for proper names. The work is published by authority of the province of Frisia and the Upper Council of Holland. Definitions and explanations are in Dutch, with an occasional definition in Latin; thus, "âld, adj., *vetus, senescens*, oud." The two parts comprise 80 pages in double columns of ordinary words, ending with *bapekauwer*, and 64 pages of proper names, ending with *Dirk*. These figures will give some idea of the comprehensiveness of the whole work (in about 25 parts). The publishers are Meijer & Schaafsma, in Leeuwarden. James Parker & Co., Oxford, are agents for Great Britain and this country. The price of each part is two shillings. It is hardly necessary to say that we greet the new enterprise most cordially; it will be a valuable contribution to our knowledge of that speech which is probably most akin to our own. On some future occasion, when the work is farther advanced, we hope to speak more in detail of its special features. In the meanwhile we need only say that the names of the editors are a sufficient guarantee of scholarly method.

The domain of Keltic study is to be enriched with a new periodical by the side of the elder *Revue Celtique*. The present enterprise is entitled *Zeitschrift für Celtische Philolo-*

gie, under the editorship of Kuno Meyer and L. C. Stern (Halle: Niemeyer). We are indebted to David Nutt, London, for the first part (pp. 176). The periodical is to be at once scientific and cosmopolitan. The present part contains papers upon General Keltic Philology, upon Gaulish, Manx, Welsh, Breton, and Irish, written in German, French, and English. To give, within our narrow limits, even a slight notion of the range and value of the contents would be of course impossible. All the papers seem to us excellent and valuable, each paper in its own way. We are curious, however, to see whether the elder *Revue* is to maintain its existence in competition with the new *Zeitschrift*, or is to be merged in it. We anticipate the latter. In one feature certainly the *Zeitschrift* gives abundant evidence of editorial vigor: it is no small feat to have brought "under one roof" two such antagonists as Zimmer and Whitley Stokes.

On October 10, Holger Drachmann, the leading Danish poet and novelist, celebrated his fiftieth birthday and his twenty fifth "Author-Jubilee," as the Danes call it. On account of the illness of the poet, who is at present living in Hamburg, the public demonstrations were limited to the sending of an enormous number of telegrams from admirers in Europe and America, and the performance of two of his plays at the Royal Theatre in Copenhagen and at the Stadt Theatre in Altona. English readers, whose acquaintance with Drachmann is limited to one romance, will be surprised to learn that he is the author of no fewer than forty-six volumes of poems, dramas, novels, short stories, and sketches, and of two unpublished dramas. After devoting the first years of his manhood to marine painting, Drachmann suddenly discovered that he was a poet; his new talent finding expression in a volume of lyrics now for the first time republished. His most important novel is 'Forskrevet' (Condemned), which is largely autobiographical; his most attractive, though not his strongest, drama is the opera "Der var engang" (Once upon a Time), founded on Andersen's 'The Swineherd,' with music by Lange-Müller; his best poems and tales are those dealing with the sea. His verse has a splendid sweep like that of the ocean waves he loves to describe, and the waves are Danish waves. For, in spite of his wandering habits, Drachmann is as Danish as Holberg, with that combination of sweetness and strength which Norwegians mistake for weakness. With his great height, broad shoulders, and flashing eyes, Holger Drachmann looks like a true poet, though a poet of the Elizabethan rather than of the nineteenth-century type.

From Copenhagen is announced the death of Emil Christian Count Krag-Juel-Vind-Frijs, the greatest landowner in Denmark and at one time one of the leading Danish public men. Count Frijs was born December 8, 1817. In 1858 he entered the Rigsdag, and in 1865 became President of the Council, in which position he effected the constitutional changes that still obtain. His greatest service to his country, however, was rendered soon after his retirement in 1870, when he resisted public feeling, especially that of the capital, by preserving Denmark's neutrality in the Franco-Prussian war. How great and how difficult a service this was, no people can appreciate better than we Americans of this present Jingo period. But it was to his estate and his people that Frijs's energies were devoted; and his tenants, the majority of whom became independent landowners through his efforts, have always been among the most prosperous and contented in Denmark. Count Frijs was one of the very few persons outside of royalty on whom the order of the Elephant had been conferred.

—It will surprise no one who watches the signs of the times in the magazines to find that in the *Atlantic* for November the foreign and Western elements of our population are subjects uppermost with writers of papers of practical import. The cases which Jacob A. Riis has selected to illustrate, in his article "Out of the Book of Humanity," the burdens of pathetic destiny, are all taken not merely from the immigrant denizens of New York, but from that large portion of them to which our language is a foreign tongue. The German, as he appears in the steerage of an outward-bound ship, and the German-American, as he adds to or detracts from the spiritual as well as commercial welfare of the country, are sympathetically discussed by "Josiah Flynt." That the German-American, having slipped his moorings from a country where manners and etiquette are important, where Government bears heavily upon him, and where earnings are small, should be charged on the side of his losses with giving himself up to a "materialism more or less gross," and inclining to value life purely in dollars and cents, is not to be wondered at. That he, together with the shrewder Scandinavian, is safer than our Americans "in this day of crazes" is a verdict pronounced in his favor by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin, who, in a graphic paper on the "Causes of Agricultural Unrest," emphasizes the "satanic" skill with which the managers of the silver party, at first stealthily and secretly, and later with noise and open activity, have played upon the discontent of the wheat-farmer and cotton-grower. The developments special to agriculture radiating all over the world and narrowing in upon himself, our Western farmer has not the economic outlook to understand. Hence, and through no fault of his honesty, his present unholy political alliances. Methods of farming which have avoided agricultural ups and downs are described in William E. Smythe's "Utah as an Industrial Object-Lesson."

—How the Chinaman compares in the personal observation of a city missionary with other foreign contingents of the population of New York may be learned from an article in this month's *Century* by Helen F. Clark. Measured by the standards of races out of which citizens are promptly made, this "alien" has various points, in manners, in morals, and in the tone, even, of his amusements, to recommend him. To philanthropists, struggling with the vexed questions of humanity in asylums and penal institutions, he gives cause for gratitude, since he makes it a habit to keep out of these popular retreats and to look after his own poor. General Horace Porter enters in this number upon his reminiscences of campaigning with General Grant. To the eulogy with which his memoirs are introduced in an "Editorial Preface" it would be difficult to find anything fresh to add. "Why the Confederacy Failed" is a paper recommended by the strength of personal conviction and the liveliness with which it is written, whether or not the reader may be disposed to find other causes of failure than the three here given, viz., the excessive issue of paper money, the policy of dispersing troops along an extended frontier, and the neglect of the cavalry. Serial stories are begun by Dr. Weir Mitchell and Marion Crawford, and Boutet de Monvel contributes illustrations of the life of Joan of Arc. But the intrinsic value of the number is centred in Prof. G. E. Woodberry's sonnet-series, "America and England, 1895 1896," in which a grave political theme is warmed and elevated to a high poetic level.

—In *Harper's Magazine* a profitable subject for reflection is brought forward by Prof. Woodrow Wilson's treatment of the character and bearing of "The First President of the United States." This is the dignity with which Washington, although so glad to resign his high office, strenuously surrounded it while he held it; a Governor of Massachusetts, a French Minister, and factions of the people themselves in headlong haste to espouse the cause of the French Revolution, being among those who fell back before the authority they found hedging the President of a republic. There is reason to hope that in the downward plunge from Washington's ideals to the tainted conceptions of the present the lowest depth has been reached. The moral to be drawn from this last of Prof. Wilson's increasingly interesting series of biographical studies is reinforced by Poultney Bigelow, whose first investigations, undertaken in the interest of readers of *Harper's*, of "White Man's Africa," disclose the not unparalleled fact that, "in the memory of the oldest inhabitant of Cape Town, such a thing as an American Consul who could keep sober after twelve o'clock noon was too seldom known"; large interests, not merely at the Cape, but throughout South Africa being nevertheless at the mercy of the Consul. Thomas A. Janvier, delightfully at home in the voluble atmosphere of Marseilles, has needed for the weaving of his picturesque story, "The Fish of M. Quissard," nothing more than trifles light as air, since it is in the artistic manner of doing more than in the thing done that the charm of this bit of human comedy is to be found.

—In the current *Scribner's*, Capt. C. J. Melliss of the Bombay Infantry draws again on his excellent repertory of sporting adventures in the jungle. The several yarns he now spins of panthers bagged in the sweat of the brow in central India deserve to be punctuated by the applause of after-dinner audiences, to which it is a pity they should be lost. Some masterly illustrations of the wily game are Evert Van Muyden's conspicuous share in the success of these stories in article form. Other adventures, involving the hardships of an exploring expedition in frozen Alaska and the British Northwest Territory, are described in an article by Frederick Funston, "Over the Chilkoot Pass to the Yukon," to which a kodak has supplied the basis for illustrations. Illustrations *ad libitum* accompany M. H. Spielmann's article on the "Renaissance of Lithography," but the rewards attending a perusal of the text are inappreciable. Equally unproductive of anything more than a brushing of the skirts of information is a reading of Mary Gay Humphrey's "Women Bachelors in New York," and, with the exception of Wolcott Le Cléar Beard's tale of an Arizona hero, "Specs," search among the short stories brings nothing noticeable to light. An article on "What America Has Done for Whist" will probably find numerous readers among the votaries of Mrs. Battle's noble art.

—Mrs. Bain gives utterance in *Mind* to a thesis which would seem not to need her eloquent presentation of it to secure immediate acceptance—namely, that nothing would con-

duce more to progress in well-being than the establishment of lecture-courses on ethics from a purely practical standpoint. Leaving aside religious considerations, which are already sufficiently well presented from the pulpit, the basis of desirable conduct on which all can unite is the production of happiness in the long run for as many as can be made happy, ourselves included. But there are countless questions, both in private life and in politics, in regard to which the man of action, who cannot give his days and his nights to thinking out long trains of consequences, might be immensely assisted if he could listen to frequent and full discussion of all the consequences of conduct, so far as the good and wise men of the time are able to make them out. And not only a wider knowledge of consequences, but a vivifying of his sympathy for the pains and pleasures of others, would result from seeing how they are regarded by men of feelings deeper than his own. Why should the religious person alone have the advantage of being pleaded with in the interest of more self-sacrificing conduct than he inclines to of his own accord? Why should the newspapers, which, with a few scattered exceptions, are below rather than above the average moral tone of the community, be our only regularly constituted secular instructors in the art of conduct? The only objection to the scheme proposed, aside from the fact that no benevolent rich man has yet arisen who has wished to endow such courses of lectures and discussions, may be put in the words of the poacher who said, in reply to the clergyman who asked him why he did not go to church, "I already knows more than I does." But, in spite of this far-reaching drawback, it cannot be doubted that, for all who are not inherently incapable of sympathizing with their fellow-men, the amplest demonstration of how conduct, directly and indirectly, may injure and benefit others, will do all that can be done (however slow may be the progress) in the direction of moralization.

—The *Revue Encyclopédique* of October 10 contains a brief notice of Miss Ellen Key, a Swedish lady who has attracted much attention in her native land by her efforts to ameliorate the condition of workingmen. Jointly with Dr. Anton Nyström, she founded the Workingmen's Institute of Sweden, which now owns a handsome building in Stockholm and branch establishments in all the provincial towns. It has courses of lectures, by the most distinguished literary and scientific authorities of the country, on historical, philosophical, scientific and literary subjects, adapted to the comprehension of laboring men, who attend in large numbers. Swedish literature is the topic treated by Miss Key, who, in addition to her philanthropic labors, has done not a little literary work, publishing a number of books, chiefly on sociological themes. One of her writings is a biography of Anne Charlotte Leffler, Duchess of Caianello, who is widely known through her sketch of the life of Sophie Kovalevsky. Miss Key is a sort of lay confessor of the working classes, who come in crowds every Sunday to her modest lodging to consult her on every possible question, from their family tiffs to their controversies about wages. She is a believer in Socialism for Sweden, but only as a transitional means to larger ends. She desires the abolition of private property and the enfranchisement of women, but the idea of a machine society is deeply repugnant to her. She believes in individualism somewhat like that professed by Nietzsche.

—The inaugural sessional address given on October 20 at Manchester College, Oxford, was this year characteristically assigned to Mr. Claude Montefiore, who announced himself boldly, but not without a flavor of enjoyment in certain mediæval associations of the phrase, as an "unconverted Jew." His topic was "Unitarianism and Judaism in their relations to each other," and it soon appeared that the Judaism he had in mind was reformed or liberal Judaism. Judaism of this sort, then, needed to learn from Unitarianism that the unity of God may be considered metaphysically rather than as a mere denial of plurality. Again, Mr. Montefiore argued that "Jews might join hands with Unitarians in a common determination, to the advantage of both, to find out the truth, so far as it still can be found, about Jesus and the New Testament." Here the speaker touched upon a hope that some day there might be at Oxford a School of Judaic Theology parallel to Manchester and Mansfield. Though he deemed this an impossible dream, it seems less so now that the Duke of Norfolk and others are actually building a Roman Catholic college at Oxford. The identity of attitude between Reformed Judaism and Unitarianism certainly appeared in Montefiore's striking peroration: "We, too," he exclaimed, "must have our saints, as well as the Orthodox; and let us remember—perhaps the modern Reformed Jew needs to remember this more than yourselves—that no saint ever confused reason with God. Our liberal forms of faith are on their trial; let us attempt to prove their power. Without an infallible Church, without an infallible Book, without an infallible Law, let us ardently proclaim in word, and humbly seek to show forth in deed, that men may still live and work, realizing God's presence, and loving Him with all their heart, with all their soul, and with all their might."

MUTHER'S HISTORY OF MODERN PAINTING.

The History of Modern Painting. By Richard Muther, Professor of Art History at the University of Breslau, late Keeper of the Prints at the Munich Pinakothek. Macmillan Co. 1896. 3 vols., imperial octavo. Pp. 2,304. More than 1,300 illustrations.

It is hard to imagine a more difficult subject for historical treatment than that which Prof. Muther has chosen—the painting of the nineteenth century. That painting has developed so many opposing "tendencies," divided itself into so many "schools," taken part in such various "movements," that it seems a very chaos—a labyrinth without a clue. Yet a clue the historian must find, some thread of logical development running through the mingled skein he must succeed in disentangling, if he is to write a history at all and not a mere catalogue of artists "with some observations upon their works." The chief merit of the present work—and it has many and great merits as well as grave faults—is that Prof. Muther has found such a main thread of development, and has succeeded fairly well in following it through its myriad windings.

This line of development of modern painting which Prof. Muther has set himself to trace is, in a word, the slow reconquest of nature and the gradual loosening of the bonds with which the "classical revival" had bound art. The history of modern painting properly begins with Giorgione. Spanish and Flemish painting was founded upon Venetian, and the English painting of the eighteenth century was founded upon the Flemish, as was the charming art of Watteau. Then came Winckelmann and Carstens and David, and the hands of the clock were set back upon the dial, and painting, everywhere but in England, denied its birthright. In England alone a healthy naturalism continued to exist, and it is with the English painters of the eighteenth century that Prof. Muther begins his history. Reynolds, in spite of his idealistic theory, remained in his art a painter of portraits. Hogarth was the father of modern genre, and Gainsborough, by far the most artistic temperament of them all, founded the school of English landscape which was destined to revolutionize French painting and that of the world.

First came the Romantic revolution, which, in subject, dethroned the Greeks and Romans and substituted for them the men of the Middle Ages, and in technic reconquered color. The school of Fontainebleau began the serious study of landscape, and Millet set man in nature, and, in his peasant figures, brought the modern man into art. What he did for the peasant, the illustrators and Courbet first did for the man of the town. Finally came Manet and the impressionists, with the analysis of light, and the last shackle was struck from the limbs of painting. Art was free to occupy itself with any subject-matter and to develop any manner that suited the idiosyncrasy of the individual artist, and the time was now ripe for a "new idealism," which should interpret the mind of the nineteenth century instead of docilely imitating the methods of past ages.

Prof. Muther's qualifications for tracing the history of this evolution are many. His point of view is perhaps the only one from which such a history could be written, that of a convinced advocate of modernity. His knowledge is vast and his taste is catholic. As a German he is inclined to give more space to the history of painting in Germany than men of other nationalities would be likely to think its due, but it is rarely that he can be accused of undue enthusiasm for German art. No one could be more severe in judgment upon Cornelius, Kaulbach and the other German idealists than he; and the importance of the painting of France in modern art-history is duly recognized. He is not, however, exempt from the defects of his qualities, and his method leads him to be sometimes unjust to those painters who were not directly part of the movement he is chronicling. That a painter "brought nothing new" to the development of art is often, with him, that painter's sufficient condemnation. Now systematizing is all very well, and it is instructive to remark on the historical significance of this or that artist; but, on the whole, the *artistic* importance of a painter is not the same as the historic. A painter may have been a great influence, and so have an historical importance which the success of his own work would hardly justify, while another may have had little or no influence upon his contemporaries or successors, and yet have produced work which, however far it may lie outside the main stream of development, is of an essential quality that insures his immortality. An instance of the first of these types is Édouard Manet, a painter who rarely reached his own ideal, whose work is fragmentary and, on the whole, unsuccessful, but whose influence was

and still is far-reaching and profound. An instance of the second type is Prudhon, to whom, perhaps, Prof. Muther is not unjust, and another is Baudry, towards whom his injustice is noticeable. For it cannot be too clearly understood that the final question about any artist is not, Was he in sympathy with the spirit of his time, or did he greatly influence his successors? but simply, Did he do work of essential beauty, in whatever manner, and which is worthy of the attention of mankind? Judged by this test, Prudhon and Baudry are both among the immortals, and it may be safely prophesied that they will ever be reckoned among the glories of the century.

Another result of Prof. Muther's method is some confusion of chronology. We believe his idea of the main stream of tendency is correct, but individuals have an awkward way of refusing by their dates to fit into his general scheme. Of course the various schools overlap in a puzzling way, and realists and idealists insist on being born when they were least to be looked for. Some painters have taken part in many different movements, and thus the account of the work of Lessing is scattered through two volumes and that of the work of Menzel through three. The Pre-Raphaelite movement in England being considered mainly as a movement toward realism, its history has to be written with scarce any reference to Rossetti, who appears by himself in the last book, devoted to the "new idealism." It is in this book that the strangest freaks of chronology appear, for it begins with Blake, who died in 1828, before the Romantic revolution had begun, and names as the four great exponents of the movement to-day Gustave Moreau, Puvis de Chavannes, Arnold Boecklin, and Burne-Jones, three of whom are veterans of seventy years of age, and the youngest of whom only continues the work of Rossetti, who was born within two years of the other three. Yet is Prof. Muther indisputably right, and these veterans, who have quietly ignored the strife of the schools, and have each gone his own way regardless of others, are the representatives to-day of the art of the future. It is evident that the full completion of the naturalistic evolution was not necessary to render their work possible, but it was perhaps necessary to make it understood and welcomed. They were before their time, not of it, and those who thought they were leading the procession have only now come up with this advanced guard, whom they had thought behind them.

Apart from this perhaps inevitable confusion, a work of so vast a scope must needs show inequalities of execution. In books i. and ii., "The Legacy of the Eighteenth Century" and "The Escape into the Past," the facts were already pretty well digested, and there is small criticism to make. Book iii., "The Victory of the Moderns," is mainly good, though one feels that the categories are somewhat elastic, and that system has sometimes made strange bedfellows. In book iv., "The Painters of Life," the vast output of the painting of to-day is attempted to be arranged by countries; France, Spain, Italy, England, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Russia, America, and Germany being given each a chapter. No man knows this output well enough to give any clear view of it, and here the book drops necessarily into the catalogue vein. Name follows name with no sense conveyed of relative importance or real significance. The book becomes quite unreadable, a mere cyclopædia useful for reference only. In the last book, "The New Idealism," things become better again, and the history moves to a comprehensible conclusion.

The chief fault of the book, however, is its inordinate length. It is not only what the French call an *œuvre de longue haleine;* it may fairly be called in English a long-winded work. Again and again a simple thought looms through a haze of words; again and again, with truly German laboriousness, the Professor says in three pages what might be said better in three sentences. His ponderous volumes are a trial to the spirit and a weariness to the flesh, and one wishes with all one's heart that the work might be written over again by a Frenchman with his countrymen's knack of clear and concise statement. An abridgment would hardly be possible, because the dilution of phrase is so constant that nothing could be cut out without destroying the meaning. There may be six words where one would answer, but none of the six is that one, and it takes all the six to say anything whatever. The explanations are endless, and the descriptions, which too often take the place of real criticism, intolerably verbose. It is here that one feels the lack of technical knowledge which is the gravest handicap of the literary critic of art. When we would have a clear description of the methods of a painter, of his pictorial aims, and the means he has chosen for their attainment, of his accomplishments and shortcomings, we get only a disquisition on his subject-matter and his sentiment. What we are told of the sentiment is generally true, and what is said of the subject-matter is obvious; but we would give pages of such writing for a few lines of that technical insight which only a very few writers, most of them painters themselves, have ever possessed.

One whole chapter of the book might have been omitted, and no harm done—that on Japanese art. That modern painting has been more or less influenced by the introduction into Europe of Japanese prints is indubitable, but all that is to be said on this subject might be comprised in a page or two. A short and clear account of just what the influence of Japanese art has been and how it has modified European painting, would have been welcome. This we do not get, but in place of it is an elaborate history of Japanese painting, with long lists of names and dates which, like the flowers that bloom in the spring, "have nothing to do with the case." It is a pure *hors d'œuvre*, and the book was long enough, in all conscience, without it.

As to mere statement of fact, it is impossible that so vast a work should be impeccable. It is equally impossible that any one critic or a legion of critics should be in a position to control the truth of each statement. A few mistakes we have noted which we submit for the consideration of the author for a new edition which is pretty sure to be called for. Reynolds was not a baronet, but a knight; there is no evidence that Angelica Kauffmann ever "declined his hand," or had the opportunity to do so; and his discourses were not delivered at the "dinners of the Academy" (i., p. 35). David's picture in the Louvre is not of the "Rape of the Sabines" (i., p. 164), but of "The Sabine Women" interfering in a battle between their husbands and their fathers and brothers. Should not Millet's "Man with the Hatchet" (i., p. 190) be Man with a Hoe? "Great heroes" (i., p. 324) should evidently be "Gros's heroes," but this is a mistake of the translator's. Delacroix's "Tasso" is wrongly described (i., p. 352), though the picture is reproduced on p. 351. "The Death of Marat" was far from the "first" picture of Baudry (i., p. 420). This curious use of the words "first picture" occurs more than once. Baudry's "Punishment of a Vestal" is so far from being "a reminiscence of 'The Death of Peter Martyr'" (i., p. 422) that it bears not the slightest resemblance to that celebrated masterpiece. If Toudouze painted a picture of the "Fall of Sodom" with "Lot's wife, dying and half consumed by fire" (i., p. 430), he was singularly untrue to the Biblical story. Corot's friends did not bring him, "in the hour of death," the medal which was struck for him, nor did he "pass away" with the words quoted (ii., p. 425). They were spoken at a banquet at the Hôtel Drouot in 1874, and Corot did not die until the 23d of February, 1875. In the quotation from Millet (ii., p. 498, seventh line from the bottom) *que* must have been omitted before "*de la nature.*" Millet can hardly have painted a picture of "cows coming down to drink *at the sea*"! (ii., p. 499). Carolus Duran was not born "across the Flemish border," but in France (at Lille), and it is misleading to speak of "Léon Bonnat, the pupil of Madrazos," to say nothing of the final *s* (ii., p. 547). The passage of Ruskin referred to (ii., p. 573) and the cartoon of Raphael both deal with "the charge to Peter" and not with Christ's walking upon the water. It is far from true that Turner never sold any pictures (iii., p. 631). Finally, Mr. Whistler cannot have been born both in Baltimore, as stated in the text, and in Lowell, Mass., as correctly stated in the Index of Artists; and even his taste for "arrangements" never led him to do peacocks with "blue tail-feathers and iridescent golden plumage around the necks" (iii., p. 662).

The translation of the first volume is by Messrs. Ernest Dawson, George Arthur Greene, and Arthur Cecil Hillier, that of the second and third volumes by Mr. Hillier alone. We should judge it to be faithful, but it is seldom either elegant or idiomatic, and is occasionally unintelligible. The illustrations are abundant, generally well chosen, and fairly satisfactory in execution. It is strange, since Watteau is dealt with at all, that only one of his pictures is reproduced, and that one an early and entirely uncharacteristic example. As a final summing up, we may say that the book is the best, so far as we know, that has yet appeared on the subject, but it is by no means a definitive work, or one that need, by its quality, discourage others from attempting the task.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Augustine Birrell, in addition to being an essayist and humorist, is also a member of Parliament and a barrister. His 'Duties and Liabilities of Trustees' (Macmillan) is a little volume of 183 pages, containing six lectures, recently delivered in the Inner Temple at the request of the Council of Legal Education. They are intended chiefly for law students, but still more, perhaps, for trustees who are not lawyers—themselves a large class. The book is primarily for English readers, and this fact makes part of it inapplicable to this country, as important changes in the law of trusts have recently been introduced by Parliament. With this qualification, however, Mr. Birrell's handbook is an excellent exposition of the fundamental principles of the duties and liabilities of trustees as they exist on both sides of the Atlantic. Lawyers are familiar enough with the rules; but they ought to be understood by the laity as well, and that they are not is

not due to any want of inherent simplicity or intelligibility. Mr. Birrell in fact shows that trustees' duties in England may be all summed up in nine rules, the observance of which by any trustee will absolve him from any necessity of inquiry into what his liabilities may be. These duties are, first, to make himself acquainted with the terms of his trust; second, to bear them in mind; third, never to depart from them; fourth, to take as much care of the trust property as a prudent man would of his own; fifth, to invest in nothing except what the trust-instrument or the *rules of law* permit; sixth, to give those beneficially interested such information as to the trust funds as they may from time to time require, and to render accounts; seventh, not to make a sixpence of profit out of the trust business except in so far as he is expressly authorized to do so; eighth, to coöperate in a reasonable spirit with co-trustees, to consult with them about all matters connected with the trust, and *to retire on being requested to do so by all concerned;* ninth, as to any question of difficulty, to take the opinion of the judge in chambers. This last is under a recent English statute which puts it in the power of a trustee to obtain a summary decision on difficult points. The first eight rules, however, contain the substance of a trustee's ordinary duties, and they are really nothing more than the application of the fundamental requirements of prudence and honesty to the questions which grow out of the relation of trustee and beneficiary.

One of the most important rules is the seventh. In the case of the others, self-interest dictates their observance; but the principle that a position of trust cannot be used for a trustee's own profit is at once a rule on which the whole business of trusts rests, and one which is at war with the trustee's self-interest. It is a striking illustration of the fact that the law of trusts is merely an application of the moral law, that a judgment of a great lawyer, cited by Mr. Birrell, is perhaps as simple and clear a statement of what the honest discharge of duty means as has ever been made. "The rule really is, that no one who has a duty to perform shall place himself in a situation to have his interests conflicting with that duty." A trustee, for instance, as to acts which he might employ others to perform, must employ others, and not first employ and then pay himself, for it is his duty to watch the employees, and decide upon the propriety of their charges; and experience teaches us that no man is fit to be a judge in his own case. Lord Cranworth's rule is the golden rule of honesty, without which trusts could not exist. One of the most certain marks of a high state of civilization is the increasing opportunities it affords to the thrifty and the benevolent to place property on such a footing that the law will stand guard over the administrator of it, and help him by a stern code of retribution to remember to avoid temptation. For the code is, as Mr. Birrell points out, very strict. No one whose property is in trust can complain that the law is lax. Generally, when beneficiaries meet with losses it is due to their own lack of care in supervising or inquiring into the doings of their trustees, or of carelessness on the part of a trustee in leaving everything to a co-trustee.

Mr. Birrell gives an interesting account of recent changes by statute which have been introduced in England, and some of which will undoubtedly sooner or later be copied here. One of them we have already mentioned. Another is the fixing of a statutory period of limitations, so that in cases of honest breaches of trust—*i. e.*, mistakes in investments, etc.—the beneficiary, to recover, must sue within six years, as in the case of any other loss of money. The statute is not allowed to apply, however, if the trustee still have the proceeds of the breach of trust, or has converted them to his own use, for, as the author very justly observes, the fact that the beneficiary has been out of his property for six years is no reason of itself why he should be kept out of it for ever. The proper case for a bar is where the property is gone through an innocent mistake or imprudence, and the question is, on which of two innocent parties shall the loss fall. Here there is no hardship in requiring a suit within a fixed time.

'A Handbook to the Labor Law of the United States,' by F. J. Stimson (Charles Scribner's Sons), is an extremely valuable compilation of law as well as guide to the principles which govern the relation of laborer and employer. It is intended chiefly for laboring men and labor organizations, though a knowledge of what it contains is equally important to employers; while it is lawyers who will really find it indispensable. It explains the elementary principles governing the contract for labor; the effect of the constitutional guarantees relating to it; the police power; the statutory regulation of hours of labor; restrictions in children's and women's labor; fines for imperfect work; company stores; piece-work; strikes; boycotts; trade-unions, and a great variety of other subjects. Mr. Stimson writes law in such a way that it can not only be studied, but read—a rare gift, and one which only sound lawyers, and very few of those, possess. Most of the trouble caused by the labor problem is produced by pure ignorance, and if an additional labor law could be passed compelling every one before he undertakes to discuss labor questions or agitate for any new labor reform to read this handbook, we are satisfied that there would be a saving of a very considerable percentage of the annual pecuniary loss to the country which comes from useless strikes and boycotts. One of the things which labor agitators seem to have the greatest difficulty in getting into their heads is that they live under a government of *law;* that constitutional law means a system of uniform rules, governing all alike, making the right to contract equally free for the laborer and his employer, and prohibiting unlawful interference with freedom of contract as much in one case as in the other. Consequently, when they get statutes passed to protect Labor against Capital, it generally turns out in the end, to their utter amazement, that they have also protected Capital against Labor. The Anti-Trust act of 1890 was, as Mr. Stimson points out, probably passed only to prevent combinations among employers; but it necessarily applies, on the principles just stated, to any combination or conspiracy in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, no matter whether among employers or laborers; if it did not, it would not be constitutional, for it would be a gross invasion of the most elementary rules of common right guaranteed by the Constitution. Consequently, the courts have been forced to hold that the prohibition would include combinations to tie up railroads by means of a strike, especially when taken in connection with the words of the Interstate Commerce act—another statute designed to operate against Capital, but which, for the same reason, has turned out to be a help to railroad companies against strikers (p. 337).

A 'Handbook on the Law of Bailments and Carriers,' by William B. Hale (West Publishing Co.), is the latest addition to the rapidly multiplying Hornbook Series. This series, and the 'Cyclopædia of English and American Law,' seem to show that we are now on the verge of the Trust period of legal writing; already, in the case of very important publications, the motive power, instead of being furnished by the learning of men like Coke, Kent, Story, or Cooley, is supplied by the capital of a "hustling" publisher, who gathers together, under the comfortable shelter of his copyright, the younger limbs of the law, and, through their ready pens, supplies a regular flow of "up-to-date" jurisprudence. We can see nothing to prevent a glorious "combine" of such capitalists, which should have the aim of doing perennially for the modern world in this novel way what Justinian, in his ignorance, attempted to do for the Roman world once for all. There is no doubt that the system tends to keep down competition and expenses. Mr. Hale's book is a creditable performance, accurate where we have had an opportunity of verifying his law, and well filled with cases. The rules of law are fairly well stated; the definition of bailment itself does not seem to us especially successful. The conception of contract is not mentioned, and redelivery or delivery over is put down as essential. Memoirs or papers are intrusted by A B to C D, in contemplation of death, on the understanding that in a certain event they are to be destroyed. Is not this a bailment?

Mr. W. B. Hale's 'Handbook on the Law of Damages' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) aims at stating, explaining, and illustrating "with elementary clearness and accuracy all the rules and principles governing the award of damages in civil cases," for the use of students as well as practitioners. Mr. Hale thinks that "much confusion" has been caused

> "by the loose and unscientific use of terms both by law writers and in judicial opinions. This is notably true with regard to nominal damages. That subject has been made almost unintelligible by the lack of consistency and precision in the use of the terms 'wrong' and 'damage.' The notions embraced in these words have been very carefully analyzed in the first chapter. The fundamental nature of legal rights and wrongs has been looked at from a new point of view; and while no new theories are advanced, it is hoped that the subject has been made clearer. The question of damages in actions for injuries to land by the erection of permanent structures, upon which the courts are almost hopelessly confused, has also been looked at from the point of view established in the first chapter, and it is hoped that the results there reached will be helpful."

We have examined the book carefully to see what Mr. Hale's new point of view is, and, if we understand him, it consists of a new analysis of legal wrongs, which he sums up as follows: "A legal wrong is committed whenever (*a*) conduct which is either (1) forbidden, (2) malicious, (3) negligent, or (4) done at peril, (*b*) result in damage which may be either (1) actual or (2) presumed." Under this classification, what are ordinarily called nominal damages become damages conclusively presumed. But whether we say that if A trespass on B's lands, B has a right to recover nominal damages in any case, or that damage is conclusively presumed, the meaning is precisely the same, while there is a serious objection to the theory of a conclusive presump-

tion in the fact that there is no authority for it. The whole classification is misleading, as can be seen by looking at what the author says about damage caused by a permanent structure (*e. g.*, public works, such as railroads): "Reverting to first principles for a moment, the whole matter becomes clear. If the structure is expressly authorized, there is no liability for the damage necessarily resulting." But this is not the law. A railroad roundhouse, a permanent structure expressly authorized by law, is built near a church, and becomes by means of the noise and smoke produced a nuisance to the congregation. The church may recover damages. This was decided by the Supreme Court of the United States in the well-known Fifth Baptist Church case, cited by Mr. Hale in another part of his book, and the principle adopted underlies the elevated-railroad cases in this State as does also the maxim, *Sic utere tuo ut alienum non lædas.*

Mr. Hale's view of the subject is also defective from his failure to insist more emphatically upon the distinction which every one who has ever tried a jury case knows to be at the threshold of the subject—that between tort and contract. This is not the question of the form of the action (all writers are agreed that this has become a matter of little or no consequence), but of the *nature of the injury.* There are some actions as to which it is hard to say whether the injury complained of is a tort or breach of contract, or both at once; so there are organisms in the physical world which it is difficult to classify as either animal or vegetable. We do not, however, therefore say that the distinction between animal and vegetable is unimportant; neither can we ever discuss the right to redress an injury from assault and battery in the same terms as we discuss the right to damages for non-payment of a promissory note. The legal conceptions are different because the injuries produced by a blow on the head are different in kind from those produced by a violation of a promise to pay money. We hardly think that Mr. Hale's analysis of the subject of damages can be considered safe; the book, however, is very full of authorities, and the practitioner will find it useful.

Mr. John R. Rood's 'Treatise on Garnishment' (West Publishing Company) is a book of more than six hundred pages, and cites nearly four thousand cases. The author's preface declares that "the day of the commentator is past"; when a point of law arises nowadays "we want the authorities upon it. We want them all. We want them quick. . . . We have no time to read the fine-spun theories of the text-writer who takes us on an observation-excursion all over the subject in a balloon." Holding these views, the author has in general wisely refrained from expressing opinions of his own; his effort has been simply to state the cases intelligibly, and classify them conveniently, and in this he seems to be successful. Comparing it with the latest edition of Waples on 'Attachment and Garnishment,' it seems to have many cases not referred to by the latter writer.

Mr. Walton Denton Smith's 'Manual of Elementary Law' (West Publishing Co.) is intended as "an introduction to the study of the law." As the author is an instructor in the Law Department of the University of Michigan, it is, we suppose, his design that students should use it under his direction. This may account for the fact that it can hardly be understood without the aid of much additional exposition; for the legal public at large it is deficient in cases and too much like a hasty draft of a scheme of study. Under these circumstances the vice which taints most of this whole Hornbook Series—that of ill-considered statement of rules of law—is not likely to be conspicuous for its absence. *Stare decisis,* for instance, is said to require that a "rule of law," once "recognized by the courts and applied to a case," "forms a precedent" and should be followed in "all similar cases," unless "*flatly absurd or unjust,*" or repealed by legislation. The rule may, for all we know, have been stated in this form before, but it is certainly very misleading. A precedent is a *case,* and it is not at all necessary that the decision of a case should contain any explicit rule of law. Our law books are filled with precedents which consist of nothing more than a statement of the facts of the controversy followed by the judgment of the court, which is an order or command that certain specific acts be done or refrained from by somebody. The rule of *stare decisis* requires that if *those precise facts* (not similar cases) arise again, the same judgment should follow, because it is important that the law should be as stable as possible, and that those affected by it should be able to know their rights in advance. The rule of law involved in the decision is a matter of inference, and it may be explicitly stated by the judge, but even he may state it wrongly, and this continually happens, as we see every day in cases reversed on appeal for legal error committed by the judge in the course of a trial. A rule, to be binding, must be recognized by the *final court of appeal,* as inferrible from a case or cases; but even here no rule may be laid down, and the judgment may take the form of a particular command only. It is none the less a precedent. No doubt if the rule turns out to be flatly absurd or unjust, judges may modify it, and this they constantly do, sometimes going so far as to overrule it, but this is generally on the ground that some fact was overlooked in making the inference, or that some fact exists in the case before them which makes this rule inapplicable—in other words, that the cases are not "on all fours." *Stare decisis* is a rule of common sense. The extraordinary importance attached to it in our system is probably due to the pains we take to discriminate fact and law, and this again to trial by jury; but without the rule that decisions must be followed, no law could exist at all.

Volume viii. of the publications of the Selden Society (London: Bernard Quaritch), edited by Prof. F. W. Maitland, contains select passages from the works of Bracton and his master Azo. Volume ix. contains select cases from the Coroners' Rolls A. D. 1265-1413, with a brief account of the history of the office of Coroner, edited by Prof. Chas. Gross of Harvard. The latter are extraordinarily modern and monotonous. Prof. Gross makes it clear that very little is known about the origin of the Coroner's office; it was probably Norman, and yet within our knowledge it has always been elective. The Coroner's function was undoubtedly to look after the Crown's business, and this covered not merely inquiry into sudden and violent deaths, but a wide range of criminal matters and even of civil pleas. The case of John of Barford (p. 21) seems to cover assault with intent to kill, highway robbery, and mayhem. It is all brought before the Coroner in the County Court of Bedford, Nov. 2, 1271. The defendant Simon is "exacted" three times without his appearing. On the fourth time (March 21, 1272) he finds bail. The whole proceeding is for the purpose of making sure that a trial shall be had, and this, on the surface of the matter, would seem to be the connecting link between the functions of the Coroner acting in such a case and his functions in the case of an ordinary inquest, in which he inquires into a death solely because there is some reason to suspect violence, and because, if so, a trial should follow.

Mr. Maitland's parallel passages from the works of Bracton and Azo, the great Bolognese civilian, are an important contribution to the study of the common law. The position of Bracton as a father of English law has long been unquestioned, but the nature and extent of his work in sowing the seed of Roman law in English jurisprudence has been a matter of much question. Reeves declared that all the Roman law which Bracton transferred would not fill three whole pages of his book. A later generation of critics found in Bracton's work proof that much of our common law is Roman in origin; Sir Henry Maine went a step further and said, in his 'Ancient Law,' that Bracton had "put off" on his countrymen as pure English law a compendium of which the entire form and a third of the contents were directly borrowed from the Corpus Juris. Mr. Maitland shows that he did not take the trouble to borrow directly from the Corpus Juris when he could borrow directly from Azo, but that Maine's indictment is greatly exaggerated. All the passages taken from the Corpus Juris might be printed on ten of the 444 folios; what he took from Azo may amount to a fifteenth of the whole. Further, he was no instructed Romanist at all, and his abstract was "not a good intelligent abstract of Azo's text." The sum and substance of the whole matter is that the part of Bracton which is really valuable is the English part, and that he did extremely little to Romanize the English law. As to "putting off," he does not seem open to the charge of representing the Romanesque part of his book to be his own, for he refers the readers to his sources; while, if he used materials which did not belong to him, it must be remembered that printing had not been invented, books had no commercial value, and every lawyer of Henry III.'s time copied from his predecessors, as he expected in his turn to be himself copied. The notes scattered through the volume are full of learning. We may notice, as bearing on a point much discussed in the courts of late years, the note at p. 217 on the father's or master's right to sue for injury to members of what Romans called the *familia.* Bracton tells us that the formula in common use in his day was "so that I would not have suffered that damage for so many shillings or that *shame* for so many." This seems to be an indication that there is nothing in the principles of the English law to exclude damage for mental suffering, in a proper case.

Mr. Leonard A. Jones's 'Treatise on the Law of Real Property' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the seventh legal work published by that author, all dealing with property law—a subject which, within certain limits, he has made his own. His aim is practical, and accordingly, in the present volumes, he confines himself to the law as applied between vendor and purchaser, and more particularly to estates in fee and their transfer by deed. Mr. Jones is not only learned and accurate, but unusually modest as to his own performances. His Table of Cases shows that he has cited more than 15,000 decisions, and as the same case is constantly cited to several points, a

in which it is of deep importance," for we cannot help thinking that Prof. Taussig has given entirely too great prominence to the bearing of the wages-fund theory on the question of "market" or temporary wages as compared with its bearing on normal wages. The conclusion at which Prof. Taussig arrives on the subject of the elasticity of the wages fund is that the fund is roughly predetermined, but that it is elastic within limits so wide as to make the predetermination of no great importance in practical economic discussion.

The examination of the history of the wages-fund theory is full of interest and instructiveness. We find the imperfections of author after author pointed out, and see again and again how the unguarded expressions of great writers have been made the basis either of wrong conclusions on the one hand, or of profitless wrangling on the other, by their successors. One of the best traits in Prof. Taussig's criticism is that it is never supercilious, flippant, or acrimonious—qualities that are, unfortunately, displayed in great abundance by some of the younger economists of Great Britain. His criticisms are so delicately balanced that it is impossible to indicate without inaccuracy, in a brief review, his position in relation to the various writers whom he discusses. This part of the work, unlike the expository part, is "addressed more particularly to special students of economic theory," and even they will have to keep their wits about them if they would retain their grasp on all the fine distinctions that are made. It is sometimes rather dizzy work, and the not too clever reader will feel a little consolation in noting a curious blunder of the author's, which may fairly be ascribed to the strain of the hair-splitting work he is engaged in. The following passage (p. 305) flies in the face of the logical rule, which "every schoolboy" knows, that *All A is B* and *All non-B is non-A* are equivalent statements:

"Not only did he [Jevons] lay it down that all capital is subsistence (which is true if properly explained), but he came perilously near to saying that all which is not subsistence is not capital (which requires much more explanation to be intelligible and true)."

To sum up, Prof. Taussig's discussion is refined, thorough, accurate, and impartial; but, paradoxical as it may seem, we are convinced that it would have been more useful if it had been less refined, less thorough, less accurate, and less impartial.

A Little Tour in Ireland. By an Oxonian (S. Reynolds Hole, Dean of Rochester). With Illustrations by John Leech. London and New York: Edward Arnold.

Dean Hole very modestly ascribes the demand for a third edition of his youthful work to the fact that it contains some "splendid illustrations" by John Leech, to whose memory he therefore dedicates it. Leech's admirers regard everything of his with an affectionate eye, yet there are few who would not candidly confess that (the frontispiece excepted) his illustrations and initial letters for this book are far below his ordinary achievements in *Punch*. The author's preface so disarms criticism of his share in the partnership that one is glad to be able to say that his text is quite as good as the pictures. To speak frankly, both belong to a bygone day. They fail to give a distinct impression, even where they succeed in giving any at all. The illustrations, of course, are only caricature, however close to nature; and the substance of the book is something similar, for Nature is lost in an attempt to evoke her by continued apostrophe. The modern French "word-painter" is a tedious fellow; but, even at his worst, he is attempting seriously to describe what he sees, and impart some sensation of the contour and color of scenery as it appears to his eyes, whereas exclamations over "glorious panoramas," reinforced by the quotation of a minor poet's ecstasies, bear the same relation to description that clamor does to argument.

The book has, accordingly, little real value, yet it contains some amusing anecdotes, and occasional bits of half-serious observation which show that the author could have done better if he had followed a different model—for example, this paragraph on a little Catholic church at Oughterarde:

"We found little to admire as to architecture without or ornament within; but a priest, who went with us from the car, said it was 'beautiful,' and looked as if to him it was so indeed, as he knelt with others reverently praying there. I thought of our grand old churches at home, locked and barred, most of them, except for a few hours on Sunday (as though the soul should be treated, like a boa-constrictor, with six days' sleep, and then a rabbit); and I envied that poor pilgrim through a prayerless world his privilege and opportunity."

A-birding on a Bronco. By Florence A. Merriam. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. 12mo, pp. x, 227.

We notice this booklet mainly to call attention to some of the pictures it contains. About a year ago we had occasion to speak of some artistic work done by Mr. Louis Agassiz Fuertes, a student in Cornell University, whose paintings of birds were much admired when exhibited before the Ornithologists' Union at its last meeting in Washington. He is self-taught, and his technique is still crude; he needs disciplining to keep him from straining for effect; but his power is unmistakable, and we miss our guess if he does not become a great artist in birds in due course, if he perseveres. Thus far his genius overreaches his talent; but his pictures are better than Audubon's were to begin with, and we suspect that the mantle has fallen upon Mr. Fuertes. In the present case, his first appearance in print, the pictures are very small and very slight sketches, mostly an inch or two square, and printer's ink does not give him full scope for his brush; but strength is there. Every bird speaks for itself on sight, needing no label. Ability to draw a live bird instead of a stuffed one, from the very first, is an accomplishment rare enough to deserve more than passing comment.

The rest of the illustrations in this book show the fatal facility of "process" in reproducing anything that one may have kodaked in peering about after birds; and the text hardly calls for remark. The young lady has been properly coached in the technicalities by an elder relative; the Latin names are correct; the same story has been told over and over again by Mrs. Miller and too many others; and since Miss Merriam goes to Shakspere for the affected title of her lucubrations, we may remind her that one of that poet's plays is entitled "Much Ado about Nothing."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Dr. C. C. Bird-Land Echoes. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Amory, Esmerie. The Epistolary Flirt. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.
Aylesworth, Barton O. Song and Fable. Des Moines, Iowa: The Kenyon Press.
Bain, John, jr. Tobacco in Song and Story. New York: Arthur Gray & Co.
Barrie, J. M. A Window in Thrums. The Little Minister. Vol. I. Scribners.
Bates, Herbert. Songs of Exile. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75c.
Bellamy, William. A Second Century of Charades. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Bernhardt, Wilhelm. Baumbach's Der Schwiegersohn. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Besant, Sir W. The City of Refuge. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Bigelow, P. History of the German Struggle for Liberty. 2 vols. Harpers. $5.
Blanchard, Amy E. Life's Little Actions. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co 35c.
Blanchard, Amy E. Taking a Stand. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25.
Brown, Miss Anna R. Culture and Reform. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Brown, Vincent. My Brother: A Novel. London: John Lane; Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Bryce, James. The American Commonwealth. Abridged Edition for the Use of Colleges and High Schools. Macmillan. $1.75.
Burgin, G. B. Gascoigne's "Ghost." Harpers. $1.
Carlyle, Thomas. On Heroes and Hero-Worship. Ward, Lock & Bowden.
Caro, E. Idylle Nuptiale. Paris: Lévy.
Cartwright, Julia. Jean François Millet: His Life and Letters. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Dickens, Mary A. Some Women's Ways. R. F. Fenno. $1 25.
Erskine, Charles. Twenty Years before the Mast. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $1.
Evil and Evolution. Macmillan. $1.50.
Fields, Annie. Authors and Friends. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Fisher, Prof G. P. A Brief History of the Nations and of their Progress in Civilization. American Book Co. $1.50.
France, Anatole. Tales from a Mother-of-Pearl Casket. G. H. Richmond & Co. $1.25.
Furtwängler, A. Intermezzi: Kunstgeschichtliche Studien. Leipzig: Giesecke & Devrient; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Gottheil, Rev. Gustav. Sun and Shield: A Book of Devout Thoughts for Every-Day Use. Brentano's. $1.50.
Gould, Dr. G. M. Borderland Studies. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.
Hunter, Sir W. W. The Old Missionary. London and New York: Henry Frowde.
King, Capt. Charles. A Garrison Tangle. F. T. Neely.
King, Capt. Charles. A Tame Surrender. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c
Kipling, Rudyard, Soldier Stories. Macmillan. $1.50.
Knox, T. W. The Land of the Kangaroo. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1 50
Locke, Rev. Clinton. The Age of the Great Western Schism. [Epochs of Church History.] Christian Literature Co. $2.
Loti, Pierre. An Iceland Fisherman. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Mabie, H. W. Books and Culture. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Maddison, Isabel. Handbook of Courses Open to Women in British, Continental, and Canadian Universities. Macmillan. 50c.
Mason, Caroline A. The Quiet King: A Story of Christ. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.50.
May, Phil. Gutter Snipes. Macmillan. $1.50.
McLellan, Isaac. Haunts of Wild Game; or, Poems of Woods, Wilds, and Waters. New York: C. B. Bradford. $1.50.
McMullen, Rachel B. Heart Songs. Worcester: The Author.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. Catalina: Art Student. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1 25.
Nickerson, C. S. Noble Living. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
Norris, W. E. Clarissa Furiosa. Harpers. $1.50.
Oxley, J. M. The Romance of Commerce. T. Y. Crowell & Co $1.25.
Page, T. E. Q. Horati Flacci Opera. Abridged for Use in Schools. Macmillan. $1.90.
Paterson, Arthur. For Freedom's Sake. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Pool, Miss Maria L. In Buncombe County. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Pool, Miss Maria L. In the First Person. Harpers. $1.25.
Rochefort, H. The Adventures of My Life. 2 vols. Edward Arnold. $7.50.
Russell, W. C. "What Cheer?" R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Sand, George. Fadette. T Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Saunders, Miss Marshall. For the Other Boy's Sake. Philadelphia: C. H. Banes. $1.
Sawyer, W. L. An Outland Journey. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Schönbach, Anton E. Über Lesen und Bildung. Fünfte Auflage. Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky.
Smith, Prof. C. A. An Old English Grammar and Exercise Book. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Starnes, Val. W. Short-Suit Whist. Brentano's. $1.25.
Steadling, Prof. H. Denkmäler Antiker Kunst für das Gymnasium Ausgewählt. Leipzig: E. A. Seeman.
Stevenson, E. I. A Matter of Temperament. American Publishers Corporation. $1.
Stowe, Mrs. H. B. Dred, and Other Anti-Slavery Tales. 2 vols. Stories Sketches, and Studies. [Riverside Edition.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each $1 50.
Thurber, Samuel. Shakspere's As You Like It. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 20c.
Toplis, Grace. Leaves from the Note-Books of Francis M. Buss. Macmillan. $1.25.
Twells, Julia H. A Triumph of Destiny. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Underhill, Mrs. Zoe D. The Dwarfs' Tailor, and Other Fairy Tales. Harpers. $1.75.
Vogt, Prof. F., and Koch, Prof. M. Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur von den ältesten Zeiten bis zur Gegenwart. 1 Heft. Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Watson, Rev. John. The Cure of Souls. Lyman Beecher Lectures on Preaching. 1896. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Weiss, Prof. B. W. Benedix's Plautus und Terenz and Die Sonntagsjäger. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c,
Whitney, Mrs. A. D. T. Friendly Letters to Girl Friends. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Williams, R. P. Laboratory Manual of Inorganic Chemistry. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85c.
Wilson, Annie E. Compendium of United States History and Literature. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40c.
Wingate, C. E. L. Shakespeare's Heroes on the Stage. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Woolcombe, W. G. Light and Sound. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 19, 1896.

The Week.

It is pleasant to note the quiet gratification with which the Venezuelan settlement is received on both sides of the Atlantic. Some able journalistic diplomats, whose views and predictions have been coldly ignored by the real negotiators, are looking a little puzzled and pained, and are advancing it as a cogent argument against the agreement that they "cannot understand it." But as nearly all the 100,000,000 people involved never did understand the Venezuelan controversy anyhow, they are not going to insist that the London *Chronicle* must be satisfied before any treaty is made. The fact is that, as far as this country is concerned, the whole angry dispute had long ago been consigned to the limbo of things which we are not a little ashamed of and which we should like to forget. In England the affair appears to have been regarded with more apprehension. Both Sir William Harcourt and Mr. John Morley have spoken in grave terms of the serious possibilities involved in leaving the controversy unsettled, and the latter, in his speech on Tuesday week, declared the happy ending of the business to be more important than any international occurrence of the time. He said this, of course, on the understanding that a general treaty of permanent arbitration was to follow. That is what all must now hope and work for in order to complete "a splendid and beneficent example" of settling international differences, not like wild beasts, but like gentlemen and Christians.

One of the oddest results of the Venezuelan controversy has been the blotting out of Venezuela as an independent government, so far at least as the present settlement is concerned. She does not appoint a single member of the arbitration tribunal. On the face of the papers she is not consulted about anything. Her contention all along has been, not merely a demand for arbitration, but that the United States should be the arbitrator. Even this has been denied to her. The real arbitrator is the King of Sweden. If he should decide that British Guiana is entitled to every inch of territory that has not been in actual occupation by Venezuela for a period of fifty years, she would have nothing to say against it. This is a strange outcome for the orphan republic, yet it is the logical result of Mr. Olney's diplomacy, which set out with the proposition that our interests were threatened by the extension of British rule on the banks of the Orinoco. If that were true, they would be equally threatened whether the extension were made with the consent of Venezuela or not. In other words, the assertion of that doctrine was itself a denial of the sovereignty of Venezuela and her right to dispose of her own property.

The consequences of this claim were pretty fully discussed at the time when the President's Venezuelan message was a more exciting subject of debate than it is now. The most important of these was the assumption by us of responsibility for all the countries between the Rio Grande and the Straits of Magellan in their dealings with European Powers. The fact that these Powers might have something to say about so extensive a claim was not much considered in the beginning, but their newspapers have begun to tell what they think of it. Those of both France and Germany say that the treaty between England and the United States is no precedent for them. The Cologne *Gazette*, in an article which is accepted abroad as semi-official in character, says: "We wish to take the first opportunity to declare that the precedent is only English, and in no way European. Germany, at least, will never tolerate the intervention of a foreign state in the protection of German interests in South and Central America." It is to be hoped that she will not. No greater calamity of a foreign sort could befall us than to assume responsibility for the behavior of those Spanish-American countries, whose natural tendencies to insolence and disorder would be greatly multiplied if they understood that we were to assume their quarrels. For the present, however, the matter of most prominence is the snuffing out of Venezuela as a government having a voice in the determination of her own boundary.

Mr. Cleveland is not likely, as respects Cuba, to take steps at the close of his administration to initiate a policy for his successor. It is true that Mr. Harrison attempted to do this for his successor by recommending the annexation of Hawaii, but the ill success which attended the step would hardly commend it to Mr. Cleveland as an example to be followed. Mr. McKinley is entitled to a fair field in foreign as well as in domestic affairs. He ought not to be embarrassed by any gratuitous action at Washington. This principle applies with equal force to Congress, with whom the power to declare war rests exclusively. We have learned to our sorrow, however, that the executive, although forbidden to declare war, may scare Congress into a war at any time on the flimsiest of pretexts. Such a revelation would have struck both Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton dumb. It is a fact that we shall always have to reckon with hereafter. If Mr. Cleveland should say now that the state of affairs in Cuba is such that we ought to interfere on grounds of humanity, or on grounds of near neighborhood, or on any grounds whatever, the probability is that Congress would "stand behind him" as it did in the Venezuelan matter. If restrained from doing so at all, it would be only for the reason that the matter ought to be left to McKinley. But there are no grounds for our interference in the affairs of Cuba that have not existed from the beginning of the present struggle in the island. Moreover, it is the growing opinion, both here and abroad, that Spain cannot put down the rebellion, that she is near the end of her resources, and that she will not be able to make another campaign if she fails in this one. How insensate, therefore, is the policy which would plunge us into a foreign war, contrary to the law of nations, and contrary to our own precedents, against the country that sent Columbus out to discover the New World, and that has never done us a wrong from our birthday to the present hour.

Kentucky, South Dakota, and Wyoming were the closest of the forty-five States in the recent election, and ten days were required to show that McKinley had 258 plurality in the first and Bryan about 400 in the second, while Wyoming is apparently for Bryan by from 225 to 400 for the different electors. So narrow is the Republican margin in Kentucky that one Democratic elector is successful, as was one in Ohio four years ago, while the rest were for Harrison, through mistakes of voters in marking their ballots. The closeness of the result, however, should not obscure its great significance. Four years ago Kentucky gave 175,461 votes for Cleveland and 23,500 for Weaver—a total of 198,961, against only 135,441 for Harrison. This year McKinley has 218,055, or nearly 83,000 more than Harrison received in 1892, and Palmer 5,018—a total of 223,073 for sound money; while the combined vote of Bryan Democrats and Populists for their Presidential ticket was only 217,797. In a total poll 100,000 larger than four years ago, Bryan has less than 19,000 votes more than Cleveland and Weaver together, while McKinley and Palmer have nearly 88,000 more than were given Harrison. This is a tremendous political revolution. Counting all but one of Kentucky's thirteen electors for McKinley, and the other two close States for Bryan, the sound-money candidate will have 272 electoral votes against 175 for the Populist nominee. There will be continued figuring that a change of some 25,000 votes in Indiana, Kentucky, and four other States

would have given Bryan a bare majority of the electoral college; but what makes Bryanism hopeless in the future is the fact that Indiana, and the solid block of States from the Atlantic to the Missouri River of which Indiana is the heart, will be even more strongly against it hereafter than now.

The only answer needed to Bryan's speeches of Saturday in favor of renewing the free-coinage agitation is furnished by the official returns of the vote in the South, which are now coming in. The returns from Georgia are no less significant of the demoralization in Democracy caused by the surrender to Populism than those of Kentucky above. Here are the figures, contrasted with those for 1892; the Democratic and Populist votes being given separately and together for 1892, and together for 1896:

	Rep.	Dem.	Pop.	Dem. and Pop.
1892.....	46,805	129,886	42,939	172,825
1896.....	60,190	.....	.....	94,832

There were, besides, 2,707 votes for Palmer this year, but all told the total is only 157,230, against 220,630 four years ago. While the Republicans increased their vote about 25 per cent., the fusion candidate this year secured less than 55 per cent. of the vote cast for Cleveland and Weaver four years ago. Evidently more than half the Democratic voters of 1892 refused to support the Populist candidate of 1896. No wonder that Southern Democratic newspapers say, in the expressive words of the Memphis *Commercial-Appeal*, that "the only reply to a proposition for a renewal of the silver fight is, 'Rats!'"

Two senatorial seats from the South were practically disposed of by Democratic caucuses in Alabama and Georgia on Monday. Pugh is the man whose term is expiring in the former State, and, although he has nearly completed his seventy-sixth year, he was anxious for another term. There has been no little apprehension that he might succeed through an appeal to what may be called the eleemosynary motive—the plea that he is an old man and needs the salary—for there is no doubt that this has helped to keep more than one antediluvian office-holder in his place. But the spell has at last been broken in Pugh's case, and the Legislature will send as his successor Gen. Pettus, of whom little is known, but who can hardly fail to be an improvement upon Pugh. In Georgia the seat falling vacant is that of Gen. Gordon, who is by no means a Bourbon of the Pugh school, but has of late years seemed to lose his interest in public affairs. His predestined successor was ex-Speaker Crisp, who would have been no help to his State, but his death left the field open to all comers, and the prize has been carried off by Alexander S. Clay, a comparatively young man, who has been Speaker of the House and President of the Senate in the Georgia Legislature, and has made a good reputation in each body.

The suggestions of the Indianapolis *Journal* that Mr. McKinley should offer a cabinet position to Gen. Buckner or Mr. Bourke Cockran, or should recognize the sound-money Democrats in the distribution of general patronage, and of the *Iowa State Register* that he should retain Mr. Carlisle as Secretary of the Treasury, are gratifying proofs that the splendid services of the sound-money Democrats in the campaign are appreciated, but this is not likely to go beyond the expression of good feeling. The men who went to the Indianapolis convention had higher aims than the procuring of office. If they had wanted cabinet positions or patronage, they would have supported Bryan. What they really wanted was to save the republic from degradation and ruin. This was their first aim. Their second was to keep the Democratic party alive as one of the great conservative forces of the nation and as an ark of safety for the future. Both of these aims have been secured. We are convinced, from our knowledge of these men, that all the offices that have ever been created, since the beginning of the world, could not give them a tithe of the satisfaction that they have derived from the consciousness of duty performed for their country. These men want no appointments to office. We do not believe that they would accept any if offered. To do so would be to neutralize the moral support they now have among their own rank and file. Any election coming to them from Republican voters at the polls, or from a State Legislature composed wholly or largely of Republicans, would rest upon a different basis, and would not be open to this kind of objection; yet even such preferment should not be solicited.

The comments of the London *Spectator* upon McKinley's election are delightful reading. Only a week before the election this wonderful journal was discussing the probabilities of Bryan's success, with preternaturally wise observations about the "arrogant assurance of the money power," and solemn quotations from the prognostications of "Mr. Moreton Frewen, who generally knows what he is talking about." When the news of the election arrived, and the awful fact that, as usual, Mr. Moreton Frewen had not the slightest knowledge of the things he was talking about, was disclosed so plainly that even the *Spectator* was able to see it, a sharp corner had to be turned. The task was accomplished with visible signs of anguish. "We underrated," said the editor, "the strength of the conservative forces in the Union," and then added: "We never doubted that Mr. McKinley would prevail in the electoral contest, but we believed, as we know some of the ablest Americans also believed, that his opponent would reach more nearly to the goal." The identity of these "ablest Americans" is, of course, a secret in the editor's bosom, but we have little doubt that their names are Jones and Teller. The usual two columns of profound speculation follow these confessions, with this important admission: "We doubt if a vote was ever given that was better calculated to dispel, or at least diminish, the fears of those who, while they do not question that Demos, the new Sovereign, is well intentioned, are full of alarm as to both his knowledge and his wisdom." And again: "The result will greatly diminish alarm as to the future course of democracy in America." Let us hope also it will diminish English capacity for swallowing blatherskite information about Americans and American affairs.

The returns which candidates for Congress in this city are filing of their election expenses make curious revelations. Mr. Quigg, the absurd person who was reëlected in the Fourteenth District, swears that he spent $6,615.45 in order to get an office for two years at a salary of $5,000 a year. Did he pay this out of his own pocket, or did he get help from Platt and other generous friends? Why should he spend so large a sum when he was certain of election? The returns show that he would have won if he had not spent a cent. The tide for McKinley was so strong in that district that every candidate on the Republican ticket was absolutely sure of election, no matter what his calibre. Voters were so anxious that their ballots should not be invalidated by any possible blunder in marking, that ninety-nine out of every hundred of them voted the straight Republican ticket, taking Quigg with the rest, without considering his merits at all. This being the case, Quigg has simply thrown away more than half his salary, provided that he spent his own money, which is of course very doubtful. Mr. McClellan spent over $3,000 in his district, but he had more need to do so than Quigg had, and Mr. Shannon spent $3,431 in his district, although he was sure of election. It is a queer business, this willingness to pay such ruinously high prices for public office, and the wonder is how the comparatively poor men who so often pay it manage to live afterwards.

The sworn return of the Hon. James J. Belden, who was reëlected to Congress in the Syracuse district, confirms once more the immortal remark of Jake Sharp concerning him, that "Jim Belden is a man who don't stir round for nothing." He admits that he paid $13,180 in campaign expenses, or $3,180 more than the salary of a Congressman for the full term. Of this amount $10,180 went to the McKinley League, which is the anti-

Platt organization in the State, and to which the allegiance of Belden, as chief financial backer, adds a moral grandeur which can scarcely be overestimated. All candidates for Congressmen seem to have paid very heavily for their nominations this year, though none of them came anywhere near to Belden's figures. The most reprehensible showing which the sworn returns of expenditures have thus far made, is in regard to the sums which seem to have been levied upon candidates for judicial offices. Judge Vann, who was elected to the Court of Appeals, swears that his expenses amounted to $3,555, of which sum $2,500 was contributed to the Republican State committee and $1,000 to the Republican committee of Onondaga County. William W. Goodrich, Republican candidate for Supreme Court Justice in the Second District, swears that he spent $3,590, of which sum $3,500 went to the Republican State committee. Why should either of these men pay a penny to any committee, and what did the Republican State committee do with the money? The Republican canvass in this State this year took care of itself, and had no need of large sums of money; but even if it had needed money, no judicial candidate ought to have contributed it. We ought to have a law forbidding not only assessments upon judicial candidates, but voluntary contributions by them. In this way alone can the political managers be prevented from putting a price-mark upon every judicial vacancy.

The situation in Constantinople does not improve; and although our duty to meddle in it may not be clear, the duty of having a first-class man at the post whose judgment would be clear, who would have some knowledge and experience of diplomacy, and whose words would have some weight with somebody, is very plain indeed. Instead of this we have a perfectly raw and ill-educated man from one of the least diplomatic and wildest States in the Union—Texas—in the person of Mr. Terrell. We have excellent authority for saying that he is the laughing-stock of diplomatic circles in Constantinople. He knows nothing of any language but his own, and is therefore at the mercy of his dragoman in a city where English is rarely spoken. Last April he wrote the Sultan a letter of advice of such abounding folly that Mr. Gresham gave him a rebuke which would have caused any man even one-quarter fit for the place to resign promptly. Moreover, there could not have been a severer piece of condemnation for the Administration, for it confessed the extreme badness of Mr. Terrell's appointment, made when Turkish affairs were becoming really threatening. Not only does Mr. Terrell know nothing of diplomacy, but nothing of Turkish diplomacy, which is the wiliest and most inscrutable of all. The news he sends home of the promises of indemnity for murders and injuries to American property, made to him by the Sultan, and of the love and admiration of Americans which prevail at the Yildiz Kiosk, simply show the contempt the Turks entertain for the man. They are civil to him simply because they know there is no harm in him. Not a cent of indemnity will ever be paid him. Nothing could well be more humiliating to us than his preparations to sign a new treaty with the Porte which is almost the facsimile of the one which has been in existence for the last sixty years, and has received little or no attention from the Sultan.

The French Government is the latest one to plume itself on having at last got those Turkish reforms started. Foreign Minister Hanotaux said some ugly things about the Sultan a few days ago, the French Ambassador at Constantinople made urgent representations, and, lo, the reforms begin! France at once lays her hand on her heart to receive gracefully the congratulations of all Europe. Just think of it, the Sultan has promised to let out of prison every man who has been rotting there for a year charged with no crime! True, these reforms, in sixteen beautiful chapters with supplementary regulations, were solemnly promised in an imperial irade of October 17, 1895. True, not one of them has been put in execution or an attempt made to do so. True, the Sultan has given a smirking promise to this, that, and the other ambassador that he was going to begin the work. But now he has given one more lying promise, and the welkin of diplomacy is ringing with hallelujahs. Nothing so ludicrous has been seen since Mr. Winkle took off his coat and announced in a loud voice that he was about to begin.

The London *Economist* makes a terrible showing of the way in which South African mining shares have been manipulated on the London Stock Exchange. From the highest valuations recorded this year there has been a tremendous falling off, amounting to from 15 to 50 per cent. in the leading companies. The worst of it is that all the evidence points to inside selling for the fall by way of the Continent and Johannesburg. In other words, those very firms of the Rand that were going to sustain the "boom" prices of last year have been quietly and steadily cutting the ground out from under the English investors whom they had persuaded to come in at top prices. The troubles in the Transvaal have been a godsend to these speculators, who have not failed to have them magnified in the organs they control, along with many gloomy reports of the prospective giving out of the deep-level mining, and so on. All this, the *Economist* shrewdly suspected, was preliminary to the engineering of a "bear squeeze," and its prediction seems already to have been verified in the glowing account of the future of the Rand mines given in London ten days ago by Hammond, the American whom Krüger caught. The mixing up of these vulgar stock-jobbers in England's South African policy is a scandal which the Parliamentary Commission of inquiry should probe to the bottom.

Emperor William can never swear in troops without leaving it a little doubtful whether the oath is taken "so help me God," or "so help me William." This confusion was more than ordinarily noticeable in his address to the recruits in Berlin on Thursday. The only thing that saves his language from being shockingly profane is the conviction, which now must be profound in all those who have studied his symptoms, that it is the language of an insane person. His thinly veiled appeal to the officers to go on fighting duels with everybody who questions his absolute wisdom, will cause a great sensation in Germany, where efforts to put down army duelling have of late been strenuous; while his defiant assertion that the nation would shed "our last drop of blood" to keep Alsace and Lorraine, is plainly meant as a challenge to the Franco-Russian alliance to come on if they dare. There have been mad monarchs before, but never, we believe, has one been left at large with such terrible power for evil, both to his own country and to all Europe, as is in the hands of the mania-driven Emperor of Germany.

Monday's debate in the Reichstag resulted in an almost unalloyed triumph for Prince Bismarck. It was not that his methods were justified. His policy in making a secret treaty with Russia in 1884, undoing to a certain extent the Triple Alliance to which he was bound to be faithful, is evidently a galling thing to the present rulers of Germany. His reckless disregard of the public interest in revealing the secret at this juncture, they make no pretence of defending. But they have no stomach for a fight with him. Even rash Emperor William has no desire to pick up the challenge of the bitter and defiant ex-Chancellor. That is the kind of triumph which Bismarck most enjoys. He has not won respect but has inspired fear. His opponents gnash their teeth at him, but they do it helplessly and leave him master of the field. All this must be delicious to a man whose diet for eighty years has been blood and iron. Yet there can be no doubt that his cynical revelations have given a rude blow to European diplomacy. Italy and Austria are putting on the best face possible in the presence of this treachery of their ally, but they must be keeping up a terrible thinking. Other statesmen must be anxiously asking themselves what treaties are worth the paper they are written on, what alliances are secure, if such diplomatic methods as Bismarck's are possible nowadays.

THE PRICE OF WHEAT.

SINCE election day there has been a further advance of nearly 10 cents per bushel in the price of wheat. This advance has not been so exceptional in the general movement of commodities as was the 25-cent rise before the opening of November. As a matter of fact, the majority of marketable articles in this country have gained in price, to a greater or less extent, since the nation's vote of November 3. This is not an unusual phenomenon; it is largely in the nature of reaction from abnormally low prices, caused by the recent period of uncertainty and dread. Disordered trade, especially when occasioned by the prospect of disordered currency, results logically and invariably in a shrinkage of commercial demand. The fabric of credit being threatened with destruction, dealers and middlemen will not lay in a stock to provide for needs other than those of immediate consumption. While, therefore, through the producer's eagerness to convert his produce into cash during the period of hard times, the supply of commodities on the market becomes even larger than usual, demand at the same time shrinks continuously. From such a situation there can be no other outcome than the stagnant markets and the generally declining prices which this country witnessed during the late campaign for repudiation.

To this declining tendency wheat was a remarkable exception. Yet it is altogether probable that wheat would have advanced still further during the autumn months, and that much more of the gain would have accrued to the American farmer, but for the blow at trade and credit inflicted by last July's convention at Chicago. This view was expressed a month ago, officially and very plainly, by the Agricultural Department's European agent, who naturally reflected expert foreign opinion on the question. It is, in fact, notorious that the profit from the advance in wheat during September and October was chiefly gained by foreign purchasers. The home demand for future markets was paralyzed as a result of the domestic trade convulsion; credit was quite disorganized, and farmer and middleman alike sold what they had to the Liverpool grain-importer at the low prices of August. Since the election this situation has been completely reversed. This month it is the American owner of the unsold wheat who holds the key to the market.

Under such circumstances, the future of the wheat market becomes a peculiarly interesting study. That there will be a very material reduction in the world's supply this year is nowhere questioned. India, which exported during the fiscal year ending with March, 1892, no less than 56,566,000 bushels, and which sent out 18,672,000 in the fiscal year ending last March, is in a state of famine, and instead of sending wheat abroad, is importing largely from this country. Australasia, whose wheat exports in one recent year reached 24,000,000 bushels, has had two successive partial harvest failures, and will probably be compelled to turn importer. The Argentine Republic, one of our two chief competitors in recent years, which sent out 37,000,000 bushels in 1895, has had such ill fortune with its harvests as to remove that country, for the present, from active competition.

Estimates of the total anticipated shortage for the world vary widely, as is usual, but the lowest responsible estimates would place the total crop of 1896 at a smaller aggregate even than that of 1891. The *Financial Chronicle* has lately pointed out one fact which may have its influence in checking an extreme advance —the fact that in 1891 the harvest failures were especially disastrous in the great producing and consuming states of Europe. This gave a peculiar impetus to the immediate demand for wheat in the fall of 1891. The present situation is different, in that Europe's own crops, probably excepting Russia, are on the average fairly good. It is interesting to observe, however, that wheat at its highest last week was selling 25½ cents per bushel above the price of the corresponding week a year ago, 32 cents above 1894, 24 cents above 1893, and 13½ cents above 1892. The present level is 7 cents a bushel higher than the best price touched in the violent advance of June, 1895. It is only 19 or 20 cents below the highest price in the fall of 1891, and this comparison is made more noteworthy from the fact that wheat in 1891 reached its maximum price during the second week of November, after which followed a continuous decline. The well-known reason for that decline was the unexpected increase in supplies sent out by the very Asiatic, Australian, and South American producing states which are this year crippled by the drought.

That the profits of our farmers, and their contentment, therefore, with the situation, have increased with this advance in wheat, unaccompanied by a general harvest failure in this country, will not be doubted. In some quarters, however, it is complained that, even with this sudden decrease in foreign competition, the price of wheat is only back at the average level of a quarter of a century ago. In 1877 the failure of a wheat crop in two or three of the world's great wheat-producing nations meant nearly $2 a bushel at New York; in 1855 it meant $2.50. Has not the farmer still, then, something to complain of?

The assertion that what may be called the "famine maximum" in the price of wheat has been more than cut in two within the last twenty-five or fifty years is quite correct. We believe, however, that unbiassed minds select this fact as one of the most cheering landmarks in the progress of civilization. For half-a-dozen centuries the darkest blot on civilized society was the possibility that the deserving poor, because of an unfavorable harvest season in one quarter of the globe, would die by hundreds of thousands from absolute lack of food. Until a comparatively recent epoch the recurrence of such horribly destructive famines was an outcome chiefly of ignorant methods in agriculture and of wholly deficient means of transportation. When these obstructions to the welfare of humanity began to disappear, the greedy search for Government protection to producers, for prohibitory import duties at ordinary times and prohibition of exports in deficient harvests, was instituted to fill their place.

The result of such provisions in the public laws may be imagined. During the two famous years of European famine, 1739 and 1740, when the price of wheat rose 200 per cent., a French historian has estimated that more citizens of France died of starvation than fell in all the wars of Louis XIV. In 1753, it is said, 800 people died of hunger in one month in a single quarter of Paris. Taine and Lecky have pointed out the very essential part played by the harvest failure of 1788 in bringing to a focus the forces which resulted in the worst atrocities of the French Revolution. In 1756, Tooke observes in his 'History of Prices,' there were insurrections throughout England, "on account of the scarcity of corn and the high price of provisions." In 1775, in France, a contemporary chronicler remarked, "bread in several places could not be procured for money." In England "troops were stationed to protect the markets and the roads and rivers by which they were supplied." In somewhat mitigated form, the same evils continued into the nineteenth century. "Bread riots"—a term which this generation hardly understands—were frequent incidents in London during the first half of the present century. The theory of Malthus, that the world's food supplies could not possibly keep pace with unchecked increase in its population, obtained at the opening of the century a popular vogue which can be explained only by that generation's familiarity with the spectacle of wholesale famine and starvation.

The last great English famine—that of 1845 and 1846—cut the final prop from under this wicked system of prohibitory import charges on food. Until one or more of the great consuming nations had taken such a step, it was impossible that agriculture in other quarters of the globe should extend further than was required to meet consuming needs of the producing state. Nobody will raise grain which the law prohibits from a market. But the repeal of the British corn laws was followed by the extension of farming area; first in the United States, then in northern and southern Europe. Finally, during the last twenty-five years, when ingenuity had provided means by which wheat could be brought from far south-

ern climates in fit condition for the milling process, southern Asia, Australia, and South America were added to the list. Actual famine, in the civilized states of Europe and America, is no longer a possibility. The time will come, moreover, when such a famine as this year's in Central India will be equally inconceivable. Such another forward step in humanity and civilization will be the plain result of the mighty forces at work throughout this generation, forces against which the bimetallic orators are beating out their brains—the spread of intelligentagriculture, increase throughout the world in means of quick and economical transportation, and the consequent general lowering of the cost of food.

THE TARIFF QUESTION.

THE recent political campaign brought together in a spirit of amity those who favor and those who oppose what is called the "high-tariff policy." What particular schedules or rates of duty come under the definition of a high tariff nobody pretends to decide. A great many people consider the present average rate of duty too high by comparison with those which the Republican party was satisfied with before 1890, when the McKinley bill came up. Many others consider the present average rate too low merely because it was passed by a Democratic Congress. Others, with more reason, think the average rate of duty of small consequence, while the particular rates on certain articles, such as wool and sugar, are of much importance. There is a division in the Republican party itself between those who would make revenue the chief consideration in the tariff, and those who would give the leading place to protection. There are those who have been zealous protectionists heretofore, and who may be called protectionists on principle, who think that the system has become somewhat antiquated, and that we are nearing the time when we can compete with Europe in many leading articles, such as iron and steel. Finally, there is an influential and growing body of opinion among Republicans that a fresh overhauling of the tariff would put in jeopardy the revival of business which has been so gratifying a result of the election of McKinley, and that it would cause a disintegration of the elements which contributed thereto, and a redistribution of votes which might prove politically disastrous in the near future.

If anybody had ventured to predict twelve months ago that politics would take such shape that Congressman Dingley and ex-Congressman Wilson, or, for that matter, Mr. McKinley and Mr. Cleveland, could sit down and discuss the tariff question without partisan rancor, but with a view solely to the good of the country, he would have been considered a visionary. Yet that odd condition seems to have been reached. From nearly all quarters we hear the same story. Newspapers that were most determined last spring to have an extra session of Congress called to pass the Dingley bill, preparatory to some more radical and comprehensive measure, are now counselling their party friends to go slow. These words of caution are nowhere more frequent than in Pennsylvania. The Philadelphia *Bulletin* finds that the leading Republicans of that State desire to "avoid another prolonged season of tariff agitation in the next Congress as well as a fresh disturbance of business." The *Ledger* of the same city, in its Washington correspondence, tells us that it is a great mistake to suppose that Mr. McKinley himself is wedded to the McKinley tariff, or that he entertains extreme views on the subject. Whether he was in favor of all the prohibitory clauses of that measure, or whether they were forced upon him by the mob of private interests that came flocking to Washington when they understood that there was to be a new deal, we are quite prepared to believe that he has got new light on the subject from events which have occurred since. In other words, we shall not be surprised to find the new President taking a conservative position on this question. We shall be greatly surprised if he puts at risk any votes by which his election was secured and without which his party would be in a minority to-day.

It is hardly necessary to enforce the view that the business of the country needs time to recover from the shocks it has suffered during the past three or four years. Whatever the causes may have been, the great want now is freedom from disturbance. Everybody can see that we are getting on our feet once more. We want to avoid being knocked down again—at any rate until we get our wind. It is true that the Government ought to have more revenue, perhaps $25,000,000 or $30,000,000 more a year in normal conditions, although receipts vary so much with the state of general business and the probabilities of new legislation that we hardly ever have normal conditions. Quite as much as added revenue the country needs industrial prosperity, and that immediately. This will not be possible during a general overhauling of the tariff again, however satisfactory things might be at the end of the task. As soon as the importers know that a higher tariff is coming, they begin to stock up the bonded warehouses with foreign goods, taking advantage of the lower rates while it lasts. This produces a big revenue for the time being, but by so much overloads the country with manufactured articles. This in turn shuts down the American factories, and during the period of uncertainty as to the outcome of tariff legislation a paralysis of industry is inevitable. Two recent experiences of this sort have warned us that it is very risky business to revise the tariff when revenue and a steady and uniform industrial development are desired. Under both the McKinley and the present tariffs, there was this stocking-up of the market in anticipation of changes, or unloading of the market when a drop in rates was anticipated. Moreover, it by no means follows that more revenue is to be gained by increasing the rates of duty. The amount may be lessened by that very means, and usually the protected interests prefer that it should be.

It is safe to say that a large and increasing number of Republicans are opposed to fresh tinkering with the tariff. In fact, the only section of the party likely to give trouble is the wool-growers, under the lead of the Ohio triumvirate, which has been reduced to a duumvirate by the death of Columbus Delano. They are already at work on a new tariff, and for this purpose got what they call a farmers' congress together at Indianapolis, whose exercises were directed by Judge Lawrence, one of the duumvirs. The object of this "congress" seems to have been to "bring pressure" on McKinley to call a special session of the other congress—the Congress of the United States—to enact a new tariff bill. The Dingley bill, now pending, does not satisfy Lawrence; the duties on wool being altogether too low, in his judgment. He considered the duties in the McKinley bill too low, and was engaged in a vigorous fight to have them increased when the Wilson bill was passed. The wool duties in the Dingley bill are only six-tenths of those in the McKinley act of 1890. Of course that would not satisfy the duumvirs; hence their eagerness to have an entirely new bill and an extra session. We think that they will not get either. The Republican party has too lively a recollection of the consequences of following the lead of this same Lawrence in 1890. The McKinley tariff was initiated by him. The party leaders allowed him to start the avalanche which buried them all in the elections of 1890 and 1892. They may make other mistakes hereafter, but they are not likely to make that one again. Curiously enough, ex-President Harrison was one of the speakers at this so-called congress, and he exhibited some common-sense when he advised them to speak out and tell what they wanted and not continue beating the air. What they really want is a prohibitory duty on wool. We agree with Mr. Harrison that they ought to say so, and not veil their desires under vague phrases about "the most ample protection to agricultural products."

As regards the Dingley bill itself, there is very little likelihood of its passing. Even Mr. Dingley himself does not expect it to become a law—perhaps does not desire that it should, seeing that it was only a makeshift intended to expire by limitation on the 1st of August, 1898. That is to say, it would be in force only a year and a half if it should be passed this winter. But if it could get a majority vote in the

Senate (which is unlikely), it would probably be vetoed by President Cleveland, whose tariff policy from the beginning has been based on free wool. Although the Dingley bill comes far short of satisfying the Ohio duumvirate, it nevertheless runs counter to all Mr. Cleveland's views on the subject. He might very well say that it was not worth while to pass a haphazard bill like this to last only a short time and upset the calculations of the commercial world twice in eighteen months, besides bringing upon us retaliatory measures in other countries. The Argentine Republic has actually made preparations to meet a reimposition of duties on her wools by discriminating against our manufactures. Senator Teller, in an interview, says that he has not found any reason for changing his mind or his vote on the Dingley bill. Consequently it cannot pass the Senate this winter unless bolting Democrats can be found to take the place of bolting Republicans.

THE SOUTHERN STATES AND THE "MONEY POWER."

THE *Manufacturers' Record* of Baltimore, after recounting the difficulties the South had to contend with in the late canvass, the fear of negro domination, the fear of a force bill, and the strength of the silver sentiment among the agriculturists (the bulk of the population), and showing what a large minority voted for McKinley, has the following rather amazing passage:

> "If the business people of the North will study these facts, they will see that the South should receive unstinted praise for its magnificent work in behalf of sound money. They will see that never before has any section given greater proof of the moral courage of its people, and in these facts they will find abundant reasons for regarding with favor the South as a field for investment. Now that the South has made such a showing, fulfil your promises and turn the capital seeking investment, the farmers looking for homes, the manufacturers anxious to build mills where raw material is most abundant, to this favored land. Here is a field for the display of good business judgment and for patriotic work that has no equal. Here is the supreme opportunity presented to the capitalists of America and to the Republican party as a party."

The facts are that twelve States of the old sixteen composing the solid South voted for Bryan, although in two of these twelve there are suspicions of fraud; that the great bulk of the press—there were a few honorable exceptions—teemed during the canvass with abuse of bankers, capitalists, and of the Northern sound-money press, and with notions about currency which, so opposed were they to the experience of the human race and all ages and nations, would discredit an Indian council; that a great many of its leading men swallowed their own convictions publicly, and agreed to vote for the ruin of their country and support its assailants, simply because they had attended the Democratic caucuses or primaries, which is very much as if, having attended a meeting of Molly Maguires, and the meeting having, unexpectedly to you, voted to murder a man, you felt bound to lend a hand.

To understand the full gravity of all this, from the business point of view, we must remember that the Bryan platform tacitly proposed to make the Supreme Court subject to the will of the majority at each election. The Supreme Court is the guardian of the Constitution, and what is most important to investors is, that it is in an especial manner the guardian of that clause of the Constitution which makes contracts inviolable by State authority. Without the Supreme Court this clause would not be worth the paper on which it is written. State Legislatures would constantly authorize breaches of contract, and the elected Populist judges would find fifty excuses for giving no remedy. This is over and above the enormous currency danger. To invite people to invest in a community which proposes to debase the currency in order to make it easier to pay debts, and to make judges elective in order to punish them for a decision, makes their appeal to moneyed men to come down and trust them seem little short of a joke.

The fact is, the South has made its greatest mistake since going to war for slavery, in supporting Bryan in his attack on our government. The line drawn across the continent by the elections, leaving the great bulk of property and intelligence on one side, and poverty, colored men, ignorance, want of capital and manufactures on the other, is a most unfortunate advertisement for the South to make to the world. We know the allowances that have to be made for what has occurred, and how largely the Democratic majorities fell off in all the States, and what a provocation such things as the force bill and the pension laws have been to the South; but, as we strongly disapprove of a man's cutting off his own nose in order to spite his enemies, so also we strongly disapprove of a poor community's making proclamation that it has no fixed standard of value and has no respect for plighted faith. A man who would rush with his children's money to such a community would, in all countries which have anything to lend or invest, be considered little short of crazy.

Nor is the matter mended for the moment by the conversions of newspapers or of men of which we hear every day. These are good things politically, but they will not be, for some time to come, very valuable from a business point of view. In business, confidence is a plant of slow growth. Business men trust character, not opinions. Character means a long course of rational and orderly behavior. Opinions a man can change when he pleases. All we know about them is what he tells us. He may change them for five dollars or for an office, or through fear that he will not get a nomination, when the time comes. Capitalists and investors are not taken in by these things. When a man who has been yelling for silver for six months suddenly says he is now for gold, and never yelled for silver sincerely, he inspires not respect but contempt. The last thing that occurs to the investor is that it would now be a good thing to lend him some money.

In supporting Bryan the South has, for the time being, parted company with civilization. To read some of the articles in such papers as the Atlanta *Constitution* about the "money power," one might fairly suppose that the editor sat at his desk with a breech-clout, and had his face ornamented with red ochre. There was no answering them from the civilized man's point of view, because to answer arguments on such subjects as currency and government the disputants have to have some common ground. The ridiculous ogre which they dressed up and called the "money power" means simply the savings all over the world of the thrifty, the frugal, the shrewd, which keep civilization from perishing by the process of continual renewal. Neither Rothschild, nor Vanderbilt, not Rockefeller would get a cent of income from their enormous fortunes if they did not invest them judiciously in great and profitable undertakings which employ millions of people. Neither the South nor any other community can profit by turning the world upside down. Industry, and fidelity, and common sense will, by and by, restore its fortunes, but it must not expect such a debauch as the Bryan business to be forgotten at once. Our belief is that the South will suffer until the support of rational legislation this year and another Presidential election show that the late lesson has had its effect, and that the people are once more clothed and in their right mind. To abuse capitalists and in the same breath try to borrow from them is not rational. There must be a little interval.

BIOGRAPHY AND AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

MR. P. G. HAMERTON began the account of his own life, which has just been published, with the assertion that he could write his own biography better than anybody else. He added that most biographies are necessarily autobiographic in any case. That is to say, in the nature and amount of the material which a famous man leaves for his biographer to work with, there is inevitably such an element of personal selection, such guiding hints, such a giving or withholding of data, as largely determine the result. The literary form is the biographer's, but the dead hand that provided the documents really writes the life.

The force of this remark might be illustrated by reference to many biographies published since Hamerton wrote. Whatever blame has been imputed to Froude's Life of Carlyle, for example, really strikes back to Carlyle himself. It

was he who furnished the letters and the manuscripts—he who turned over all that gunpowder with unlimited discretion given as to when and how it was to be exploded. If he thought that Froude would be more discreet than he proved himself, that fact itself is of the highest biographic value: the deliberate choice of an indiscreet biographer is alone significant of much, as Carlyle would say, in the character of a great man. We incline to think that Froude is not so much accounted a sinner above all that dwell in Jerusalem as he was a dozen years ago. Subsequent black deeds by other biographers may have made the world more tolerant. Purcell's 'Cardinal Manning,' for instance, has been called an attempt on the life of that prelate. But, however that may be, the justification of Hamerton's observation is apparent. Positively and directly, every man who arranges to have his own life written, practically writes a good part of it himself.

Negatively and indirectly the case is as clear. Everybody has read of the holocaust of letters and private papers which Tennyson and Browning made before their death. They were doubtless acting under terror of the new smutch of publicity on the fine and delicate things of life, of which they had seen so many warning examples. They and their friends should not be smeared in that way if a little timely burning of correspondence could prevent it. Similarly we had Taine a few years ago carefully destroying all papers and letters relating to his own life, and leaving solemn injunctions, like Thackeray, that no formal biography of him should be written. This was, in a sense, writing one's own biography by determining that none should be written. It pointed inquirers to facts already public, and referred them to the author's works as the sufficient mirror and expression of his life.

Mr. Hamerton also took up the question of printing allusions which would hurt the feelings of the living or cast a slight upon the memory of the dead. Who is least apt to offend in these ways, the biographer or the autobiographer? The latter, he contended—that is, if he undertook his work as Mr. Hamerton did his. He began to write years before his death. Who could know how better to shield the sensibilities of his friends and correspondents than he himself? But his autobiography was not to be published until after his death. Who could be more considerate of the defenceless dead than a writer who knew that he would be one of themselves when his book saw the light? All this is perhaps more nice than convincing. The taste and delicacy of the man who does the actual writing are more critical in these matters than the fact of his writing about himself or another, whether for immediate or posthumous publication. Certainly we have seen memoirs, such as those of Talleyrand and Barras, which seem to argue in their authors a fiendish delight in contemplation of the malicious flings and vitriolic personalities that would come, after long years, from their graves. Actual death may extinguish envy, but the anticipation of death does not necessarily do so.

A recent English biography, that of Archbishop Magee, has shown how biographer and autobiographer may work together to create scandal. Magee was as unlikely archiepiscopal timber as one would be apt to find. An impetuous, witty Irishman, with a fatal gift of irony and epigram, he blazed his eloquent and unconventional way along in defiance of all the traditions of ecclesiastical preferment. He was the sort of man who would get up in the House of Lords and make fun of all the dignitaries to their faces, who, on occasion, would assert there that he would rather see England free than England sober, and who was, in private life, prodigal of such epithets of sweetness and light as "unmitigated ass!" Such a man's letters and conversations could not but be full of blazing indiscretions, and his clerical biographer has printed some of them calculated to wring more than one bosom high in the English hierarchy. Yet what was to be done, and who was at fault? Magee was the author of the wicked characterizations, and left a mass of them for the use of his biographer. Should the latter have blurred the picture he was undertaking to draw? One sees how difficult a matter it is to apportion blame in such cases.

Mr. Hamerton also touches on the old question of the autobiography behind the autobiography. He maintains that an autobiographer is truthful in spite of himself. Whatever suppressions or concealments he may essay, the murder will out. Nature is too much for the most consummate actor, and fatally catches him off his guard now and then, however skilful the disguises he puts on. The idea of Rousseau which we get from his 'Confessions' can scarcely be the one he intended to convey. It is as if he unconsciously wrote some of his pages in an invisible ink which time made legible. Behind Goethe's apparent frankness in acknowledging an idealization of his own life in 'Dichtung und Wahrheit,' there lurks a certain elusiveness that of itself tells a truth to which he did not suppose himself to be giving utterance. Who will say that even the extraordinary lack of self-consciousness and the crystal objectivity of a Franklin always told the true story of his life?

Whatever the answer to these queries, their very propounding again and again, with the repeated discussion of the proper methods and limits of biography, witnesses to the indestructible charm of this branch of literature. "Don't read me history," exclaimed Horace Walpole, "for I know that cannot be true." But biography, whether wholly true or not, has a perennial interest, which indiscretion cannot wither nor plodding stale.

THE ROYAL PAGEANT IN ITALY.

Rome, October 25, 1896.

It was King Humbert's desire that the marriage of the Crown Prince to Helen, third daughter of Prince Nicholas of Montenegro, should take place in one of the great Roman basilicas. To this effect, Monsignor Anzino, his Majesty's private chaplain, sought to obtain his Holiness's consent. But, as on every occasion when the Vatican has it in its power to make difficulties for the Quirinal, the Pope refused to let the Prince's marriage be celebrated in any of the Papal churches, or even any cardinal or bishop assist at the ceremony. His Holiness suggested that the Prince should be married at Florence, in which case the Bishop should perform the service at Santa Maria del Fiore. That the Crown Prince should not be married in Rome was inadmissible; the King therefore decided that Santa Maria degli Angeli, the church which Michael Angelo designed after the tepidarium of the Baths of Diocletian, and which, having been declared a public monument, was under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction, should be prepared for the marriage, and that Monsignor Piscicelli, the Grand Prior of the Palatine Church of St. Nicholas at Bari, in which Princess Helen was to make her abjuration of the orthodox faith and to be received into the Catholic Church, should come to Rome after this function and officiate at the marriage ceremony. The priorate of St. Nicholas of Bari is an office dependent on the Government, preferment to it being in the royal appointment.

Rome has always been ready to keep festas, and the entrance of the Montenegrin Princess on Thursday with her father, Prince Nicholas, her brother, Prince Mirko, her sister, the young Princess Anna, and her suite of Montenegrin ministers and attendants, was a very fitting occasion for all Rome to turn out to meet the bride and honor the occasion. Accordingly, from an early hour the streets were alive with people; country folk bent on sightseeing were pouring into the city from all its gates, while each train brought people from the provinces to join in the welcome to their new princess. The Prince of Naples, who had been with his uncle, the Duke of Genoa, to Montenegro, to accompany his bride to Italy and to be present at the ceremony of abjuration at Bari, arrived by an earlier train and was enthusiastically greeted by cheers on his way to the Quirinal, where he was hurrying to take his place in the cortège for the reception of the Princess. The weather, after weeks of intermittent rain, was gloriously bright and sunny—a good omen in itself, and allowing the royal carriages to be open for the show. A temporary theatre of wood had been erected around the semicircular Piazza delle Terme adjoining the railway station, for those who could pay for seats, while the sidewalks from the station down Via Nazionale to the Quirinal had been packed with sightseers in two dense bands, kept back by files of troops, full three hours before the train was expected to arrive.

At a few minutes past eleven, the Royal March was heard, and the procession of carriages from the Quirinal started on its way to the station. Twelve court carriages came first with scarlet-liveried outriders, followed by four municipal coaches. After the grand master of the ceremonies and the guard of

honor came the carriage of the King and Queen, with the Prince of Naples. The Queen looked radiant and quite young; she was most becomingly dressed in golden-brown velvet embroidered with gold and trimmed with fur. She bowed graciously right and left, evidently delighted at her reception on her return to Rome; the King bowed with his habitual inexpressive automatic movement. Their Majesties were followed by Queen Maria Pia of Portugal, sister of King Humbert; her young son; the Princess Letizia; Helen of Orleans, Duchess of Aosta; the Duchess of Genoa, mother of the Queen, and her son, the Duke of Genoa, with the Duchess Isabella, his wife; Prince Victor Napoleon, the Duke of Aosta, and the Count of Turin. After the princes and princesses of the house of Savoy, came all the ladies of the Queen's household, those just appointed to be ladies in-waiting to the Princess Helen and those of the princesses. Then came the Prefect, Syndic, Senate, and other functionaries of state. It was a brilliant cortège to meet the young bride.

Those who saw her arrival in the station thought she seemed bewildered and shy, which was but natural, with all these new relatives to be introduced to her as soon as she stepped out of the train. On the return, the order of the carriages was changed: the King came first, with the Prince of Montenegro on his right hand, in Montenegrin costume. The acclamations of the crowd were most enthusiastic, and the King signified by bowing to the Prince at his side that they were in *his* honor. Nicholas of Montenegro looked immensely delighted at being thus received by a Roman crowd; his intelligent face beamed with satisfaction as he saluted in Montenegrin fashion. Then came the Queen with the bride and the Prince of Naples. The Princess Helen was dressed in green velvet embroidered in gold, with a green toque and gold aigrette. Twenty-two years of age, she is tall, dignified, graceful, and strong as a child of the Black Mountain should be. She has handsome features and an olive complexion; her large dark eyes are especially beautiful. She was educated at school in Russia, and is said to have a great love of art and to have inherited her father's gift of poetry. On the present occasion she looked pale, but smiled, and bowed responsively to the crowd, who cheered incessantly. The impression she made was excellent. She was dignified, but very gentle and modest. Her journey and the ceremony in the church at Bari, with the night journey following, and then the finding herself in the blazing sunshine, the observed of all eyes, would have been an ordeal for most young girls. The Montenegrin suite, in their red, white, and gold costumes and white-plaited tunics—brown, solid men and good-looking—attracted much observation as they went by in the carriages assigned them. As soon as the last of the Court carriages had passed, the crowd, as usual, broke the files of troops and poured down Via Nazionale to the Quirinal, where their acclamations brought the royal family on the balcony in acknowledgment.

On Friday nothing in particular happened—only an interchange of visits among the royal people at the palace of the Consulta, where the Montenegrin princes are lodged, and the Quirinal, and the reception in the afternoon of the Senate and the Chamber by the King and Queen and Prince of Naples. Meanwhile preparations for the religious ceremony were going on at Santa Maria degli Angeli with more speed than is at all usual in Rome. The façade, which had never been finished, was extended by two stucco pilasters with appropriate inscriptions, between which a handsome baldaquin was erected, very effective in color—blue, white, and gold—on which the arms of the houses of Savoy and Petrovitch were blended. On the summit of the pilasters were vases of flowers, while before the door hung a tapestry curtain on which an angel was represented with the arms of the two houses woven together, with the date October 24, 1896. The Piazza delle Terme looked, when all was ready on Saturday morning, like a vast amphitheatre. The graduated seats of the scaffoldings in quarter circles on either side the church were covered with bunting, and adorned with gold imperial eagles and baskets of flowers at equal distances; the great fountain in the centre played over a vast parterre of flowers.

All was ready as we entered the church at nine to take our places in the remote tribune to which our tickets for the press admitted us. The church seemed transformed into a vast reception-room, with its scarlet carpet and rows of chairs for the invited guests. To right and left were graduated scaffoldings divided into tribunes for the ticket-holders of different categories. The gigantic pillars were half hidden by groups of tall palms and plants at each of the corners of the Greek cross. The high altar had been moved forward to make room for the choir and organ, and on either side hung the precious tapestries Napoleon had given to Pius VII., representing our Lord washing the feet of Peter, and the Last Supper. The altar-piece, newly varnished for the occasion, is by Vanvitelli, a painter of the early part of the last century. By ten o'clock the places were mostly filled. The ladies were all in court dresses and trains with white veils, the gentlemen in uniform with their orders. It was amusing to note the difference in the manner each lady had of wearing her veil and managing her train. The day was a chilly one, with gray sky and threatened rain, so prudent dames came in large white-fur pelerines, which were very unbecoming, making them look like mounds of snow on account of the large puffs of their sleeves beneath. Those who cared for their appearance had their veils adjusted high on their heads, tightly gathered round them, and hanging down to the waist, so as to lose nothing of the outline of neck and shoulders. They dropped their trains on entering, and walked along to their places like proud and graceful peacocks. The ladies of the diplomatic corps were all splendidly dressed and wore magnificent jewels; the trains were all four metres on the ground. The favorite colors were light blue and yellow, dark blue velvet; violet and mauve of various tints for the older ladies, and white brocades of every variety for the younger.

The chapter of the church met Monsignor Piscicelli at his arrival at the door and accompanied him to his place. The entrance of Crispi just before the arrival of the royal party excited the curiosity of the crowd. As the elder of the wearers of the collar of the Annunziata, people were curious to see whether he would shake hands with the Marchese di Rudini, who had the day before received this honor, the greatest in the King's gift, and whom he had to pass before. He walked quietly to his seat, not noticing Rudini, and was greeted by the other wearers of the collar, Gen. Cosenz, the Hon. Farini, President of the Senate, and Donna Laura Minghetti, widow of a knight of the Annunziata. The organ began the music composed for the entrance of the Princess by the Roman organist Capocci, and the Queen's ladies-in-waiting with the Montenegrin suite hastily filled the vacant places, while the representative of the Palatine clergy and the vice-rector of Santa Maria degli Angeli at the door of the church offered holy water to the royal party just entering. The King and Queen came first, taking their seats to the right of the altar; the Queen wore a gold brocade train. Then came the bride in white, with a train on which silver marguerites were woven. She wore a diadem of large pearls and diamonds, the gift of the King, and a long mantilla of exquisite lace, which Queen Margaret had given her. Her father, Prince Nicholas, on whose arm she leaned, was in a splendid red velvet and gold costume, with white tunic. The Prince of Naples followed, with Queen Maria Pia and the other princesses of the House of Savoy in their prescribed order of precedence, taking their places immediately behind their Majesties, while the princes were to the left behind the prie-dieu to which the bride had been led by the side of the Prince of Naples. A silver baldaquin was held over the heads of bride and bridegroom, while Monsignor Piscicelli performed the ceremony of the giving of the ring. The Gregorian chant of the introit was exquisitely given by the choir, as also some of the music of Palestrina from the Missa Brevis, and a gradual, offertory and communio expressly composed for the occasion by Bossi. The nuptial benediction played by the organ was Sgambati's. While the music was excellent, it inconsiderately lengthened out the service, the bride kneeling almost all the time, reading a book of the service which the Queen had had prepared for her. The Prince of Naples stood, as did the King and all the princes. The Duchess Helen of Aosta (the French princess) looked remarkably graceful and handsome in her silver petticoat with pale-blue velvet train, and was in marked contrast with Princess Letizia, who looked her best also in her becoming dress of white and orange velvet.

After the mass and a short sermon which Monsignor Piscicelli read to the royal couple, the procession left the church, bride and bridegroom leading the way. The return procession to the Quirinal was more enthusiastically vociferous than before, and bride and bridegroom had to appear on the balcony again. The civil marriage had taken place at the Quirinal before the religious one. In the afternoon the Prince and Princess of Naples drove about the city together, looking happy and amused at the enthusiastic greetings they received on every side from the people. To-day, Sunday, at 10, they went to pray at the tomb of Victor Emanuel in the Pantheon. On Tuesday there will be a grand review of the troops. A gala night at the opera, on which occasion "Puritani" will be given, a state concert at the Quirinal, and a general reception of all who have been presented at Court will be the climax for Rome of the wedding festivities. The streets are illuminated every night, flags are flying from almost every house, and the sound of military music is heard at all hours. A modest display of fireworks will be let off on the Janiculum this evening. M. S.

GEN. TROCHU'S MEMOIRS.—I.

PARIS, October 31, 1896.

As Governor of Paris during the long siege of 1870, Gen. Trochu will always have a name in history, a name which will be associated with one of the greatest misfortunes that

France has ever suffered. After the peace which followed the capitulation of Paris, Trochu ceased to play any part in our history; he died recently in a dignified solitude, but he left Memoirs which will be read with a painful interest.

When Émile Ollivier published memoirs, some years ago, Bismarck is said to have passed on them this severe judgment: "When a man has brought on his country such misfortunes as Émile Ollivier brought on France, the only thing for him to do is to be silent and try to be forgotten." General Trochu does not fall under this condemnation; he did not bring on his country the misfortune of the war of 1870, he was not one of the members of the *camarilla* which surrounded the Empress, which persuaded her that a war with Germany was the only way to secure the throne for her young son, and which was aware of the increasing weakness of Napoleon III., caused by an incurable disease. In fact, General Trochu, far from being *persona grata* at Court, was considered as a *frondeur*, as belonging to the Opposition.

Trochu's military career had been passed in Algeria; he had become attached to the staff of Marshal Bugeaud, who held him in very great esteem. He followed this commander in all his expeditions, from the repression of the great insurrection which followed the disaster of Sidi-Brahim; he assisted him in the conquest of Kabylia, which crowned the conquest of Algeria; he was at his side at the battle of Isly. In July, 1847, Marshal Bugeaud left Algeria for ever and returned to France. Trochu returned with him and stayed some time with him at his château of Durantie, in Périgord. "Come, we have never taken any rest, and I need you," wrote the Marshal to him. "I intend to write the history of the Algerian conquest." "The history," says Trochu, "was begun, but what became of it after the death of my illustrious chief, and what became of Durantie—fallen into the hands of strangers? Hardly had a few years elapsed before a part of the descendants of the Marshal were dead and the rest dispersed into obscurity." The Marshal, in his retirement, said one evening to Trochu: "You are, I think, the youngest superior officer of the army. More fortunate than I, you will reach the summit without going, as I have done, through an almost uninterrupted series of revolutions and of wars."

"'I should not be surprised, Monsieur le Maréchal, if I saw more revolutions and wars.' The Marshal, extremely surprised and almost out of humor—'Your opinion,' said he, 'is very paradoxical; mine is very natural. We have a king who is a model of experience and wisdom. Moreover, he has gone through a long period of revolution and wars; he has suffered by it, and his whole programme of government sums itself up in views of prosperity at home and of peace abroad. He has realized the first by the application of the liberal ideas with which he is imbued. After some years of struggle the factions are now vanquished. Agriculture, industry, commerce have taken on the happiest development. As for our foreign relations, the prudence of the constitutional Government has finally reconciled the monarchies which surround us with the France of 1830.'"

And so the old Marshal went on, insisting on the "relays of sons" who surrounded the King, sons who had been brought up with their contemporaries in the French public schools. Trochu, who was fond of argumentation, explained in his turn the reasons of his pessimism, which he opposed to the old Marshal's optimism. His chief argument was the absence in France of what he called public spirit—"a conservative force, at once social and political, found only in nations which have not been subjected to the assault of several successive revolutions. In England, for instance, which has had no revolution since 1688, this force, this public spirit, establishes between all classes of English society, from the Queen to the Thames boatman, a tie of solidarity and of respect which preserves the crown in a crisis. There are parties in England, and at certain moments factions, which might become as revolutionary as ours; but public spirit contains them. I believe that in France the uninterrupted succession of our revolutions, which are alternately democratic or autocratic, or of a mixed character, like the revolution which founded the Government of today, have divided and enervated the nation to such a point that all public spirit has disappeared. In this ruin of the conservative national element the Government has no other support than the vote of the assemblies. The edifice which has such weak foundations may fall in a day of revolutionary commotion."

These words were prophetic. Marshal Bugeaud soon afterwards returned to Paris, and Trochu followed him. The campaign of the banquets, which preceded the Revolution of 1848, was in full swing. These banquets had for their object to create an agitation in favor of electoral reform. On the morning of February 23, 1848, the Marshal had a visit from the military commander of Paris; firing had taken place between the soldiers who were on guard at the Foreign Office and some men who had fired pistols on the soldiers without any provocation. The Marshal set out with Trochu for the Tuileries. He wished to see the King. They went together in a cab. It was near dinner-time; the King detained the Marshal and his aide-de-camp at dinner.

"You will believe me," says Trochu, "if I say that, never before having attended a royal dinner, I well remember this. The guests were at least forty, all unknown to me, who had just come from the army in Africa, where all my youth had been spent; but, from portraits which I had seen a hundred times, I recognized the King, the Queen, the Duchess of Orleans, the Princes. There were no presentations; the dinner passed in great silence, interrupted only by the intermittent appearances of certain officers coming from outside with news which they gave to General Christian Dumas, whose physiognomy revealed no uneasiness when he reported them to the King. Shall I add that during this dinner, the last which the Tuileries was to see, a singular circumstance (which was perhaps characteristic of the composure of King Louis Philippe in these grave conjunctures) struck me? He had before him a large ham, and he himself cut with much care thin slices which a servant, standing behind him, carried to some of the personages who were present."

After dinner Marshal Bugeaud retired with the King and the ministers. When he reappeared he looked very red and agitated. He left in a hurry with his aide-de-camp, and said to him at the head of the great staircase, "I have offered myself. M. Guizot and the other ministers do not think the gravity of the circumstances such as would necessitate my intervention in the command. They judge that it would, in the eyes of the Parisians, appear an untimely threat. There is nothing to do; let us go." It was ten o'clock; at midnight the Marshal was summoned in great haste to the Tuileries by the King. A new ministry was formed, with the mission of announcing to the populace the concession of electoral reform and the convocation of the national guard.

At an early hour of the 24th of February, Trochu was advised that the King was going to review a few battalions of the National Guard in the Court of the Tuileries. He accompanied Marshal Bugeaud, who received the King, mounted on a superb horse, in the uniform of the National Guard. "Some of those present were not convinced that the King would be comforted by warm acclamations from these choice battalions to whom he paid the honor of this national visit. How shall I express the disappointment which seized us when the King, riding slowly before the front of the first battalion, was received with very rare cries of 'Vive le Roi,' smothered by the concert of 'Vive la Réforme'? The impression made on the King must have been painful, for, not long afterwards, interrupting his review, he reëntered the Tuileries." This episode was the beginning of the end. Louis Philippe thought himself abandoned by the National Guard, which was representative of the middle classes. He resolved to abdicate. Marshal Bugeaud had been asked by the new cabinet, the cabinet of an hour, to quit the command of the troops. Trochu thought it his duty to join the King and the Princes, as firing was heard very near the Tuileries. With a brother officer, he rode to the Tuileries; they tied their horses to the grille and entered.

"In a small salon, receiving a great light from the windows on the garden, King Louis Philippe, in civilian clothes, bent over a table, is engrossed in writing, from time to time lifting his head as if to collect his thoughts. We see only his back. In the middle of the room Queen Marie Amélie, pale under her white hair, is sitting on a chair looking at the King. Near her, standing, a German prince, young, distinguished-looking [it was the Prince of Saxe-Coburg, married to Princess Clémentine, one of the King's daughters]; near him, standing also, the Duke of Montpensier, who seems agitated, and who goes twice to speak in the King's ear, with a sort of vivacity. Behind the King's table stands motionless an aged and respectable looking man, whose aspect has nothing military. My companion tells me it is Marshal Gérard; he is in civilian's clothes."

Nobody seemed to object to the presence there of a journalist, Émile de Girardin, who had come in and who was discoursing loudly while the King wrote.

"The King gets up, with a piece of paper in his hand, turns towards the bystanders, especially the Queen, and, with a firm voice and attitude, reads the act of abdication which he has just written. The Duke de Montpensier receives it from the King and hands it to Marshal Gérard, who retires. The King joins the Queen, the Duke de Montpensier, the German prince, and they reënter the interior of the palace. But, before disappearing, the Queen stops a moment, lifts her arms to heaven, joining her hands in a movement full of painful and striking dignity: 'Oh, how they will regret us!'"

Trochu was thus accidentally the witness of the principal scene in the beginning of the revolution which, a few hours afterwards, ended in the proclamation of the Republic.

"This revolution," he says, "passed, so to speak, between the legs of our horses, unattacked, unattacking; and the explanation which the legend (which, as usual, became history) found for this easy and extraordinary invasion is imaginary. This revolution was or seemed irresistible merely because, from the beginning of the agitation of the banquets to its consummation, public spirit never and in no degree was a support to the Government. It sufficed, to throw it down, that a few thousands of revolutionists should scream 'Vive la Ligue!' without any act of aggression, and that they should be assisted by as many politicians and loafers of Paris, screaming 'Vive la Réforme!'"

Trochu had become in Africa the friend of all the generals who appeared on the political stage during the Second Republic—of Cavaignac, of LeFlô, of Lamoricière, of Duvivier, of Bedeau; he remained to the end the aide-de-camp of Bugeaud, who died in his arms at

his château in Périgord. After the funeral, as he returned to Paris, the first visit he received was from an officer of Prince Napoleon, who had been named President of the Republic. Napoleon offered him a place on his military staff, in memory of Marshal Bugeaud.

Correspondence.

HOW THEY VOTED IN VIRGINIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Probably all your readers will be interested in the following extract from a letter just received:

"The status of things in Virginia is very painful to any one who has the interest of the State at heart. In 1888, when we had a pretty fair election, Cleveland's majority was about 1,500. In 1892, when many Democrats didn't vote for him, it was about 50 000. There was outrageous cheating everywhere, and several Congressmen were unseated on contests. A number of prominent 'workers' in Richmond itself were indicted before a federal grand jury, and their indictment subsequently quashed by a friendly commonwealth attorney. This year for the second time the Australian ballot system has been used in a Presidential election. Bryan's majority as returned was about 20,000. In the *white* counties the returns show a Republican gain of 30,214. In the *black* counties they show a Democratic gain of 9,176, a net Republican gain of 21,038 in the State. If the darkies had been allowed to vote, the gain would have been larger, naturally. I believe the returns are pretty fairly counted, although a big percentage of the votes was thrown out everywhere by reason of improperly marked ballots. The ballot would have puzzled a Philadelphia lawyer. It took me 1¼ minutes to mark mine. The whole fact of the matter is, that with a free vote and a fair count the State would have gone for McKinley by about 20.000 and elected 7 or 8 Republican Congressmen instead of only 2. Contests will be made though, and sound-money clubs have kept up their organization and employed attorneys to vigorously prosecute fraudulent registrars, judges of election, etc. There will be hard times ahead for some of these gentry. I enclose a clipping from the editorial of the Richmond *Times* of November 6, the most important newspaper in the State.

"The method of fraud was very interesting. This precinct, which includes the little town of Ashland and some nearby portions of the county, has about 1,000 registered voters. There were 629 minutes in all from sunrise to sunset of November 3, which naturally required pretty quick work on the part of election officers to get everybody voted. We had anticipated delay tactics, so we got two or three hundred darkies and white men who were known to be anti-Bryan in line 'while it was yet night.' Certain of the knowing ones among us went in early to see what the ballot looked like and to try to head off frauds if possible. It was well we did. In this State the ballot is a dead secret, as to its contents and the order of names upon it, until election day. The candidates for Congress were a certain Mr. Lamb, Bryanite, and Mr. L. L. Lewis, Republican, generally and universally spoken of as Judge Lewis, seeing that he was President of the Supreme Court of the State, a most excellent gentleman. He had been, as I said, practically known as 'Judge Lewis.'

"The ballot read:

John Lamb,
W. H. Lewis,
L. L. Lewis,
Elisha L. Lewis,
John Mitchell.

"Naturally, with this profusion of Lewises the poor nigger who could read didn't know once in a dozen times which one to vote for. It may be said, *en passant*, that to this day nobody knows who the two strange Lewises and Mitchell are.

"Not content with this, they had provided with the ballots pens and a fluid made up of copying ink and mucilage, wherewith to mark the ballots. Now our law is that the voter must cross out the names of all but one candidate for each office with a mark at least three-fourths the length of the name as printed. It required 14 marks to vote a straight ticket. The ballot was about 5 inches wide and perhaps 16 inches long. Imagine the result of 14 heavy black ink-and-mucilage marks on this folded half-a-dozen times.

"Inasmuch as pencil marks are permitted, we had only to warn our friends to use pencils and to see that they had pencils to use. The count gave Bryan a majority of 14; Cleveland's majority in '92 was 265. The total vote for all three Lewises was in excess of that for Lamb, but Lamb got the biggest vote for any one name. About forty ballots were thrown out.

"The gold Democrats had no judge of election representing them. The rule is that there shall be three judges, two from the dominant party in the last election and one from the next. We had, in consequence, two hard-shell silverites and a negro; with the best intentions in the world the latter could make no stand against the two white men.

"This is the true and veracious history of the election here. The effect of it all is perhaps best illustrated by what took place election night in Richmond at the Westmoreland Club. This club is the most select and representative body in Richmond, having a membership of 250. It is largely composed of the older and more solid men of the city, and is to Richmond about what the Knickerbocker or Century Club is to New York. The gold men are about five to one in its membership. Election night they had wires put in and two operators to receive the press returns. About 200 gentlemen were present in the big parlors to hear the result. It had been tacitly understood that no demonstration of applause was to be made, on account of those members whose feelings might be hurt. Things were pretty quiet until, about eleven o'clock, the news of Altgeld's defeat in Illinois and the certainty of McKinley's carrying that State came in. Then the irrepressible applause broke out, and for the first time in the memory of man a gathering of the best men in Richmond, lawyers, merchants, and all sorts of men, cheered a Republican victory. It was great, and it made me feel good to see that the best of us could rise up superior to party, and vote for the good of the country."

The editorial from the Richmond *Times* of November 6, 1896, on "Virginia's Vote," is herewith enclosed.—Cordially yours,

J. S. B.

NEW YORK, November 11, 1896.

AMERICAN STUDENTS IN FRANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A communication having appeared in your issue of October 8 ("American Students in France," by W. H. Schofield), whose tendencies may have been misleading, I beg to submit a letter written by M. Michel Bréal of Paris, Member of the Institute, Professor of the College of France, and Chairman of the Comité Franco-Américain. The words of M. Bréal may serve to correct any erroneous impressions to which the statements of your former correspondent may have given rise.

Very respectfully yours,

HARRY J. FURBER.

CHICAGO, November 12, 1896.

PARIS, 30 Octobre, 1896.

CHER MONSIEUR:

J'ai lu l'article de la *Nation* de New York que vous m'avez communiqué. Je vois avec regret que des rivalités de personnes menacent de se mêler à un mouvement qui devrait réunir dans un même sentiment tous ceux qui s'intéressent au progrès de la science et à la bonne union des peuples.

La part que vous avez prise à ce mouvement est incontestable. En pareil cas, l'initiative est le fait capital. C'est vous qui l'avez prise, en soumettant un mémoire au ministre de l'instruction publique de France. Vous avez, de cette manière, saisi l'opinion de la question.

Vous avez aussi visité nos Universités de province, si peu connues de l'étranger, et vous êtes ainsi assuré des ressources variées d'instruction que possède la France. Ces faits ne peuvent être niés.

Je quitte ce sujet pour vous dire que probablement l'année scolaire ne se passera pas sans que la licence ès lettres (philosophie, histoire, littérature, philologie) soit rendue aussi accessible aux étrangers que l'est déjà la licence ès sciences. Vous savez qu'une fois pourvu du grade de *licencié*, rien ne s'oppose à ce qu'on prenne le titre de *docteur*.

Vous voyez que de notre côté nous faisons ce qui dépend de nous pour faciliter de plus en plus les rapports entre les universités françaises et les universités américaines. Il faut espérer que tout cela aboutira à un heureux résultat.

Je profite de cette occasion, cher Monsieur, pour vous renouveler l'assurance de mes sentiments bien sympathiques.

(Signed) MICHEL BRÉAL.

À Monsieur Harry Furber de Chicago.

SUMMER SCHOLARSHIPS FOR TEACHERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is to-day no method by which a teacher's knowledge is so well refreshed and strengthened as by study at the summer schools now instituted in connection with many of our colleges and universities. These schools are better, as a rule, than those that have been organized in the form of summer institutes under State or private control, for, instead of dissipating and tiring the attention, they concentrate it on one or two subjects that the student selects from a large list of offerings. While many of the college summer courses are not particularly related to common-school teaching, others are very pertinent to the needs of the teacher. It is true that they do not dwell on the minutiæ of method, but they supply in fresh and vigorous form just such expanded knowledge of a subject as the progressive teacher needs for her own comfort and peace of mind while she is teaching its elements. Although these summer schools involve a certain measure of mental effort, this is of a kind so unlike that called forth in school-teaching, and the whole occasion is so free from the wearing responsibilities of the school-room, that a teacher in good health finds the change of thought and scene an invigorating rather than an exhausting experience.

But if it is now suggested to a teacher that she might to advantage spend a month or six weeks of her vacation at some college perhaps a hundred or more miles from her home, she may fairly answer that her small salary will not enable her to enjoy such a luxury; and here is the point of the whole matter. Teachers cannot, as a rule, afford on their present salaries to pay for the summer instruction that they need; hence the payment should be made, under certain restrictions, by the school authorities. Their duty is not done when the school building is erected, warmed, provided with desks, books, apparatus; when teachers are engaged and set to work on a certain programme. Besides all this, systematic opportunity for study on the part of the teachers must be afforded, and sooner or later this must come to be recognised.

This phase of the problem was last spring brought to the attention of the Woman's Education Association of Boston, and, as an experiment, a fund of nearly four hundred dollars was thereupon accumulated, partly from the treasury of the Association, partly by special subscription, to provide scholarships for Boston teachers in some approved collegiate summer school. After consultation with the officials, ten teachers were nominated for "nine and a half" scholarships—the fund did not quite provide ten—and, according to a report lately made to the association, all took advantage of the opportunity thus afforded, with pleasure and profit. It is probable that a similar effort will be made next spring, when the number of teachers reached may be somewhat increased.

It will be a long time before the public funds will suffice to provide any considerable number of scholarships of this kind, and in the meantime the plan should be brought to the attention of local organizations, such as village-improvement societies, women's clubs, teachers' associations, and the like, from which at least one or two scholarships might be provided in every large village or small city. The school authorities might then appoint the beneficiaries. It does not seem advisable that the less competent teachers should be thus "patched up"; they should not be reengaged when their incompetence is discovered. The competent, progressive teachers are the ones in which a village can best invest its scholarships, thus raising the standard of competence higher than before.

Two practical results may be expected to follow from the local establishment of summer scholarships in this way. The local and even the State authorities will in time be led to consider the formal adoption of the scheme; and even if only one scholarship is allotted to a town having twenty teachers, the investment will be a good one, yielding visible dividends. Furthermore, generous testators will here find a new direction in which they can give assistance to their native or adopted home; and a bequest of moderate amount, as bequests go nowadays, would thus yield a long-lasting benefit. The Gregg Fund of the Indianapolis School Board is thus applied. It seems that Thomas D. Gregg, a native of Vermont, but for some years resident in Indianapolis, dying in 1876, left his property, valued at $25,000, to the city "for the benefit of its schools." It is hardly necessary to say that the will was contested; but the city received about $10,000, and since then this sum has increased to $22,000 in the hands of a judicious trustee. In 1894 it was decided by the school board, led by Mr. Jones (now Superintendent of Schools at Cleveland), to apply the income of the fund, about $1,400, to providing scholarships for teachers. No teacher over forty years old is eligible. The beneficiaries receive half their usual pay, as well as the scholarship, and obligate themselves to teach for at least five years in the city schools of Indianapolis. Some have thus spent a year in Europe; others have attended summer schools in this country, as advocated above. It can hardly be doubted that as soon as the knowledge of this excellent fund is widely spread, similar funds will be generously provided elsewhere.

There is one direction in which those who are interested in the plan here outlined may even now exert pressure on school officials with some fair chance of success. This is on the State boards of education, under whose control the normal schools are conducted. A very moderate expenditure would suffice to send a teacher from each normal school in a State to some summer course; and whether the normal teachers are college graduates or not, the result of such refreshment in their special fields of work would be most advantageous. It will be interesting to note the first State in which this practical plan finds adoption. D. V.

ELEMENTARY ENGLISH IN THE SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To get at the trouble in this matter we have to go back of the high schools to the grammar schools. The mistakes that shock one in candidates for a freshman class are generally such as ought to have been shameful in candidates for a high school three or four years before.

A few weeks ago one of my children entered the fifth grade of a grammar school. I had to provide two drawing-books, four blank-books, and seven text-books. This experience discloses one of the causes of the weakness of pupils in the ability to write English. The children have so many things to do that they have no time to learn quietly to write simple English correctly.

I do not think that the teachers like this condition of affairs. If there is one wish common to every one engaged in the work of education, it is the desire to have young people learn to write simple English correctly. The "classical" men and the "science" men and the "practical" men all agree on this point. One will hear from a professor of Greek, from a professor of chemistry, and from a business man the same complaint, that the young men who come to them do not write English with decent correctness.

This is a homely subject, but one in which I believe most readers of the *Nation* are interested. I therefore beg leave to say, speaking from considerable experience in primary work, that I think two changes are necessary. First, school-boards and superintendents must consent to simplify the programmes of the upper grades of the grammar schools. Secondly, they must throw away the nice-looking "language lessons" and substitute a simpler method, with more practice and less rule. Nothing is so good for teaching the correct writing of English to young pupils as the simple practice of dictation exercises, chosen, to suit the pupil's age, from some well-printed edition of a classic author. The "language lessons" give a great deal of theory and direction, while the need is constant practice and correction.—Very respectfully,

James H. Dillard.

Tulane University, New Orleans, Nov. 14, 1896.

CHAUCER IN ITALY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: From a communication in your last number it appears that I have been unwittingly driving a furrow in the Chaucer field already traced by Prof. Flügel. Now that my attention is for the first time called to his review of Prof. Skeat's Chaucer in the *Dial* of February 16, 1895, it is clear that the "new" Chaucer date, for the end of the first Italian journey, was then first given to the reading public as an ingenious surmise; first raised to certainty by a line of Latin in my communication to the *Nation* of October 8. The ratio of credit for the "new" date I am quite content to leave to Prof. Flügel's generosity, joining him heartily in the wish that all Chaucer records may soon be printed in a single volume.

In justice to Prof. Flügel, however, I must insist that the date as then given by him was "new" to Chaucer scholars as well as to the general public. The description of the roll in "Fresh Chaucer Notices" (1873) is not only ambiguous, but wrong as it is there punctuated. As it stands it can mean only that the accounts, not the journeys, lasted from December to May. Prof. Skeat, not unnaturally, so read the description, and Prof. Flügel alone among Chaucer scholars appears to have seen the true, behind the literal, interpretation of the notice. Appreciating the value of his surmise, one could wish that he had published it more conspicuously, while he cannot but be gratified to see it vindicated by the publication of the roll.

Oddly enough, since I learned of these foreign accounts, through the personal kindness of the president of the Chaucer Society, the Chaucer Society notice came under my eye only after I had printed the roll in the November *Modern Language Notes*. A communication already in the hands of the editors of that journal will make due amends.

Regretting that my ignorance of Prof. Flügel's review made it obviously impossible for me to acknowledge its priority in the communication of October 8, I gladly make good that omission at this earliest opportunity.

Frank Jewett Mather, Jr.

Williams College, November 13, 1896.

MR. NOGUCHI AND HIS PUBLISHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In justice to Mr. Yone Noguchi, the Japanese poet, and in defence of our own rights as his editors and publishers, we would call attention to the misleading character of an announcement that appears in the *Philistine* for November. It is stated therein that a book of verse by Mr. Noguchi will be put out by the Roycroft Press about Christmas. In point of fact, Mr. Hubbard has no manuscripts of Mr. Noguchi but three, which he has refused to return, one of which he prints in the current number of the *Philistine*, ignoring the author's desire that it should not be published in the shape it appears. As regards the issuance of a book of poems, Mr. Hubbard has no authority for announcing anything of the kind, and can base his action only upon an assumption of Mr. Noguchi's consent.

He further errs in stating that Mr. Noguchi is a pupil of Joaquin Miller, for such is not a fact, in any wise.

Of the purpose of the Society of Philistines to give a dinner to Mr. Noguchi, it need only be said that that gentleman has not been consulted, and has given his enterprising host no encouragement whatever.

Very truly yours,

Gelett Burgess & Porter Garnett.

24 Montgomery Street,
San Francisco, Nov. 5, 1896.

Notes.

Way & Williams have nearly ready 'The Acrobatic Muse,' humorous verse by Richard Kendall Munkittrick; and 'Hours with Famous Parisians,' by Stuart Henry.

A Life of Roger Sherman is announced for

speedy publication by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Henry T. Coates & Co., Philadelphia, will make a holiday edition of Charles Yriarte's 'Venice,' with index, map, and twenty-eight photogravures.

Copeland & Day are about to issue 'A Boy's Book of Rhyme,' by Clinton Scollard.

Early next month, Gelett Burgess & Porter Garnett, San Francisco, will publish 'Seen and Unseen,' poems by Yone Noguchi.

Charles Scribner's Sons will issue directly 'On the Trail of Don Quixote,' by August F. Jacacci; 'How to Listen to Music,' by H. E. Krehbiel; 'Songs of Childhood,' composed upon twenty of Eugene Field's lyrics, by Reginald de Koven, Arthur Foote, and others; the Complete Poems of the late H. C. Bunner; 'A Winter Swallow,' by Edith M. Thomas; 'That First Affair, and Other Sketches', by J. A. Mitchell; and 'Margaret Ogilvy,' by J. M. Barrie.

The diligence of T. Y. Crowell & Co. in communing with the past continues unabated, and we have from them Adolphus William Ward's edition of Pope's Poetical Works in two volumes, illustrated—more comely externally than in its condensed typography; Bourrienne's Memoirs, also in two volumes with illustrations, but more agreeable to the eye; and a presentable little reprint of Hawthorne's 'Wonder-Book.' The Bourrienne has been, by the aid of thin paper, reduced from four volumes, and has therefore not been promoted, but for reference it answers every purpose, and there has been a reduction in the price.

We are not surprised that a third edition of Mr. John Dennie's readable and scholarly 'Rome of To-day and Yesterday: The Pagan City' has been called for in three years. Seldom does one meet with more animated description in a field where it is difficult to escape being as dry as a guide-book. Since we gave the book welcome, the imprint has been changed to that of G. P. Putnam's Sons, who now send it out in a very elegant dress. The fifty-eight illustrations from photographs are unhackneyed in a quite unusual proportion, with fresh points of view even for familiar objects. No better popular introduction to Roman antiquities could be named. The amount of information compressed in it is enormous.

As usual at this season, the Messrs. Putnam put their chief effort into Irving, and we have 'Bracebridge Hall' in two volumes, dubbed the Surrey Edition. A deep border in green surrounds the letterpress, with a change of two patterns, both designed by Margaret Armstrong, and well designed for their purpose. Mr. Christy's initial letters are hardly in keeping with this framing, nor do they call for praise as invention; but they do not offend. The illustrations, by numerous well-known artists, are of excellent average quality, and, were they less harmonious than they are, are separated by broad spaces of text and have a full page for each plate. Miss Armstrong, again, furnishes the successful cover design, in white and buff and gold. Altogether, the publishers have not fallen short of their previous efforts in this line, while attaining a novel effect.

"Shakspere and no end," in a dozen 16mo volumes contained in a trim case, comes to us [illegible]ppincott Co. The set has been [illegible] in Edinburgh, with the cus[illegible] that city. The [illegible]er of good [illegible]ady to the hand. There are no notes, and the only apparatus consists of a linear glossary in fine type for the more obsolete expressions, and of a chronological table at the end of the third volume, for the plays. It is no longer easy to rank this class of minor Shaksperian issues, but the present one should be an acceptable possession for anybody.

Meanwhile the delectable little Dent-Macmillan "Temple Shakspere" proceeds to its happy conclusion with 'Venus and Adonis' and 'The Rape of Lucrece'; and the same combination produces two more of the admirable Balzac series, 'Beatrix' and 'The Peasantry,' while Macmillan alone brings out the fifth of Björnson's novels, 'The Bridal March, and One Day,' stories just twenty years apart in time, and the last a temperance idyll.

Miss Wormeley's translation of Balzac (Roberts Bros.) has for its latest production 'Juana.'

The uniform Riverside Edition of Mrs. Stowe's Writings (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) goes rapidly forward with three additional volumes; two being given up to 'Dred, and Other Anti-Slavery Tales,' and the third to 'Stories, Sketches, and Studies,' in which is included the memorable sketch of "Sojourner Truth, the Libyan Sibyl"—and orator, if one were to describe her fully. 'Dred' has its own little 'Key,' in the guise of an appendix. Richmond's flattering portrait of the author, with two imaginative illustrations, form the frontispieces.

Finally, Messrs. Scribner send us two more volumes of their solid and handsome "Thistle Edition" of Barrie's novels, tales, and sketches, namely, 'A Window in Thrums' and 'An Edinburgh Eleven,' and the first part of 'A Little Minister.'

Dr. Carl Horstman continues, with unabated zeal, his activity in the publication of Middle English religious works. The second volume of 'Richard Rolle of Hampole and his Followers' has just appeared (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan). It contains nearly four hundred pages of important texts, the most extensive of which is the metrical Psalter often ascribed to Rolle, and formerly edited by Stevenson for the Surtees Society. Perhaps the most interesting piece in the volume, however, is certainly not by Rolle; it is entitled "A Talking of the Love of God," and is an ecstatic and ejaculatory meditation, written in a strange mixture of prose and verse. Dr. Horstman's plan is to "follow up the Northern manuscripts which contain, or may contain, Rolle's works," and to lay the results before his readers in the mass. His method of editing is well known, and, though open to criticism in several points, is yet, on the whole, a sound and useful one. We wish he could be persuaded to give, if not an index, at least a table of contents! The introduction is an intensely interesting study of the life and character of Richard Rolle, who was certainly one of the most remarkable men of his time. Dr. Horstman promises an edition of the Latin works, which will be very welcome, in "one of the next volumes" of the series. We wish him all success in his arduous task.

Archæologists have learned to look for original research and independent views in every new work of Mr. Cecil Torr. His latest, 'On the Interpretation of Greek Music' (H. Frowde), has these qualities in a high degree. The author regards the recent interpretation of ancient music as radically defective, because, by using the modern scale of equal temperament, it represents different ancient notes by one and the same modern note. Mr. Torr's own notation, by letters, numbers, and dots, is cumbrous, liable to confusion, and, after all, not much easier than the original note-letters. Mr. Torr, after manipulating the mathematical ratios of the Greek scale in an ingenious but somewhat abstruse way, had himself a series of tuning-forks made according to his discoveries. He declares that the sequence of tones, semitones, and quarter tones is exceedingly pleasing to the ear. However this may be, his calculations are of great value as finally disposing of Mr. D. B. Monro's absurd notion that the Greek modes differed in nothing but pitch. In treating of the duration of notes, Mr. Torr finds a curious analogy between the octave with its six tones of three steps each and its two semitones of two steps, on the one hand, and the hexameter, with its dactyls of three syllables and its spondees of two, on the other, the analogy being made closer by the cæsural division of the verse and the two tetrachords of the scale.

Leach, Shewell & Sanborn, Boston, have issued, under the direction of C. A. Duniway of the Harvard Graduate School, the handbook of (American) 'Graduate Courses, 1896–97,' with a useful account of the academic careers of professors and instructors, and much other information desirable in making a choice of institutions (twenty-four in all).

We had occasion, not long ago, to speak of Mr. D. H. Fisher's transformation of Boissier's 'Rome et Pompéi.' The same enchanter has been at his spells again, and, in 'The Country of Horace and Virgil' (Putnams), we have what he has made of Boissier's charming second series of 'Promenades Archéologiques.' We can honestly congratulate Mr. Fisher upon his improvement in writing English; the book reads easily, and the style and subject are both attractive. But we cannot help thinking that when a man meddles with Roman subjects, he ought at least to be fairly well acquainted with Latin. Whether one has such acquaintance who puts periods into the middle of Latin sentences, and who prints such things as *ahi*, *flacco*, *ocupletem*, *deerent*, *Marullus* (twice on one page, for Marcellus), and *credas adduction* (for *dicas adductum*)—this question we leave to the answer of the reader.

Mr. Shuckburgh, in his edition of Suetonius's 'Augustus' (Cambridge [Eng.] University Press; New York: Macmillan), deals with the work almost entirely as a biography. He accepts in the main the text of Roth, and does not contribute much towards its improvement, although he makes one or two useful suggestions in his introduction, and his preface contains a few hints on the author's diction. The notes consist largely of passages from Dio and other historians, quoted to expand and explain the somewhat sketchy narrative of the biographer. In an appendix we find the *Monumentum Ancyranum*, a genealogy of the Emperor's family, and an account of what became of the assassins of Cæsar. The introduction, too, contains a helpful chronological table of the principal events during the lifetime of Augustus. The book will be a valuable auxiliary to all interested in the great Emperor.

Much of Dr. J. Asbach's 'Römisches Kaisertum und Verfassung bis auf Trajan' (Cologne; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) has already appeared in periodical literature. It is in three parts, the first dealing with the development of the imperial system down to the accession of Vespasian, the second

with the changes under the Flavian dynasty, and the third with the reigns of Nerva and Trajan, together with an inquiry into the historical and political judgments of Tacitus. Indeed, the whole book has grown out of the learned author's interest in Tacitus, and it will be welcomed by all who are engaged in teaching or studying the brilliant historian.

Among a varied group of entertaining articles in the current *New England Magazine*, the well-written and restrained account of "A New England Village in the Southern Pines," by B. A. Goodridge, will not fail to impress the reader. All experiments in autocratic town-building challenge our American curiosity, and Pinehurst, in Moore County, North Carolina, was created and is controlled by a benevolent despot, Mr. A. W. Tufts of Boston. This capitalist employed the most eminent landscape artists in the country to lay out his town in the sandy, long-leaf pine region, where the soil, the altitude, the cli mate, the aromatic groves are so favorable to consumptives in the early stages of the disease. He built hotel, casino, and cottages, furnished water and drainage to the settlements, lighted it with electricity, gave it a trolley connection with the railroad, shut out from it the liquor-saloon and the razor-back hog, and made it not the resort of fashion, but the inexpensive refuge of invalids of moderate means who cannot endure our Northern winters. The article is captivatingly illustrated.

The Pilot Chart of the North Atlantic, issued by our Hydrographic Office, gives, in the November issue, besides the usual information for the past and the current months, a special discussion of antarctic icebergs, appro priate in this period of renewed interest in south-polar exploration. Some of the bergs are deservedly called "ice islands," as they measure 300 feet in height above water and 25 or 30 miles in length, being the offspring of the great antarctic ice sheet, to-day the most remarkable unexplored area of the earth's surface. Temperature of air and water is not regarded as a sufficient indication of the neighborhood of a berg; various instances being quoted where no change was noted close to large ice masses. Two southern circumpolar charts accompany this report.

An elaborate discussion, by Dr. Cæsar Puls, based on a large collection of original observations of temperature and currents over the equatorial Pacific Ocean, has been published with twelve monthly charts in the *Archiv der Deutschen Seewarte* at Hamburg. The most interesting results concern the equatorial counter-current, which is explained as chiefly a compensation current, to dispose of the excess of water carried west by the south equatorial current. There seems to be no escape for much of this water but by flowing eastward in a narrow belt, for about eight thousand miles, a little north of the equator. Just as the north and south equatorial current vary in strength through the year with the known variations in the power of the driving winds, so the counter-current is alternately stronger or weaker, as the winds favor or oppose it in our summer or winter. At its east end this current does not turn south, as one might expect from the southeast trend of the coast, and as it is represented on some charts, but wheels sharply around to the north and west, joining the north equatorial current. The waters of the counter-current thus cross the Pacific three times—twice westward, once eastward. They moreover continually carry a considerable volume of water from the southern to the northern hemisphere at the surface, being comparable in this respect to the more direct cross-equator current of the Atlantic. Another result of importance is that the cool water of the Galapagos district does not all come by the Peruvian current from far southern latitudes, but is supplied in good part by water upwelling from deep layers along the South American coast, to make good the withdrawal of surface waters by off-shore winds.

An especial interest is given to an article on the ancient course of the Oxus in the *Annales de Géographie* for October from the practical bearing of this question on the development of Central Asia. The author, a Russian engineer who has spent several years in exploring the country between the Caspian and the Oxus, contends, on geological grounds mainly, that the river never flowed into the Caspian. The Russian Government, however, regards the question as an open one, for an expedition started in September last to see if the turning of one of the supposed ancient beds into a navigable canal would not be less costly than the construction of the proposed railway from Orenburg to Tashkend. Another question of Asiatic geography, the sources of the Irawadi and Salween Rivers, is satisfactorily discussed by M. E. Roux, the companion of Prince Henry of Orleans in his daring journey from China to Assam. The region watered by the upper Nile and its branches is the subject of an interesting study, illustrated by several maps showing the variety and extent of the characteristic forms of animal and vegetable life, the density of the population, and the occupations of the various races inhabiting it.

—The *American Journal of Germanic Philology* is announced to begin its career with the opening of 1897. Thus far the only periodical of the kind in this country has been the *Modern Language Notes*, with probably the addition of the Transactions of the Modern Language Association. The new undertaking is started under the management of Prof. Gustav Ernst Karsten, head of the German department in the University of Indiana. Prof. Karsten has been in America about ten years, and by his constant and thorough work has won a high reputation as a scholar and investigator. He was graduated in 1878 from Marienburg College in Prussia, and continued his studies at the Universities of Leipzig, Königsberg, Heidelberg, and Freiburg, winning the doctorate at Freiburg in 1883. The next two years he spent in study at Tübingen, London, and Paris. He has always been active in the Modern Language Association of America, and is now the leader of the section of this Association for the Central and Western States. The *Journal* is not to be American in the strictest sense, but to be the result of coöperation between scholars on both sides of the Atlantic, to which end Prof. Karsten has associated with himself as co-editor Dr. Georg Holz, who has risen to a high place in the Germanic department of the University of Leipzig. Nothing but articles of real scientific value, written by competent specialists, will be admitted. The reviews will give a critical account of all important work done in Germanic philology, and, for the first year or so, they will be somewhat retrospective, so as to acquaint the reader with the present status of the various topics. While the German and English departments will be most prominent, all related branches will receive appropriate consideration. About six numbers, constituting from five to six hundred pages a year, will be published. The subscription price for this country will be $2; for foreign countries, $2.50.

—Immunity from acts of vandalism is not among the advantages of an older civilization upon which our cousins over sea can safely plume themselves. No spot in England is of more romantic interest than the bold headland which is approached through the ancient village street of Tintagel, and upon which stand the fragmentary remains of King Arthur's Castle. Near this site it is proposed to build a hotel in the "castellated style." Not an American visitor to Tintagel would for an instant hesitate in a choice between being thus sacrilegiously housed and putting up inconveniently in one of the pretty cottages, when, as often happens, the modest "Wharncliffe Arms" is taxed beyond the limits of its capacity. Unsatisfied with this threatened desecration of the cliff itself, Cornwall's unique glory, the spoiler now proposes to put buildings upon Barras Head, the piece of rocky and heather-clad land which faces it across the waters of King Arthur's Cove. In order to stay his hand, the National Trust for the Preservation of Places of Natural Beauty and Historic Interest issues an appeal for subscriptions to a fund of £505, wherewith to purchase the Head and its fourteen acres of waste. Americans are, as usual, generously included in the opportunity to subscribe. It is to be hoped their response will be helpful. The address of the treasurer of the National Trust is No. 1 Great College Street, Westminster, S. W.

—The first half of Mr. James Schouler's 'Historical Briefs' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is made up of miscellaneous pieces contributed from time to time to periodicals, or read at the meetings of the American Historical Association. Several of the magazine articles here reprinted have been already noticed in these columns, and hence do not call for particular comment in their present dress. The two relating to President Polk's administration, published last year in the *Atlantic*, are of the first importance for their revelations of the evils of the spoils system and of the origin of the war message of May 11, 1846, and raise again the hope that we may before long be permitted to know still more of the diary and correspondence on which they are based. The papers read before the American Historical Association treat generally of various aspects of historical writing, under such titles as "Historical Grouping," "Spirit of Research," "Historical Industries," and "Historical Testimony." To complete this general range of discussion, Mr. Schouler has added brief papers on "Historical Monographs" and "Historical Style," this last being somewhat in the nature of a reply to critics who have not found the author's own style wholly commendable. Of Mr. Schouler's substantial and enduring merits as a historian there is, of course, no question; we fancy, however, that readers of these "briefs" will value them more for the knowledge they afford of the author's methods of work than for any very original contribution they make to the general subject of the study and writing of history. As to the matter of style, we still cannot think that Mr. Schouler has quite made out his case. To have written a history of the United States with which all students must reckon, is unquestionably a great achievement; but no amount of substance can ever quite offset a pervading inelegance of manner, of which not only Mr. Schouler's chief work,

but the present volume as well, furnish constant illustrations. A biography of Mr. Schouler, by an unnamed hand, based upon material furnished by the historian himself, fills the remainder of the volume before us. If its prevailing tone is one of almost fulsome praise, it is at least interesting, and will doubtless find many readers among that large class who long to know much about the private lives of distinguished men. It is not often that an author is permitted to read so elaborate an account of himself, or has the dubious satisfaction of seeing the story form part of a volume of his collected writings.

—The latest development of Lord Macaulay's scheme of competitive examination, as applied for recruiting the high-salaried and much coveted India Civil Service, is of interest, in a general way, not only to Englishmen. At present the subjects recognized for the examination in question, with the maximum of marks assigned for each, are as follows: French, German, English, Sanskrit, Arabic, English Composition, 500 each; Greek, Latin, 750 each; Mathematics, Advanced Mathematics, 900 each; Elementary Chemistry and Physics, Higher Chemistry, Higher Physics, Geology, Botany, Zoology, Animal Physiology, 600 each; English History, 500; Greek History, Roman History, 400 each; General Modern History, Political Economy, and Economic History, 500 each; Logic and Mental Philosophy, Moral Philosophy, 400 each; Roman Law, English Law, Political Science, 500 each. None of these subjects are obligatory. For the Open Competition of August, 1896, the Report on which has recently been issued, there were 193 candidates for 62 vacancies. The age of a candidate was fixed at above 21 years, and under 23, on the first of last January. Of the 62 successful competitors, as was likewise the case with the unsuccessful competitors, a large proportion also competed for less eligible appointments, namely, 8 for Eastern Cadetships, 10 for the Home Civil Service, and 32 for both. Out of the 62, at least 38 are said to have qualified themselves at Oxford, and there are no more than three natives of India. Only two of the candidates who passed, and five of those who failed to pass, brought up Sanskrit as one of their subjects; and, with the exception of a single unfortunate (presumably a Muhammadan) who was rejected, No. 94, no one brought up Arabic. The selected candidates will now, enjoying a stipend from the Government, devote themselves to certain prescribed studies till next October, when, on testifying to the Civil Service Commissioners a sufficient acquaintance with them, and satisfying the Medical Board of their physical fitness, they will enter on the performance of their duties as servants of the State. By no means, however, should the fact remain unnoticed that the list of successful candidates mentioned above is headed by a Bengalee. This remarkable Oriental, who was not a twelvemonth past his majority at the beginning of the year, bears the name of Chatterjee, as it is the fashion to write Chatoji, which is substituted, by corruption and otherwise, for the scholastic Chattopâdhyâya. His ten subjects and the marks he scored for them are given as: English, 324; Sanskrit, 279; English Composition, 405; Mathematics, 179; Advanced Mathematics, 27; English History, 365; General Modern History, 423; Political Economy and Economic History, 249; English Law, 211; Political Science, 389. While his marks reach the total of 2,851, those of the sixty-second candidate amount, for eight subjects, to only a trifle more than four-sevenths of that number, viz., 1,648.

—At the inaugural meeting of the Oxford Society of Historical Theology, held on October 23 at Balliol College, the President, Dr. Edward Caird, Master of Balliol, spoke on "Christianity and the Historical Christ." Having drawn a parallel between the recent harking back to Kant of Cohen and other idealists and the movement in recent theology back to the image of the original founder of Christianity as expressed in his authentic words and deeds, he pointed out that both movements, though useful and fruitful, involved to a certain extent an illusion. Striking passages from Jowett's note-books served to point this objection. "Even if we knew exactly what came from Christ," said Jowett, "it is in perpetual process of depravation, and needs to be restored; it is in process of being narrowed, and needs to be enlarged, or rather in any case it needs to be enlarged if it is to comprehend the world. There is a fallen Christianity if there is a fallen man, and man is always falling." The speaker declared that the utmost uniqueness to be claimed for Jesus as embodying "the deepest and most comprehensive principle of religion" could only be that of one "in whom the different elements which had existed in the previous religious experience of man were reconciled." Indeed, if we could suppose "spiritual food to be introduced into man's mind which it was incapable of assimilating, it would not only be useless, but fatal to his growth." Christ must be interpreted, he said, by that which sprang from him, "by the whole impression which he made upon his own and the immediately succeeding generation." We must take him in this way if he is to be regarded as the centre of our religion. Jewish prophecy, Rabbinical doctrine, Greek philosophy, had already mingled their colors upon the palette from which Christ, who knew not their language, was painted. St. John's Gospel is the record of one whose mind was "steeped in ideas kindred to those of Alexandrian philosophy," St. Luke's shows poetic power and the influence of St. Paul's universalism, St. Matthew's is preoccupied with the realization of Messianic prophecies, and the earliest narrative of St. Mark, though clearly showing traces of growth in the teachings of Christ, and recording the awe with which their originality inspired the disciples, shows us a Jesus already surrounded by an element of thaumaturgy which sprang from the habits of contemporary thought. Indeed, the distinction between Jesus and his Jewish predecessors might all but fade away if we were able to narrow down his thoughts to their first Jewish expression; or, if it did not, it would be mainly because we should still read his pregnant utterances by the light of the whole subsequent development of Christianity. We seek a new freshness and fulness of meaning in the first immediate expression of the Christian consciousness of human brotherhood. But what we thus try to brush aside —St. Paul's idealizations and expansions, the scrupulous clearness aimed at in Scholasticism, the great experiment of medical asceticism, and the new effort of modern thought to remould its ethics and theology—has not been a waste of force. The philosophy of Nietzsche is a symptom, which might become a malady, the speaker argued, if we had not learned, "through the long discipline of the mediæval Church," the vanity of any "limited effort for the self-realization of the few at the expense of the many."

—It was suggested several years ago by one of our correspondents that to prevent the reading into Dante of much that he could not possibly have meant or felt, we should study the illustrations made for the 'Divine Comedy' before Florentine Naturalism, the study of classical antiquity, and the new cosmography had so radically changed the visual imagery of the European mind. As if in sequence of this suggestion, M. C. Morel of Fribourg now publishes (Paris: H. Welter), under the title of 'Une Illustration de l'Enfer de Dante,' reproductions in heliotype of seventy-one miniatures for the 'Inferno,' executed by an Italian artist during the earliest years of the fifteenth century, and now to be seen in two fragments—the larger in the National Library in Paris and the smaller in the town library of Imola. The artist quaintly attempts to illustrate every important episode. He is childish, but circumstantial, and with an occasional touch of that poetry which can be imparted by form and color only. Thus certainly was Dante imaged in the average mediæval mind, and Dante's own visual images were no doubt of much sublimer import, but scarcely different in kind. M. Morel's introduction is far too long and too dull. He believes that these miniatures were made for the bloodthirsty Filippo Maria Visconti, tyrant of Milan.

VAN DYKE'S FRENCH MASTERS.

Modern French Masters: A Series of Biographical and Critical Reviews by American Artists. With thirty-seven wood-engravings and twenty-eight half-tone illustrations. Edited by John C. Van Dyke. The Century Co. 1896. Pp. xiii, 262.

A BOOK on art written entirely by artists must needs have, for good or evil, a different quality from that of the general run of books on art. Whether better or worse, its critical tone will be different, and so will its literary style. Fifteen American painters, all of them of good standing in their profession, and many of them of the highest, have here given us critical and biographical notices of twenty of the foremost painters of France. The result cannot but be interesting in the extreme. Five of these notices have already appeared in the columns of the *Century Magazine*, but the other fifteen are new. Each artist-critic has, however, written independently and in the vein that best suited him, and the book can hardly be said to have a general plan. Perhaps the editor might have advantageously supplied a connecting thread of historical comment which should have bound his grain-spears into a sheaf; but he may well have thought that his material was too various to be treated in this way, and that it was best to let each of his writers say his own things in his own manner, so he has confined himself to a short introduction, in which he merely poses the question of the relative advantage of criticism of painters by painters as against that by professed critics. Symmetry and proportion are therefore not to be looked for in the book, and the essays it contains must be judged of separately as so many isolated articles, each on its own subject.

Several of the painter-authors are already well-known to the public, through the columns of current magazines and reviews, as writers on art subjects. These have given us, as was

to be expected, balanced and satisfactory pieces of critical writing. Others have written in a vein of personal reminiscence, and their work may be considered rather in the light of contributions to biographical knowledge than to criticism. Still others are almost entirely inexperienced in literature, and have not the advantage of a stock of personal anecdote to communicate, their claim to be heard resting merely on their technical knowledge and their artistic sympathy with the painter of whom they write. How does the criticism of these painters compare with that of the trained writers who have written of art? We think it compares very favorably indeed.

The objection most frequently made to criticism of art by artists is that the artist is necessarily too biassed in his views to deal out abstract justice; he is in the midst of a battle for his own views of what is right in art, and cannot pause to be just to his opponents. He is generally supposed, indeed, to be narrow, pig-headed, violent, and it is even said, with some plausibility, that he must be so to be a successful artist. Narrowness is taken as a measure of intensity, and it is, in some degree, true that he who is to greatly succeed in one thing must be blind or indifferent to everything else. The obvious answer to this objection is, that criticism may be valuable though biassed, and that an intense perception of one truth may be worth more, though accompanied by oblivion of others, than a lukewarm impartiality that sees everything alike because it sees nothing sharply. A better answer is an appeal to facts. Read this book carefully and see if there are to be found anywhere within its covers such exaggerations of enthusiasm or such extremes of denunciation as mar the pages of, we will not say Ruskin, the mad-bull of literary criticism of art, but of any one of hundreds of such critics down to the merest smart scribbler for the scavenger press. Knowledge, in the long run, begets moderation, and while, in private conversation, the artist and, above all, the art student, is apt to express his feeling strongly, and to confine his appreciations to "stunning" or "rot," put a pen into the hand of the painter who has really learned something and ask for his sober judgment of another painter, and his knowledge of how much that other has really learned and accomplished will show itself.

The second objection sometimes made to the painter as critic is that he rarely has sufficient general and literary culture to tell intelligently what he knows. At strongest, however, this is but an objection against some painters' writing, not against all. Years ago Mr. Hamerton thought it necessary to show "that certain artists should write on art." To-day it would be more necessary to show that not all artists should write on art. It has long been conceded that literary men should criticise literature and musicians music; nowadays the criticism of painting is falling more and more into the hands of painters. Occasionally these hands are incompetent, but the reader of the present book is likely to be surprised at the high general level of competence.

Among the painters already well known as writers who contribute to this volume are Messrs. Blashfield, Coffin, Kenyon Cox, and Will H. Low. Each of them contributes two papers, Mr. Blashfield writing of Bonnat and Laurens, Mr. Coffin of Rousseau and Dagnan-Bouveret, Mr. Cox of Baudry and Puvis de Chavannes, and Mr. Low of Gérôme and Boutet de Monvel. Mr. Blashfield has written most judiciously of the two masters that have fallen to his share. One of them was his own master, and for him he doubtless feels a personal affection, but the art of neither of them can have been particularly sympathetic to him. All the more noticeable is the breadth of view, soundness of judgment, and perfect balance which his articles show. They are not enthusiastic, but are eminently sane. Mr. Low's account of Gérôme shows similar qualities, while his criticism of Boutet de Monvel is that of a personal friend and a sympathetic temperament, full of delicate appreciation, yet making no extravagant claims of greatness. Mr. Coffin's sterling article on Dagnan is already well known, and that on Rousseau is a no less admirable piece of clear insight and lucid statement. Mr. Cox's study of Puvis de Chavannes has already been highly praised in these columns. In that on Baudry he has perhaps allowed his honest enthusiasm for that great artist to lead him into too great a strength of statement for the easy attainment of conviction, though the careful reader, who will study exactly what he does say, and not content himself with a rough estimate of what he seems to say, will find that the proper qualifications are duly stated.

These eight articles are alone sufficient to prove that "certain artists should write on art," but there are others, from less practised hands, that would answer the purpose almost equally well. There is nothing sounder or better in the book than Mr. Samuel Isham's critical account of the work of Courbet, and nothing more delicate than the charming appreciation of Corot by the regretted Theodore Robinson, while Mr. Beckwith, Mr. Tryon, and Mr. Watrous have each something to say that was worth saying. In a different vein the late Wyatt Eaton's reminiscences of Millet are well known as among the most valuable contributions to a knowledge of that painter, while Mr. Weir and the late G. P. A. Healy each give some interesting facts about Bastien-Lepage and Thomas Couture respectively. The former gives his recollection of the legendary crowning of Bastien's picture, after his failure to gain the Prix de Rome, which differs entirely from the current version of the story. The scene was in reality a cheap Latin-Quarter restaurant; the picture crowned was not the unsuccessful picture, but an earlier work, and the chief actor was not Sarah Bernhardt, but one of the artist's fellow-students.

Another question on which, according to Prof. Van Dyke, the present volume was intended to throw some light, is that of the relative value of reproduction by wood engraving and by "half-tone." This is a matter, he says, "about which not only the painter and the public disagree, but about which artists among themselves differ." We have often threshed out this subject in these columns, and will only say here that we have never known an artist who did not prefer a good half-tone reproduction *of his own work*, whatever he might think of the merits of wood engraving in the abstract. The illustrations of both sorts are very good in the present volume, as was to be expected from the publishers, but we are of opinion that the best of the half-tones indisputably bear away the palm in the matter of fidelity to the originals.

The editor furnishes a very brief biographical notice of each contributor. The paper and print are of the handsomest. Altogether here is a book which those interested in art cannot afford to neglect.

HUGO'S FAMILIAR LETTERS.

The Letters of Victor Hugo, to his Family, to Sainte-Beuve, and Others. Edited by Paul Meurice. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

SELDOM has the Nemesis of posthumous publication borne more heavily on greatness than in this first instalment of the letters of Victor Hugo. As there is no preface by the editor to explain what principle of selection was applied to a correspondence presumably vast, the responsibility of issuing a volume most of which will prove irredeemably dull to the best disposed of readers must be laid to the charge of Hugolatry, pardonable, perhaps, in a devotee. The book does not add to the fame of Hugo or to literature in general, but it will serve as a partial corrective to the bitter prejudice of M. Edmond Biré, whose opinions of the poet's character have been widely influential in the reading world. The letters are arranged, not in chronological order, but in groups addressed respectively to Hugo's parents, to his wife and friends, and to his children, with a specially important collection, forty-nine in number, to Sainte-Beuve. Two appendices contain communications with the secretary of the Académie des Jeux Floraux of Toulouse, chiefly concerning technical details in the poet's earlier work, and several letters which did not enter conveniently into the scheme of classification. Nothing being here published subsequent to 1845—the date of the last note to Sainte-Beuve—later volumes may offer some compensation for the disappointments of the first.

Of the family and friendly letters it may be briefly said that they present to us a good son, an affectionate husband and father, and a thoroughly sincere friend, who appears as much interested in petty chronicles relating to the daily lives of those dear to him as in any fame he is steadily building up for himself. He abounds in warm-hearted assurances of friendship, in praise of ability where he thinks it is due. This is noticeable in his hearty greetings to Alfred de Vigny (iii., 6, 8, 19, 20, etc.), to Lamartine (iii., 25, 58, etc.), but above all to Victor Pavie (iii., 28, 30, etc., etc.), a literary youth in Angers, who won Hugo's favor by his enthusiastic notice of 'Odes et Ballades' in a local sheet, and was rewarded with the following hazardous panegyrics, which time has not ratified:

"Young as you are, you belong to a distinct category, the only privileged one that nature creates; you have the *mens divinior* which raises a man above his fellows. And although I have seen but very little from your pen, I have no difficulty in foretelling your future (p. 107)."

"They [Pavie's verses] possess the characteristics of the best specimens of our renovated poetry, the union of grace and vigor, of youth and maturity, which is the stamp of all our great poets (p. 110)."

"Go on with these articles; make our Paris papers blush for their inferiority to a provincial paper [p. 114]. . . . Only the great articles in the English reviews are fit to be compared with yours [on Hugo's "Cromwell"]" (p. 116).

If we acquit Hugo of deliberate "log-rolling," because of the private nature of these remarks, it must yet be admitted that praise was a shuttlecock which he returned with more vigor than accuracy in aim. In commending his friends his eagerness gets away with his discrimination, as, for example, in the case of the third-rate poet, Alexandre Soumet (p. 85), "who . . . has . . . finished his 'Saül,' which I prefer to his 'Clytemnestre,' which again I prefer to everything that

has appeared on the French stage for the last fifty years." At that time (1822) the great man was still young, and perhaps a trifle given to gushing. But the most remarkable feature of these letters to friends is their apparently studious avoidance of all specific literary discussion; for, although frequent mention is made of literary work, the epithets used to describe it are merely superlative or vague. Vigny's "Symétha" is "adorable"; "La Consolation d'une Mère," by Jules de Rességuier, is a "touching and graceful elegy," and so on in the consecrated phraseology of booksellers' circulars. Regarding the definite merits of his own poems he was, naturally enough, more keenly solicitous; and the letters to the secretary of the Floral Contests at Toulouse (1819 20), given in Appendix A, testify to his scrupulous care for word, rhyme, and metre.

As for the letters written by Hugo to his children and to his wife, the world might well have dispensed with them. Here the poet sits down, as it were, in dressing-gown and slippers, for a simple chat with those whom he has left at home. No one who has read 'L'Art d'être grandpère' needs further evidence of Hugo's love of children, or of his characteristic and happy knack of talking to them without a trace of the patronizing manner, but with a constant flow of geniality, good spirits, and tender consideration. By far the least acceptable are the letters to Mme. Hugo, which might have been written by almost any loving husband to any beloved wife. There is, we think, something that savors of indelicacy, not to say indecency, in this exposure to the general gaze of the secret affections of a great man's heart, and it seems inexplicable that none of the immediate relatives should have attempted to put some check on this part of the publication. Although one may detect signs elsewhere in the correspondence that Hugo was not free from the vanity that looks for a possible future publicity, one may rest assured that these letters were never written with a thought for any one but the woman to whom they were addressed. When the poet chose to take the public into his confidence, he did so in verse, as in "Date Lilia," the last of 'Les Chants du Crépuscule'; but there is no sign of his usual histrionic pose in what he writes privately to his wife.

The correspondence with Sainte-Beuve is merely an exhibit of Hugo's side of a once celebrated case, for the intimate details of which literary quidnuncs have long been on the alert, though the real secret of the dispute was let out years ago through the indiscreet gossip of candid friends. Once again the trite cynicism of *Cherchez la femme* proves painfully true, and explains the origin of the coolness that entered into the friendly relations between the poet and the critic, and finally effected their hopeless separation after many trials (chiefly on Hugo's part, it seems) to preserve the intimacy. We may keep up the mockery of omitting a name unmentioned in the letters, but it is obvious that Sainte-Beuve's misfortune in losing his heart rendered frequent meetings undesirable. It would be worse than cruel to join in the insult of a French *sabreur* of letters who, a week or two ago, compared the critic on this occasion to a "toad venturing to look up at a star." Hugo makes a fair, even generous, showing for himself throughout, as the accompanying extracts testify:

We have talked a great deal about you all our friends. [redacted] has Your ears must have been heard in my hermit's cell but has made me long for your poetry" (p. 181). "If you only knew how much we have missed you of late! How sad and empty it seemed to us, even amid our family life, even with our children around us, to move into this deserted town of François I. [Blois, though the letter is dated from Paris]. without you" (p. 186). "I may have said that you were *changeable* in your opinions on art and such like trifling matters, but not in your affections. Do not let us bury our friendship in oblivion; let us keep it pure and sacred, as we have always done" (p. 189). "Let us give up seeing each other, then, for some time to come, so as not to cease loving each other" (p. 195). "The friendship between you and me, Sainte-Beuve, is too firmly and durably cemented to allow petty, personal questions to divide us for a single moment" (p. 206). "I think I have already told you, Sainte-Beuve, there can be no *literary* question between us. There were two friends, no more and no less. I admit that absence has produced an opposite effect on us both. You love me less than you did two years ago, while I love you more. On reflection, the explanation is very simple. I was the offended party" (p. 210). "I should have preferred less praise and more sympathy [in Sainte-Beuve's article on Hugo's novels, July, 1832, among the 'Portraits Contemporains'] . . . Victor Hugo is overwhelmed with praise. Victor Hugo thanks you; but Victor, your old friend Victor, is grieved" (p. 214).

If Hugo's vanity had been touched in a sore spot by the qualified praises of his former friend, it is by no means proved that Sainte-Beuve's change of tone from earlier days was altogether the outcome of disappointment which led to spitefulness. Enough has been said of late years, by the latter's detractors, of his touchy and jealous disposition, but in this instance it is only charitable to wait for full testimony on his side. The amazing part of all this remains, that, in spite of injunctions from his correspondent, these letters were not at once destroyed; but it is the fate of such documents to be pigeon-holed and to serve in the end for the rekindling of old scandals.

So few of the other communications possess any sort of interest that they call for no notice. What, indeed, could be expected from a man who, in a letter to his wife telling of the coronation of Charles X. at Reims (1825), to which the young poet had been bidden by special royal command, finds nothing livelier than the following schoolboy sentence to convey his impressions? "We have seen the coronation, my Adèle; it is a deeply interesting ceremony" (p. 67). And a few days before, his chief preoccupation seems to have been the cut of his court coat and the fit of his knee-breeches. Truly, it is to be hoped that later volumes will contain matter more worthy of serious attention than this, and thus offer a fair field to the conscientious efforts of the anonymous translator.

The Island of Cuba: A Descriptive and Historical Account of the "Great Antilla." By Andrew Summers Rowan and Marathon Montrose Ramsey. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

THE writers of this volume state in their preface that they have had occasion recently, "in connection with the discharge of official duties," to make some investigations respecting Cuba and its relations with this country, whence the present production. It is a small compilation, partly historical, partly descriptive, mainly designed to give correct information. One of the authors is a lieutenant of infantry in our army; the other a professor of Romance languages in Columbian University at Washington.

So far as concerns climate, physical geography, statistics, and facts strictly historical —*i. e.*, wholly disconnected with present questions—the book seems reliable; but when the authors undertake to discuss the Cuban problem as it exists to-day, their statements cannot be followed blindly. For instance, at the outset they exhibit five "points of view," of which one is that "England and France are appealed to by the bondholders for protection, and are unwilling to see Cuba pass into the possession of any one strong enough to make any real use of it." This is wholly unsupported by evidence, and is antecedently most improbable. Assuming that England and France, as governments, are undertaking to protect the interests of holders of Spanish bonds, their only interest in the matter is to see that the bonds are not repudiated; and if they could be assured that the bondholders would be protected, the substitution of a better government on the island for that of Spain would necessarily be welcomed by England and France. The authors themselves, in their third "point of view," call attention to the importance of the bondholders' interests, which makes it all the more strange that they should imagine England and France to be trembling with jealousy and anxiety lest Cuba should fall into the hands of a "strong" Power. What the bondholders fear is dishonesty, not strength. The truth is, that the Spanish Government has been for years putting on the market and is now putting on the market bonds which (p. vii.) pass into the hands of religious, educational, or charitable institutions, widows and orphans, and for the payment of these bonds the faith of Spain is pledged. The obligation is inviolable, whether Spain possesses Cuba or not, but the revenue of Cuba is absolutely essential to enable the mother country to pay its interest. Consequently, the loss of Cuba without indemnity means for Spain repudiation. The feather-headed Jingoes in Congress who talk glibly of the independence of the island and whoop for annexation will very likely pass all this by with a smile; but it is really this which makes the Cuban question so difficult; the other branches of it are much simpler.

There is every reason why Cuba, like the rest of the Spanish-American world, should govern itself. It is miserably governed now by Spain, and there is no hope of any improvement. As things are at present, prosperity and commerce are out of the question. The island is garrisoned by some 200,000 troops, or about one soldier to every male Cuban capable of bearing arms. Spain has possession of all the cities and lines of communication, and the Cubans, far from being organized as an independent and responsible people, are "more like outlaws" (p. 213). The authors seem to think that they may be entitled to recognition as belligerents; but recognition as such would not alter the facts. It would make our position more difficult, because our ships would be liable to stoppage on the high seas, and Spain would escape all liability for damage to American property in any locality which we refused to regard as Spanish territory. Filibustering expeditions from our shores would be as illegal as they are now. What is wanted is not belligerency, but peace and self government, free from the oppression of a tyrannical and foreign rule. With peace and self-government, Cuba would attain the condition which other countries have attained that have thrown off the Spanish yoke. No doubt there would be revolutions and corruption, but the Cubans prefer to plunder themselves and provide their own dictators, rather than be plundered by a distant

ernment, and to be obliged to pay, besides, having their efforts at self-government down by it. All this is very natural, and ites much sympathy in this country, but it s not advance the solution of the financial stion in any way.

he authors give an account of the *Virius* affair which is very inadequate, and ves to still further becloud a case made gy enough already through diplomacy. The *ginius* was stopped on the ocean, and taken o a Cuban port, where many of those on rd, American and British citizens among m, were taken out, courtmartialled, and t. For these wholly unjustifiable execus indemnity was demanded and paid. We o made a point of the arrest of the *Virius* at sea, because she was flying the erican flag. But this came to nothing, for, the authors say, she had no right to fly flag. They describe her, however, as a nuggler and ocean tramp, sailing under e colors," while she really belonged to Cus and was in use in aid of the insurrection. r contention was that, assuming her right he flag to be established, the Spanish had right to stop and search her because *no 's of war existed*. This is made very clear Grant's message on the subject. On account the fraudulent character of her register, abandoned our demand for a salute; but important fact remains that we were ready o to war with Spain for stopping an Amein vessel when no *state of war* existed. Cuban sympathizers are now always noring for a recognition of the very state belligerency which gives the belligerent the it to stop ships.

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diyát of Omar Khayyám. English, rench, and German translations comparavely arranged in accordance with the text Edward FitzGerald's Version; with furier selections, notes, biographies, bibliography and other material, collected and lited by Nathan Haskell Dole. Boston: oseph Knight Co. 2 vols.

e Omar Khayyám cult has the unique inction of claiming to add at one stroke a r classic to the world's brief list. Since the, no other name than Omar's has been fidently announced as being in this catey. Even those who claimed that Brown- or Emerson was, so to speak, of Classic e—as a rising American statesman is said admirers to be of Presidential Size—re made their claims tentatively and, as were, under privilege of withdrawal; but claim in behalf of Omar Khayyám is initive. Hence the propriety of a variorum tion; and to this are to be added the rerkable circumstances under which the work ne into English. Introduced by one of the st gifted and most daring of translators, very question how much belonged to the glishman and how much to the Oriental s for years left open. From the moment at FitzGerald began also to arrest attention his other versions, and especially by his Agamemnon," the distrust grew greater of e authenticity of his previously known work. added outright to the tragedy of Æschylus ssages of such noble thought, such superb etic rhythm, as to show how easily he created ch things for himself, and if with Æschyfor a basis, why not with Khayyám? The ly test, of course, was in such an edition as r. Dole now offers us—that, by a comparin somewhat resembling the comparison of uations in algebra, we may readily ascertain what the different versions have in common, and may thus reduce the problem to its lowest terms.

The result, it must be admitted, is two-fold. It is shown beyond a doubt that the Omar element is larger and the FitzGerald element smaller than was at one time feared; and, on the other hand, it is also made clear that some of the most striking features of some of the very crucial passages in the book are as absolutely interpolations as is the fine passage "Call not on death, old man!" in FitzGerald's "Agamemnon." This does not affect the beauty or power of the lines; it simply removes whatever share of interest was imparted by their supposed origin at a certain place or time. This applies especially to that which is, by general agreement, the high-water mark of this book, in respect to force and daring, viz., the passage which not merely holds the Deity responsible for the creation of the sinful being whom he rules, but presses home the appeal with such Miltonic vigor and directness as to lodge the thought for ever in the mind of the most unwilling reader:

> "O Thou who Man of baser Earth didst make,
> And ev'n with Paradise devise the Snake;
> For all the Sin wherewith the Face of Man
> Is blacken'd, Man's forgiveness give—and take!"

There is probably no other verse in the whole Rubáiyát to which so many readers will turn for verification, through the comparative process; and the result will be a disappointment. In the three varying forms given of FitzGerald's version from successive editions, the symbol of the snake and the final, defiant proffer of forgiveness remain substantially unaltered; but neither in the version of Nicolas, nor of McCarthy, nor of Whinfield, nor of Bodenstedt is there the slightest trace of either. The inference is irresistible that both are of FitzGerald's own creating, and this is confirmed by Prof. Cowell, FitzGerald's first teacher of Persian, who says that this is unquestionable as regards the snake, while the latter interpolation may be attributed to a mistake made by FitzGerald in the original language. He adds that he himself wrote to FitzGerald from Calcutta and urged an alteration, but it was never made (Dole, p. 159). It would be strange if it had been. With FitzGerald's daring theories as to the liberty due to the translator, it would not have been at all like him to abandon his own most stirring passage.

This is perhaps the most salient instance of the value of this first variorum edition. It is due to Mr. Dole to say that he could scarcely have found an author to whom it would have been so hard to apply any such comparative method. Not only are the successive editions of FitzGerald full of variations, but, inasmuch as in even these the verses or *rubaiyát* selected are also very different, and as each translator has, moreover, selected what he pleases, the result is very much as with the Greek Anthology, in dealing with which each editor or translator is apt to take what he fancies and let the rest go. The method adopted by Mr. Dole is to give (1) an elaborate and careful introduction, (2) FitzGerald's sketch of the author, (3) the reprint, without annotation, of FitzGerald's second edition, in order to present it in complete shape before the eye, (4) to repeat it verse by verse, giving two pages to each verse, with one or more variant FitzGerald renderings and from two to six parallel translations—usually one in French, two in German, and three in English. This occupies the first volume, and nothing can be better arranged or more laboriously and conscientiously executed. The whole second volume is devoted to appendices—these varying from two or three pages to a hundred (the annotated bibliography including a hundred and six). Mr. Dole justly remarks that "all the extant references to Omar in all languages would require a lifetime and make a library in itself" (p. 544). Even Mr. Dole himself comes so near to this that it might almost be said of his edition, as Emerson said of Swedenborg, that it furnishes "a sufficient library for a lonely and athletic student."

With such a profusion of matter it is impossible to avoid some repetition and even occasional confusion, of which some critics have complained; yet there is little which can be spared, nor is it often that one has to criticise an editor for too great affluence of information. When it is considered that Mrs. H. M. Cadell has examined eleven MS. copies of Omar (p. 438), of which seven are in England and four in Paris—these ranging severally from 158 quatrains or *rubáis* (in her phrase) to 516—and that there are probably a thousand quatrains attributed to the poet, of which nearly three hundred are undoubtedly genuine, it becomes evident that it is all a mighty maze; and that Mr. Dole, who is not himself a Persian scholar, has simply done his best to achieve a coherent whole. He certainly merits the profound thanks of all who love the fascinating old pagan bard. We are glad to see that he recognizes the great services of American scholars in bringing his author before the public, paying tribute to Professor Norton, Mr. Garner, Mr. Siller, and—in a different way—to Mr. Levi L. Thaxter, whose misprinted middle initial is the only typographical error we have found in the two beautifully printed volumes.

Walton's Compleat Angler. A new edition, with an introduction by Andrew Lang and illustrations by E. J. Sullivan. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.

THE feature of this last of the many editions of 'The Compleat Angler' is the introduction by Andrew Lang, who has treated his well-worn topic with grace, skill, and much piscatorial knowledge, which adds greatly to the charm of the essay. The introduction is in four parts, (1) "His [Walton's] Life," (2) "Walton as a Biographer," hitherto a neglected aspect, (3) "The Compleat Angler," and (4) "Fishing Then and Now." Mr. Lang has succeeded in finding new and interesting matter for all these divisions of his subject, of which the last two are angling essays by themselves, though none the less relating to the topic in hand.

While the Anglo-Saxon race retains its love for nature and for angling, and for him whose simple art in their description excels that of all pastoral writers, many men of fame in letters will write introductions to many future editions of Walton, but it is safe to say that it will be long before another reaches the mark Mr. Lang has set in this edition of 1896. After reading his introduction one feels that he has learned more of Walton's character, thoughts, and associations than he ever knew before, and the knowledge that Izaak "greatly loved the society of the clergy, connected himself with Episcopal families, and had a natural taste for a bishop," that "Walton, like Cyclops, had known love," with other information as to his habits and inclinations, brings us into a pleasing intimacy of companionship with the kindly philosopher. Of course Walton was an ardent Royalist, and on the

return of King Charles in 1660 he "produced an eclog":

> "The King, the King's returned and now
> Let's banish all sad thoughts and sing
> We have our laws and have our King."

Anent this, Mr. Lang says: "If Izaak was so eccentric as to go to bed sober on that glorious 29th May, I greatly misjudge him."

Walton was sixty years old when 'The Compleat Angler' was published, and his last book, the 'Life of Sanderson,' was written in 1678. Of this he says: "'Tis now too late to wish that my life may be like his, for I am in the eighty-fifth year of my age, but I humbly beseech Almighty God that my death may be; and do as earnestly beg of every reader to say Amen."

The manufacture of the book is satisfactory, and so are in general the illustrations by Sullivan, although somehow he does not seem to be fully in accord with the spirit of the book and age, and on p. 308, where the drawing is entitled "Let's now rest ourselves in this sweet, shady arbour," the arbor, with its "contexture of woodbines, sweet-briar, jasmines, and myrtle," is left entirely to the imagination, and Piscator and Venator are sitting at a table apparently placed in the middle of a barren ten-acre field.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Book of Old English Ballads. Macmillan. $2.
Balzac, H. de. The Peasantry. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Carus, Paul. Karma: A Story of Early Buddhism. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co.
Dana, Mrs. W. S. Plants and their Children. American Book Co. 65c.
Fenn, G. M. In Honor's Cause. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Hawkins, Rush C. Better than Men. J. W. Bouton.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 26, 1896.

The Week.

SPEAKER REED made a little speech before the Duluth Board of Trade on Wednesday of last week in which he preached vigorously the new Republican doctrine of tariff for revenue only. We must increase our national revenue by from $30,000,000 to $50,000,000 a year, he affirmed, or we can "never expect to hold up our head among solvent nations." But there are two ways in which a man in embarrassed circumstances can manage to hold up his head. One is to get some trusting person to lend him more money, and go on squandering it with lavish hand. The other is to cut down expenses—to give up his carriage, sell his box at the opera, rusticate at Mamaroneck instead of Mentone, and wait for better times. But what did Speaker Reed's Congress do in its last session? It appropriated $52,000,000 more than the estimated necessary expenses of the Government submitted to it by the Secretary of the Treasury. In addition, it authorized contracts for $78,000,000 more, for which other Congresses will have to find the money. That is the way our Congress undertook to hold up its head among solvent nations. Speaker Reed closed the session with regret that he had had to say "no" so often. But a "no" from him would undoubtedly have saved in extravagant appropriations that very $50,000,000 which he now says we must have. As for retrenchment and economy, he has nothing to say about them. His soul is as much above such things as was that of the bankrupt duke whose creditors made an investigation of his affairs. They found him employing two French chefs at $5,000 each, and advised him to dismiss one. "Hang it all," exclaimed the duke, "a man must have a biscuit."

The Speaker and the country should remember that $50,000,000 is just as surely added to the resources of the Treasury by not wasting it as by raising it through new taxation. The experiment will be well worth trying this winter. The chances are that it will have to be tried anyhow. Mr. Reed appeals anew for the Dingley bill, but that makeshift is now practically disowned all round. No enthusiasm can be aroused for a bill which would not certainly increase the revenue, which is acceptable to neither party in Congress, and would be almost surely vetoed by the President. Nor is there a reasonable prospect of any other revenue measure passing in the coming short session. Some Republicans are looking about in the effort to do what Burke said was impossible—namely, "to tax and to please." The only tax they will consider is one that nobody will have to pay and everybody will be delighted with. While they are trying to find that, the crowded session will probably slip away with nothing done. This will give Speaker Reed a splendid chance to make a stand for economy. If he chooses to do so, he can hold down the appropriations to the revenue. If he succeeds in doing that, he may hold his head as high among the solvent nations as he pleases.

The *World* publishes a signed interview with Mr. Dingley, chairman of the committee on ways and means in the present Congress, and probable chairman of the same committee in the next Congress, on the subject of the Dingley bill and of tariffs in general. The interview is perhaps put out now in order to prepare the public mind for the shelving of the Dingley bill, for although its author expresses considerable confidence in it as a revenue measure, and hopes it may pass Congress this winter and become a law, yet he has no such expectation. He seems to be easily reconciled to its failure to pass, partly because there will not be time to frame a satisfactory measure this winter, partly because the bill expires by limitation within a few months, and partly because it had no scientific basis—that is, it made no distinction between different articles, but raised them all, with a few exceptions, by 15 per cent. As these views of the Dingley bill are shared by Senator Aldrich, the tariff leader of the Republicans in the other branch of Congress, it is safe to say that the Dingley bill will not pass. If it does not pass this winter, it will of course be dropped altogether. What may be done under the McKinley Administration, time alone can tell.

That the sectional issue has been eliminated from our politics is now accepted as a fact, both South and North. When the whites of Alabama recovered control of their State at the end of the reconstruction period, and made a new constitution, they changed the time of electing State officials from November to August, in order to escape the presence of federal officials at the polls. In his recent message to the Legislature, Gov. Oates urges that two elections a year every other year are too many, and advises a consolidation of the State election with that for federal officials in November. Recalling the fact that fear of federal interference was the cause of the change made in 1875, he says that the federal election laws were repealed three years ago, "and now no reasonable person apprehends their reënactment, or the passage by Congress of a 'force bill.'" A bill providing for a consolidation of elections has been introduced in the Legislature, and there is every promise of its passage. It will be remembered that the people of Florida in October by an overwhelming majority ratified a constitutional amendment changing the time of their State election to November, showing that they, too, no longer have any fear of a force bill.

The announcement comes from Boston that the Immigration Restriction League is about to renew its campaign for the passage by Congress of a law which will check the tide of incoming settlers from Europe. There are, however, abundant indications that such a movement will secure far less popular support since the recent election than formerly. Fear of "the ignorant foreign vote" was the chief element in making most people think that something ought to be done to save our institutions from the ruin threatened by this element in the electorate. The revelations made by the returns of the voting in the central States of the Union have entirely disposed of this argument. It has been clearly demonstrated that the success of the sound-money cause in this pivotal region was due to its support by an overwhelming majority of the voters of foreign birth and parentage. The Omaha (Neb.) *Bee* makes this frank admission:

> "But for the support which those citizens gave to the sound money cause, it would probably have been defeated. Eliminate the foreign-born vote given to the Republican Presidential ticket in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa, and it will be found that most, if not all, of those States would have declared for free silver. Nearly all of the sound-money Congressmen elected in those States owe their election to the foreign-born voters. In the Northern States the vast majority of these citizens were on the side of national honor and a sound currency."

The Republicans in Congress cannot fail to be affected by these developments. The Republican press in the West is already declaring its opposition to anything in the way of rigorous legislation against further immigration. Referring to the intimations that the new Administration and Congress will be found favorable to more restrictive legislation, and that strong pressure will be brought to bear in behalf of such action, the *Bee* says that "the Republican party cannot afford to forget how greatly the country is indebted to its foreign-born citizens for the result of the late general election," and that it "is bound to give respectful heed to the sentiment of this element," which it believes to be nearly unanimous against any further radical restrictions upon immigration. The recent report as to the number of immigrants during the fiscal year ending with last June shows that the only element about which any apprehension need be entertained is that which comes

from Italy, Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Poland. These countries are now sending a larger proportion of immigrants than ever before, and they represent the lowest class of the population, 40 per cent. of those over fourteen years old being unable to read and write their own language, against less than 4 per cent. for the United Kingdom, France, Germany, and the Scandinavian countries combined. New Orleans is attracting Italians, and in one day recently 1,200 Sicilians of the most ignorant and degraded type were landed at that port. Some restriction upon such immigration would be desirable, and the easiest test which would bar it out without turning back English, Scandinavians, and Germans would be the prohibition of the landing of persons above fourteen years of age who cannot both read and write their own language. Congress may be induced to go as far as this, but anything in the way of wholesale restriction upon immigration is plainly not to be expected.

Two subjects are treated in the annual report of the Secretary of Agriculture, just published, which are of decided current interest. Most people will remember the contests which raged last summer over the question of farm mortgages. On the free-coinage stump, the Western farmer was represented as absolutely crushed under his burden of indebtedness. We took occasion, in the course of the campaign, to explode this fiction of a bankrupt farming community; the Secretary of Agriculture adds the weight of his official information to what was then set forth. Briefly, the Secretary shows that only 282 farms out of every thousand in the United States are under any mortgage whatever. While, moreover, 72 per cent. of the American farmers own their farms and farm property without encumbrance, three-fourths of the farm indebtedness actually existing, according to the Secretary, was created, not to meet any deficit in income, but to purchase new farms or to improve farm property already owned. This is, in fact, what every one at all familiar with American farming knew in a general way already. The burden of debt is not at all felt by the farmers East or West who have developed their property in conservative and prudent fashion. There have been other farmers, however, who undertook the business differently; who, when they had secured a good return from 100 acres, borrowed at once sufficient money to purchase 1,000 acres more.

Three or four years ago no spectacle was more familiar in Kansas and Nebraska than this kind of operation, which of course involved the largest imaginable risk. The first bad harvest brought down such enterprises to the verge of wreck—precisely as the first bad trade season would overwhelm an incapable merchant making a similar experiment. The fact that two or more Eastern mortgage companies, from whom these unsuccessful farmers raised their money, have themselves been brought into bankruptcy as a result of trans-Missouri investments of the kind, is proof enough, one would suppose, that the farmers in question were not ruined through the oppression of their Eastern creditors. The Secretary's second point of special interest deals with this very question of interest on farm mortgages. He shows by official figures that, in a large percentage of Western farm States—including Iowa and Kansas—the rate of interest on farm mortgages is below the mortgage rate on other realty. In Kansas, on the average, the farmer gets his money at ¼ to ½ of 1 per cent. per annum less than the rate allowed to the borrower on other real estate. That the farmer, even in the West, has suffered no loss from his comparatively high rates of mortgage interest, the report proves by the fact that actual increase in farm-land values, between the census years 1880 and 1890, was more than enough to offset the entire interest charge for the decade. We may add to this the fact, based upon personal examination of the price records of Iowa farms in recent transfers, that the gain in actual selling value of the farms, when they were wisely chosen, has continued to increase since 1890.

The most expressive way of describing John R. Rogers, who has just been elected Governor of Washington by the Populists, is to say that he lived in Kansas for a dozen years before going to the Pacific Coast, and was universally recognized as one of the greatest cranks ever bred in that State. The platform on which Rogers ran is found in 'The Irrepressible Conflict,' a book which embodies his ideas of finance, government, and society. The author declares that "at the present time the people of the United States confront a world-wide and world-long evil, of far greater magnitude than chattel slavery was—the private monopoly of money"; that "the bar, the bench, and pulpit have become, with some notable and soul-rejoicing exceptions, mere minions registering King Mammon's decrees"; that "good Christian gentlemen—as the world goes—are reaping enormous gains by creating in this fair land an earthly hell"; that "gold is of no real value to humanity, and is only used as a means of extortion, being dependent upon ignorance and prejudice for its power"; and that "the average banker has ruined more homes and blasted more lives, a hundred to one, than the traffic in alcohol." One would say that the writer of such stuff must be either a fanatic or a fool. But Rogers himself says that he is neither. Since his election he virtually admits that he wrote this sort of thing purely in a Pickwickian sense—"I did it to arouse the people"; in other words, that he is an unscrupulous demagogue, ready to adopt any means to obtain office.

The *Yale Review* suggestively sums up what may be called the evolution of the campaign literature circulated in such enormous masses during the last five months. At first the advantage was largely with the silverites. Being old hands at the business, they had long been making use of quotations from the Bible and sentimental pictures and cartoons, and, when they captured the Democratic party, they had ready a vast amount of ammunition of this sort. It broke readily through the first rather feeble defence of the Republicans. Of what use was it to protest that you were friendly to silver when there was an authentic cut of you in the act of pursuing and assassinating that helpless metal? What good did it do to show by accurate tables that silver had largely increased in use since 1873, when you were sure to be confronted with a picture of a one-eyed or one-legged man, and asked to explain wherein bimetallism differed from having two eyes and two legs? But it was not long before the sentimental argument was turned against the emotional silverites. Moving cartoons of Chinese and Mexican and Japanese silver-users were got up, and the poser put to the free-silver campaigners if we were all to become even as those Dagoes and heathen. Finally, the Republicans got their second wind and took the aggressive. They demanded answers to the specific question how free silver would affect specific classes. They showed what would be its sure effect on wages, on savings, on industry and commerce and farming. This put the Democrats on the defensive, and then it was all up with them. Their whole campaign, for the last two months of it, was one of dodging and trying in vain to change the issue.

There seems to be no doubt that the spoilsmen of the Platt machine are planning an attack upon the civil-service laws of the State for the purpose of getting control of the offices. Their plan, as openly revealed, is to pass a bill through the Legislature which will give each department of the State service control of the examinations for vacancies in its own force. That is to say, Mr. Aldridge of the Public Works Department would have power to appoint the examining board for all his employees, Mr. Lyman of the State Excise Bureau similar power in his department, and so on throughout the State. In this city the Fire, Public Works, Dock, and other departments would each have the same power. This was the desire of Messrs. Ford and La Grange of the Fire Board last winter, when they were trying to get control of all the patronage of that department. It has been the desire of all opponents of the civil-service laws everywhere since they went into operation, for it means merely "pass examinations" for the men selected by the political machines. The people of the State should

not be deceived for a moment about the character of this raid. It is a deliberate attempt to get around the new Constitution by pretending to enforce its requirements while at the same time it really nullifies them. There is only one way in which the raid can be defeated, and that is by arousing public sentiment against it. The Civil-Service Association has declared its purpose of opposing the measure by all means in its power, and should have the support of all friends of honest and decent government.

The Canadian Ministry are finding it as hard as the framers of our Wilson bill to reform the tariff without crippling the revenues of the Government. With customs and the excise almost the only sources of revenue for the general Government in Canada, the possibility of actual or even approximate free trade is seen at once to be very small. The case in a nutshell is as follows: Revenue to the amount of $20,000,000 must be had from customs duties. These may be levied on a total value of imports amounting to about $125,000,000. But, under the present tariff, something like one-half these imported goods comes in free. The problem is, therefore, to raise $20,000,000 revenue on $70,000,000 of imports. There you get at once a *prima facie* ad-valorem duty of nearly 30 per cent., and no way of twisting the figures can make it much less on any considerable items. It is clear, then, that Mr. Laurier's promised revision of the Canadian tariff in the interest of freer trade must, in the nature of the case, be a very meagre and tentative affair. But he was clear-sighted enough and frank enough to perceive and declare this to be the fact before his triumph at the polls last June.

The fact is, that, neither in Canada nor in the United States nor in the Australasian colonies, can a general tariff for revenue fail to be sufficiently protective. A few articles may be singled out, as in the British tariff, simply and solely for customs revenue, and the great body of imports left untaxed. But if you tax all along the line and count upon your main income from duties on imports, you cannot avoid giving incidental protection to domestic manufactures. The only resort is to some other form of taxation. Without the income tax and death duties, England would be obliged to have what would be in effect a protective tariff. Historically, the income tax preceded free trade in England. Sir Robert Peel had an income tax of 7d. in the pound in operation and yielding a revenue of from $25,000,000 to $30,000,000 a year for four years before he repealed the corn laws in 1846. But a country long accustomed to the ease and secrecy, even with unjust incidence, of indirect tariff taxation, will not take kindly to an income tax, or any other form of direct taxation. It would undoubtedly be highly unpopular in Canada, and Mr. Laurier is said to have no intention whatever of experimenting with it.

Spain congratulates herself, and with good reason, on the success of her popular loan to prosecute the Cuban war. With a corresponding success in the field, many people would be inclined to think that the trouble was all over. But this would be far from being the case. The misery of the Cuban situation, looked at from the most hopeful Spanish point of view, is that pacification and orderly government of the island seem now more impossible than ever. If this rebellion should be stamped out, another one would break out in the mountains before the next rainy season is over. There is absolutely no promise of governmental or commercial stability in the island for long years to come, no matter how victorious the Spanish arms may be. Moreover, it is one thing to get a loan and another to be able to meet swelling interest charges. It is the opinion of the best European judges that Spain is now staggering under every ounce of financial burden that she can possibly carry. With Cuban industries ruined and Cuban revenues cut off, and Spain compelled to make good her guarantee of Cuban bonds, the prospect is gloomy enough to appall the stoutest Spanish heart. Success in the field means but new perils in the council of ministers. The spirit of the Spanish Government and the Spanish people through all these trials has been lofty and worthy of their best traditions. European capitalists no doubt admire it as much as everybody else, but they have said, as they have refused to lend more money to Spain, "It is magnificent, but it is not business."

The killing of an artisan for rubbing against an officer's chair in Carlsruhe has caused more excitement in Germany than any other incident of the kind has ever done, and it is not likely to be allayed by the proposed reform in military procedure. The reform consists mainly in the publicity of the proceedings. It does not affect the composition of the tribunal, or the nature of the evidence, or the sentences. The code of honor by which officers of the army live in relation to civilians, will remain unchanged, and the Emperor openly urges its maintenance in full vigor, with the qualification that he advises officers not to appear in public when excited with wine. This code makes each officer the judge in his own cause. It is for him to decide when he is insulted, when his honor is impugned, and what the penalty of the offence should be—whether death or simple apology. If, for instance, you brush past or jostle him on the sidewalk, it is for him to say whether you must die or may be let off on begging his pardon. If it should get abroad that he had been jostled and had not threatened you with death, it would ruin him. He would have to leave his regiment.

The military men in Germany maintain that this cultivated ferocity of disposition, which goes by the name of "honor," is necessary to keep up the martial spirit of the army. The theory from the earliest period of the modern world has been that a man-at-arms must be touchier than other people, and must now and then take the law into his own hands, in order to keep up his stomach for fighting in the field. Lecky discusses this in his 'History of Rationalism.' The first blow ever struck at the theory was in England about fifty years ago, when duelling even in the army was abolished. It was then found that the theory had its chief support in the duel, and that when officers were compelled to treat "insults" as civilians treat them, their "honor" ceased to be more sensitive than that of other people, and that their courage or military spirit was in no way affected thereby. In fact, the theory was found to be quite hollow, like the football theory with us, which maintains that unless our young men "buck and tackle" each other, they will shrink from facing the foe in the field in time of war. Since military honor was abolished in England, English soldiers have fought with the old courage on a score of fields. The whole subject is a ludicrous comment on the notion that war elevates character. Tens of thousands of young men, in Germany and in France, have to-day to be kept in a state of readiness to commit murder for trifles, in order to prepare them for the exercise of their profession. And yet they all go to church regularly, have prayer at the guard-houses, and the German court has a "chaplain."

In the debate in the Reichstag last week, Herr Bebel, the spokesman of the Socialists, boldly said that the Emperor's talk about insult to the uniform was that of an insane person. Herr Bebel meant the words in their literal sense, and thousands of Germans believe him to be telling the exact truth. Some day, it is to be hoped, the most intelligent nation in the world will refuse longer to be made the victim of the mad pranks of a monarch who ought to be under medical surveillance. Certainly it must be profoundly humiliating to enlightened Germans to have to sit still under such sentiments as the Minister of War gave utterance to in the same debate under the Emperor's direction. He practically defended the killing of civilians on sight by army officers, on the ground that any remark disrespectful to the Emperor was deserving of death. As any impoliteness to an officer is also, constructively, an insult to the Emperor, the invitation to commit murder with impunity seems to be as freely extended in Berlin as in Constantinople.

THE INDIANAPOLIS MOVEMENT.

THE most hopeful movement towards reforming the currency and reaping the fruits of the victory for sound money is the one initiated on Wednesday week by the Indianapolis Board of Trade, which adopted the following preamble and resolution:

"Whereas, The result of the recent national election signifies clearly a determination on the part of the people to have a sound-money system of currency, and it is manifest that reforms in the existing systems are necessary;

"Resolved, That the boards of trade of Chicago, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Louisville, Cleveland, Columbus, Toledo, Kansas City, Detroit, Milwaukee, St. Paul, Des Moines, Minneapolis, Peoria, Grand Rapids, and Omaha be invited to send four delegates to a preliminary conference to be held in Indianapolis on December 1, 1896, for the purpose of considering the advisability of calling a larger conference, composed of delegates from the boards of trade and commercial organizations of the cities of the United States, to consider the propriety of creating a non-partisan commission to which shall be assigned the duty of formulating a plan for the reform of the currency, to be reported to a subsequent meeting of the conference."

Not only is the movement itself in the right direction, but the place where it takes its start is the best possible. Indianapolis is the city where Palmer and Buckner were nominated. It is identified by that fact with the cause of sound money. It is in the centre of the central West, which routed the Bryanites so magnificently in the recent election. It is the capital of a State on which a great many anxious thoughts were centred during the campaign, and it was from Indianapolis mainly that the influences went forth that finally rolled up 22,000 majority for McKinley and Hobart. It has ably conducted newspapers heartily supporting the movement. No other place could more appropriately take the necessary step.

What it is that we call a necessary step we may again briefly explain. During the past four years we have had a money panic of great severity, followed by a disastrous collapse of trade and industry lasting till the present time. During this time the Government has bought nearly $300,000,000 of gold, and issued interest-bearing bonds therefor. This has been rendered necessary by the existence of its outstanding demand-notes and the presentation of them for redemption. The issue of bonds was absolutely indispensable, since in no other way could the gold standard have been preserved and the solvency of the Government maintained. Yet the very fact of issuing them put a weapon in the hands of demagogues which might have destroyed the republic. They said that the banks were drawing out the gold in order to force the Government to issue the bonds for them to speculate with, and that the banks repeated this operation as often as they pleased. They found some millions of voters who either believed this falsehood or who voted as though they believed it, and these millions, although a minority of the whole people, are still here ready to vote the same way again. Shall the material out of which such a conflagration is likely to arise be left for any incendiary to touch with a match?

It is very easy to say that we have passed that danger, that we shall now have better times, and that everybody will forget the panic of 1893 and the long trail of stagnation and business failures that followed it. How do you know that? There never was a period in our history when such conditions seemed less likely to occur than the year 1890. What happened in that year may easily happen again. Three things took place which conspired to produce the disaster of 1893. There was an alliance between the silver Republicans and the Southern Senators which led to the passage of the Sherman Silver act. There was a McKinley tariff law which set out to reduce the revenue, and so far succeeded that the Government's income very soon fell below its expenditures. There was a financial crisis in Europe, known as the Baring panic, which led to the selling of a great many American securities by foreign investors. Exactly how much was contributed by each of these factors will never be known, because nobody will ever be able to disentangle all the elements of the scare. It is sufficient to point out that the gold reserve began to run down, that it fell rapidly and enormously in 1891 and 1892, so that, in the spring of 1893, measures of replenishing became necessary. If the Government had had no demand-notes outstanding, it would have been under no necessity of replenishing its gold reserve. Although it might have needed some money to meet the deficiency of current receipts, its borrowings would have been limited to that deficiency. Moreover, as the cause of the borrowing would have been perfectly understood, it would have led to no political discontent, but would probably have resulted in a wholesome popular demand for reduced expenditures. As the cause was not understood, the door was left open to the wildest surmises and the most dangerous heresies, and is still open.

We repeat that there is nothing, either in the nature of things or in the temper of the people, or in the wisdom of such Congresses as we have reason to look for hereafter, which can be relied on to prevent a recurrence of these or other equally baneful circumstances. It is the unexpected which most generally happens in this world, and we cannot be at all certain what kind of a Congress may be elected two years from now. There may be another panic abroad. Such events are not infrequent. We may have short crops, or a foreign embroilment of some kind—there are plenty of Jingoes ready to provide us with one. Any number of eventualities may occur which shall bring us face to face with a diminished gold reserve and the necessity of a new issue of bonds. How many such can we have—we ask the question in all seriousness—without throwing the majority of electoral votes into the Bryan column? Does anybody who voted against Bryan on the 3d of November want to take the risk of the next election after a few more bond sales shall have been made? And is there any certain method of avoiding such sales while the Government's demand-notes are outstanding?

THE CREDIT OF THE SOUTH.

Two of the best of the Southern papers, the Charleston *News and Courier* and the Columbia (S. C.) *State*, have replied to our observations on the financial situation in which the South has left itself, through its part in the election, in terms of haughty indignation. They protest against the idea of "punishing" the South, and against the idea that the South will ever "beg" or "pass around the hat." This reminds us much of certain excellent remarks in Mr. Rae's work, the 'Country Banker.' In his advice to the manager, he says:

"In the course of your management you will not always be the medium of pleasing intelligence from your directors to your clients. You have to intimate to Mr. Bareacres, perhaps, that the loan of a few thousand pounds for a year or two at 3 per cent. without security, for which that gentleman has applied to the directors, cannot be granted. The fact probably is that, apart from other fatal objections to the transaction, Mr. Bareacres is not safe for anything like the amount. But you are not obliged to tell him so. Without impugning his credit to his teeth, the refusal of the loan, even if conveyed to him in the mildest language, will be disappointment enough to a man of sanguine disposition, which I take to be the normal temperament of that variety of borrower who makes periodical applications to bankers for ridiculous advances on impossible terms. Mr. Bareacres will either accept the decision of your board with good grace, or he may resort to irritating comment, in which case it will be well to put a guard upon your temper. Among other remarks, he may suggest, perhaps, that your bank hasn't the money to spare. Nevertheless, it would be a mistake to fly into a passion or bandy words with him. Rather accept the sneer as a drollery on his part, and offer to lend him twice the money on approved security and rational terms. He will thus be discomfited on ground of his own choosing, and leave you master of the situation."

We simply pointed out to the South, in as mild terms as seemed consistent with lucidity, that its political course was calculated to destroy its own credit; and we based this conclusion, not on hope, or fear, or love, or hatred, or any other human passion, but on human experience and on principles of human nature. The first wish of an investor or lender is, not to be friendly or humane, but to be safe. He does not part with his money for the purpose of obliging somebody or because he admires somebody. He parts with it for the purpose of getting it back with interest or profit. This is what is meant by "business."

Now all men and communities of whom we have ever heard, who are civilized enough to borrow or invite investors, and who wish to do so, are careful to hold out the prospect of safety to them. They

tell, it is true, of their natural advantages, but they tell above all of the goodness of their laws, of the purity and learning of their judges, of the high morality of the community touching the payment of debts and fulfilment of contracts. It was through these things, in fact, that all communities of whom history tells us anything, rose to wealth and renown through trade—Venice, Genoa, Holland, the Hansa towns, England. They were all most particular in proclaiming to the world that the foreigner and his money were safe among them, that whatever he put into their hands he was sure to get back undiminished and unadulterated. All these states have made a great point of having a fixed money standard of value, and letting the world know about it by telling it the exact weight and quality of their standard coin. They always made boast, too, of the purity of their courts. We all remember how, in the "Merchant of Venice," *Antonio* hopes nothing from the Duke's mercy, because

> "The Duke cannot deny the course of law;
> For the commodity that strangers have
> With us in Venice, if it be denied,
> Will much impeach the justice of the state,
> Since that the trade and profit of the city
> Consisteth of all nations."

Now, bearing all this in mind, consider what a large part of the South has done. It wants capital to develop its extraordinary natural resources and employ its labor. This capital it has to borrow, yet cannot borrow without making those who have to lend sure that the money will be repaid in exactly the same value—not simply in the same name—in which it is lent, and that in all disputes touching the lenders' rights the local courts will decide the matter on principles of justice and equity. It therefore endeavors, by means of a long, tumultuous agitation and a most exciting election, to convince the world that if its candidate for the Presidency be elected there will thereafter be no fixed standard of value at the South; that the existing one will be immediately lowered, in obedience to a strong popular demand, and will probably be revised and changed quadrennially by the popular vote controlled and influenced by strolling orators of all kinds; and that anybody who complains of this, or protests against it, is probably a minion of an indefinite influence called "the money power," and ought to be hanged or driven out of the country.

To prevent the investor's supposing that he has a legal protection against this extraordinary programme, the Bryanite States also inform him that their intention is, owing to the bad conduct of the Supreme Court about a popular tax, called the income tax, to "reorganize" the Court also, once in four years or thereabouts, by adding to the number of judges, so that its decisions on questions of constitutionality may always accord, as they ought to accord, with the views of the party having a majority at the last preceding election, and that if, for instance, this majority should decide that leather or iron money was good enough for foreign creditors, the court should so declare, through a majority of the judges created for that purpose.

The above is a true description of what the Bryanite States said to "the money power" through the last election. All we have done is to point out to the South the probable effects of this on the mind of "the money power." We are no more responsible for these effects than for any other phenomenon of human nature—for a man's fear when he is going to be hanged, for his joy when he hears he has inherited a fortune, or for his sorrow when he hears that his chief debtor has "burst up." To be angry with us about it is therefore most ludicrous. The proper way to answer us is to show that the South at the last election did not make these declarations to the world; that it has a known standard of value, and clings to it; that it attaches great importance to judicial independence; and that Bryan, its candidate, was a distinguished and well-known citizen, renowned for his sagacity and business experience and juristical attainments, and long familiar with financial problems and financial history. By showing these things to be true, it would cover us with shame.

BRYAN AND PLATT.

We think we may assert confidently that the opposition to Bryan, at least in this State, was due more largely to his attack on the Government of the United States, his proposal to change the character of the Supreme Court and deprive the President of the power to keep the public highways open in case of the treachery or inability of the local authorities, and to his attempts to excite class hatred, than to his silver heresies. It was felt that his governmental theories were, in fact, far more dangerous than his currency follies. Why were they dangerous? They were dangerous because every government owes its strength, not to the paper documents in which it is defined, but to its hold on the minds of the people who live under it. There are several countries which have paper constitutions as good as or better than ours; but they do not work, and for the simple reason that they have not secured popular comprehension, respect, and acquiescence. But Bryan's crusade, large amount of support as it received from the more ignorant and unthinking portion of the population, was prevented from being really dangerous by his frankness. In several hundred speeches in all parts of the country he set forth his plans and theories with the utmost candor. There never was, from the beginning, the slightest doubt about his aims except what came from the somewhat muddled and contradictory character of his arguments. Everybody knew, or thought he knew, what would happen if Bryan were elected. He alarmed the community as it has not been alarmed since the war of 1861. He made women, as well as men, tremble for the political constitution which had for one hundred years been their boast and glory.

We wish to point out, in all seriousness, that there is an agency at work in this State to-day far more dangerous than Bryan, because it is secret and silent. It is engaged much more effectively than Bryan in destroying the popular respect for American institutions and confidence in American government as set forth in the written constitution and laws. That agency is Thomas C. Platt, the President of an express company at No. 49 Broadway, and a legal resident of Owego, Tioga County. He took charge of the Republican party some years ago, with the apparent acquiescence of the voters; and within that period, without ever making a speech or writing an article under his own name worth serious consideration, he has been successful in so completely changing the government of the State that, if his scheme were put on paper, it would be found to bear hardly more resemblance to our State Constitution as amended in 1894 than the government of Italy. This, too, has been done so privately that probably four-fifths of those who voted against Bryan, or were frightened by Bryan, will suppose that, in saying this, we are either greatly exaggerating or giving expression to party malice. But a generation is growing up and coming on the stage which is becoming so familiar with Platt's system that all memory or thought of any other is passing out of their minds.

Suppose he were as frank and open as Bryan, and went about the State making speeches in which he set forth his plan, what would he say? Something like this:

"Fellow-Citizens: You all know that I am a plain, blunt man, who stayed only one year in college and got very little instruction while I was there. I am not an orator, or what is called a 'thinker.' I am not in any sense an authority on any subject outside of politics. Nobody believes much of what I say, except my immediate adherents, but I write articles secretly which I send to the country newspapers, praising myself and my own work, and they are extensively circulated. I believe that the best way to select a Governor for the State is to let me select him, and I would never select him without getting from him pledges beforehand to appoint certain men to office, also to be named by me, and to sign certain bills which I get up for my own purposes. I am utterly opposed to the election of any Governor on the ground of his character and eminence, who acts in any office under any advice but mine, or from the humbug called a 'sense of public duty.' I believe, in short, the gubernatorial office is best filled when there is a good man like myself behind the Governor's chair to tell him what to do. I am entirely op-

posed to the civil-service clause in the Constitution, but I would not oppose it publicly. I recommend that it be secretly evaded, with the Governor's connivance, either by openly disregarding it in making appointments, or by selecting Commissioners who will not carry it out. My own idea is that it is not best to appoint men of good character and regular occupation to office at all. The best men to carry out the system of government which I believe in, are ignorant and unscrupulous men of bad reputation. If they have been indicted for crimes of violence, or the lighter kinds of fraud, so much the better. Such men are much more obedient to me, and therefore more useful, than those produced by Chinese examinations. In fact, I think a State civil service should generally be manned by poor characters. The Mugwump talk about 'fitness' makes me sick, as I am sure it does you.

"As regards the Legislature, I do not think any one should be elected to it without my consent or approval. Such candidates I am willing to assist with contributions from the fund which I collect from the corporations, and of which I neither keep nor render any account. I always make a return to the corporations, however, either by protecting them from blackmail legislation set on foot by myself, or by selling them such legislation as they may desire. I would not allow any legislator to appear in his own character in either branch. I do not allow legislators to debate or vote out of their own heads. I require every legislator to have an 'owner' in the person of some outsider, who can be arranged with for his services. I require all legislative measures to be submitted to me for my approval before their introduction, on pain of being defeated without debate. In fact, I do not allow discussion of measures at all, except in very extreme cases, and I think the notion that American government is 'government by discussion' a mischievous delusion. I have contrived another and more effective process for the passage of bills, called 'jamming through.' To what is called 'good city government' —that is, government of a city for the convenience and according to the wishes of the majority of the inhabitants—I am utterly opposed. I consider all talk of this kind disgusting cant. My plan of governing cities is government by commissions appointed by myself, and consisting of adventurers of poor character dependent on me for a livelihood."

Now suppose Platt were to do as Bryan did—go through the country addressing people on the stump in favor of a plan of this sort—what should we say? And yet, without speaking on the stump at all, he has introduced this very plan, and it is now in operation among us, and tens of thousands of our young men have ceased to think of any other government as possible. A more striking illustration of the way republican governments decline and fall there is not in history, and teachers of political science ought to make more use of it than they do.

A CONSERVATIVE PEOPLE.

VERMONT has always required a majority vote for the election of legislators. Every other State in the Union has adopted the plurality system. A bill to substitute this system came before the Vermont Legislature on November 17. Its advocates showed that the requirement of a majority vote for election, compelling, as it often does, prolonged and even finally fruitless balloting, frequently disfranchises the old, the infirm, and the weak, who cannot endure the weary hours consumed in balloting; and that it almost always leaves some towns in the State unrepresented in the Legislature, because no candidate can get a majority, even when the struggle has been kept up into the second day. But such arguments were of no avail, and the proposed innovation was rejected by a two-thirds vote of the House.

Massachusetts has always chosen State officers and legislators annually. Every other one of the old States (except Rhode Island) and all the newer commonwealths have adopted longer terms, and the system has stood the test of experience wherever it has been tried. The advocates of the reform, after prolonged efforts and frequent rebuffs in the Legislature, finally succeeded in having a biennial-election amendment to the Constitution submitted to the voters three weeks ago, but it was rejected at the polls by a large majority.

The question of calling conventions to frame new constitutions was submitted to the voters of New Hampshire and Minnesota on the 3d of November, and various constitutional amendments were passed upon in many other States. The proposals for conventions were defeated in the States just named, and the amendments were rejected in almost every case, whether good, bad, or indifferent—the only striking exception being the majority cast for the woman-suffrage proposition in the thinly settled State of Idaho.

In almost every one of these cases the result was due simply to the conservatism of the people. "I hold to the old practices and ideas that have been tried and not found wanting"—this remark of one speaker at Montpelier was the keynote of the opposition to plurality elections of legislators in Vermont. "Where annual elections end, there tyranny begins," said John Adams in the last century; and there were plenty of eminent citizens in Massachusetts a hundred years later to reëcho the declaration, undeterred by the spectacle of scores of commonwealths with less frequent elections which are apparently as free as the Bay State. "Let well alone," even if it is not very well—that was plainly the mood of voters almost everywhere, even when changes in the Constitution which had much of promise in them were suggested.

The disinclination to change here shown is common to all the States. Mr. F. J. Stimson of Boston has for many years studied the work of lawmakers throughout the country. In the last issue of the *Yale Review* he says that "no one who attempts a summary of the legislation of the forty-five States and three Territories of the Union for recent years can fail to be struck with the wave of conservatism passing over our many sovereign legislatures." Mr. Stimson is able to contrast recent laws with those passed in the seventies, and he declares that this wave of conservatism "is so marked as to convince the student that it is more than a temporary eddy, and betokens a permanent and rational conviction in the minds of the people and their representatives that the fundamental principles of the common law had better be left alone."

The conservative tendency thus shown as to State laws and constitutions has received a most striking illustration in the recent national election. It is not too much to say that no question has ever been presented to the voters of the United States which afforded a clearer test of the readiness of the American people to try a radical change. A long period of hard times had, as always, inclined the unthinking to look with favor upon any policy which promised relief, and the most abundant material for successful appeals to ignorance and prejudice was diligently used by cunning demagogues during the canvass. But the overwhelming majority against the proposed change of the monetary standard showed that the people are essentially conservative.

Foreign critics of our institutions have noted this characteristic of our people. Mr. Bryce, in the 'American Commonwealth,' after remarking that Americans are, in a sense, "a changeful people"—as shown, for instance, by the suddenness with which the Know-nothing party of forty years ago rose and fell—says:

> "After this it may seem a paradox to add that the Americans are a conservative people. Yet any one who observes the power of habit among them, the tenacity with which old institutions and usages, legal and theological formulas, have been clung to, will admit the fact. A love for what is old and established is in their English blood. . . . They are like a tree whose pendulous shoots quiver and rustle with the lightest breeze, while its roots enfold the rock with a grasp which storms cannot loosen."

The most significant feature of the recent election was its demonstration that the conservatism which Mr. Bryce attributes to the "English blood" of our people is not less characteristic of the foreign strains which have been infused into the electorate. Grave fears have been entertained that the spirit which had animated New Englanders of native descent, living for the most part in small agricultural communities, would not be found dominant in great cities made up of heterogeneous foreign elements, nor in

agricultural commonwealths at the West where the majority of the voters are men who were born in other countries. This fear has been effectually dispelled when Chicago, a city where 60 per cent. of the males twenty-one years old and upwards were born abroad, gives 70,000 majority on the side of conservatism, and North Dakota, a farming State without one large city, where almost two-thirds of the men are of alien birth, gives 6,000 majority on the same side out of 40,000 votes —the equivalent of 90,000 majority in a poll as large as that of Indiana.

Doubtless we shall continue to try more or less foolish experiments in government, and suffer more or less for our folly. But the composite people which now make up the nation have certainly demonstrated that, as regards the fundamental principles, they are quite as conservative a race as the more homogeneous elements which set the new government in operation a century ago.

CABINET CHANGES IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, October 19, 1896.

WHEN the war with China was brought to a close and the treaty of peace signed, it was generally believed in Japan that Count Ito had his most brilliant record still to make. The Premier was neither by inclination nor ability a war minister. His *forte* had always been supposed to lie not in the execution of a policy requiring dash and courage, but rather in the construction of a plan slowly and carefully elaborated. When, in addition to the victory of peace, he secured the coöperation of the Jiyu-to, or Liberals, and induced their leader, Count Itagaki, to enter the Cabinet as Home Minister, he seemed to give double assurance to the public that his real genius was at last about to manifest itself. He commanded a majority of the votes in Parliament, he had the undoubted favor of the Emperor, he had derived some prestige from the conduct of a successful war, he had an indemnity to conjure with. What more, was the natural inquiry, is necessary for a man of his type of mind and character to enable him to guide the country to solid prosperity after the inevitable excitement and losses of war?

And truly at first the Ito Cabinet had a certain show of success, especially in elaborating various measures in regard to taxation, banking, and shipping, and further in securing their passage through Parliament. But this success was as brief as it was solitary. The Cabinet steadily lost the support of public opinion. Affairs in Corea went from bad to worse. Every diplomatic failure in that unfortunate country, instead of spurring the Japanese Government to a more energetic and enlightened policy, led only to fresh failure. The Tokyo press in vain clamored for reform. The final upshot of all the Japanese Government's efforts in Corea was to leave that country in almost the same state of demoralization as at the beginning. In Formosa, also, the attempts of the late Cabinet to reorganize the administration were not beneficial. The work of the army in the island has been probably free from any serious error, but the civil administration is rotten, and the Japanese workmen dispatched there by the Government have acted in a way to bring contempt on the people and policy of Japan. In the month of June the Prime Minister went to Formosa and had an opportunity of personally inspecting the situation there. It might have been expected that this visit would lead to some decisive measures of reform, but the public was again disappointed. Not a few Japanese newspapers pointed out that the conduct of affairs in Formosa, so far from being an improvement on the slipshod methods of the Chinese Government, was actually in comparison a detriment to the interests of the island.

Besides all these evidences of failure, the finances of the Government were not properly dealt with, or at least the financial policy of the Government did not inspire confidence. Rumors were circulated that the Minister of Finance was at variance with the heads of other departments in regard to the expenditures for the coming year. The estimates were forty millions (yen) in excess of the probable revenue, and the Finance Minister threatened to resign if his colleagues were determined to augment the budget for the coming year to such an extent. This state of indecision and confusion in the Cabinet was reflected in the condition of the business interests of the country. Trade and manufactures, which had been buoyant during the past year, suffered a check. As a consequence the stock exchanges showed a reaction in the prices of securities, and Government bonds fell several points. The Cabinet was everywhere discredited. It suffered from internal contentions as well as from outward attacks, and the general feeling grew that its duty was to make way for a new Government. Accordingly, Marquis Ito and, with a single exception, all his colleagues tendered their resignations on the 28th and 29th of August, leaving the difficult work of constructing a new Cabinet to a fresh combination of the Sat-cho statesmen.

So general and various were the causes of the downfall of the Ito Ministry that the political parties of the Opposition found difficulty in assigning a definite reason for it. It was in reality a general breakdown, originating in a want of decision, absence of unity, and lack of moral stamina in the Cabinet as a whole. The immediate occasion of the failure was simple. Count Ito, in allying himself with the Liberals and attaching Count Itagaki to his Cabinet, had definitely made a political enemy of those parties and party leaders to whom the Liberals were in opposition. As soon as it was seen that the Departments of Foreign Affairs and Finance were without ministers of sufficient authority to establish a satisfactory policy, a widespread demand arose that Count Okuma and Count Matsukata should respectively fill these important offices. The former is believed to be the most capable man in Japan for administering the foreign relations of the country, while the latter at present enjoys the confidence of all the industrial and commercial classes to a remarkable degree. To admit these two men into his Cabinet, however, was out of the question, as in that case Marquis Ito would have proved entirely disloyal to his late allies and their leader, Count Itagaki. As the difficulty of filling these two departments satisfactorily increased, it was finally accepted as an excuse for the resignation of nearly the entire Cabinet. The truth, however, is that this was merely a pretext. The Premier left the reins of government to other hands not on any specific point of principle, but because the entire political and financial situation of the country had become too complicated for his resources. The exit of the Cabinet, coming, as it did, at a time when one would naturally have expected a successful and energetic prosecution of various post-bellum measures, was distinctly of a character to suggest a lack of moral force and of political insight. One has only to recall the work accomplished by Germany after the war of 1870-71 to perceive the failure of the Ito Ministry in all its length and breadth.

The very condition of hopelessness and uncertainty in which the Cabinet left the affairs of state made the work of finding a suitable successor a matter of the greatest difficulty. At first Marquis Yamagata was spoken of as the probable head of the next Cabinet, with Matsukata as Minister of Finance and Okuma of Foreign Affairs. But the Marquis had but little inclination for the honor. He was suffering from an illness, and did not wish to risk his health still further in undertaking to steer the Administration at a time when failure would bring disgrace, and success would hardly bring honor. It was perfectly understood that, whoever might be the nominal head of the Government, the real men in authority would be Okuma and Matsukata; consequently Marquis Yamagata probably did not relish the hardships he would have to encounter, especially when he could hardly do anything to add to his present reputation. Whatever the hidden political undercurrents that may have affected his judgment, they finally decided him to reject emphatically the premiership.

Still another doubt, however, was whether Marquis Yamagata could secure the services of Count Okuma on any fair terms. The sympathies of the Marquis are necessarily with the military wing of the Government, and the leading spirits of the army are strongly opposed to making any concessions to the desire for the so-called party system of government. Could Marquis Yamagata decently invite into his Cabinet a statesman who had done more, during the past six years, to precipitate a wholly popular method of government than any other public man in Japan? Or if the Marquis was ready to do this for the sake of getting the services of a competent minister, would Count Okuma be justified in accepting the office without making almost impossible conditions? Would the latter not stultify himself and justify the charge of his political enemies that he stood on a platform of opposition to the Sat-cho merely as a means of climbing into office? He could not decently accept a ministry in any cabinet that was in all likelihood definitely opposed to the principle of party government, however ready he might be to accept a portfolio in a cabinet not specifically pledged to this principle.

Meanwhile, affairs of state were hopelessly drifting. Within the group of statesmen who have during the past twenty-five years controlled the action of the Government (the so-called Genkun statesmen, composed mainly of men of Sat-cho affiliations), no one could be found to construct a cabinet under the given conditions, viz., that Count Okuma should have the Department of Foreign Affairs and Count Matsukata that of Finance. These two statesmen at last saw the situation approaching which their long opposition to the Ito Government had in some degree brought about. After two weeks of experiment, it was at last seen that affairs of state had reached an *impasse* from which the two statesmen alone could extricate it. There was undoubtedly prevalent much opposition to a Cabinet presided over by Count Matsukata. The conservative elements feared him as well

as his associate, because they felt that at any time these two men might precipitate without any reservations the system of party cabinets; and however much Count Ito did to promote the same end, yet he never publicly uttered a word in favor of the system.

It was little more than sheer necessity that induced the Conservatives to accept the fiat of the two principals. The difficulties in the way of Count Matsukata were very great. Three times he asked the Emperor to release him from the task of forming a cabinet, but he was clearly indispensable and he was urged to continue. For ten days the newspapers were filled with contradictory reports, sometimes going to the length of stating positively that he had absolutely refused to make any further effort. But every threat on his part to retire merely brought into clearer relief the impossibility of arranging the finances or of settling the pressing problems of colonial administration, and finally his opponents were forced to silence. On the 18th of September he formally accepted office, and a day later he was in a position to announce his new cabinet. He himself became Premier, and besides took charge of the Department of Finance, while Count Okuma, of course, was the Minister of Foreign Affairs. The other members of his Cabinet are for the most part Satsuma men, who will, however, have to fall in line with the demands of the two leaders or resign.

The press of the country assumes a curious attitude towards the new Administration. Nearly all the newspapers confess that it was born in weakness, that it has no sufficient backing at present in the Parliament, and that it may be short-lived. However indispensable the new Cabinet may be at this stage of affairs, yet it is believed that when Parliament opens it may have to reorganize on a more definite basis. It is almost a certainty that the question of government by party has been discussed at the meetings of the present Cabinet, and very near the surface at all events is this issue of issues. While no definite answer has, as yet, been made to this burning question, it may be fairly supposed that, when another crisis does arise, the power of the Satcho will fall and the so called clan system of government disappear for ever. It is possible that the leading spirits of the two most powerful clans may make one last struggle for survival, but even this, while hardly likely to occur, can do little more than prolong their authority for a brief period. G. D.

Correspondence.

MORE ANTI-BRYAN CITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your enumerations of majorities given in sixteen principal cities, you have named ten cities having a less population than Pittsburgh-Allegheny, which together gave McKinley a plurality of 28,000. "Greater Pittsburgh," which is virtually Allegheny County, with a population of 700,000, gave a Republican plurality of 49,000, and yet over 40,000 registered voters failed to vote. Many of these delinquents gave as an excuse that "Pennsylvania was sure, anyhow." Probably three-fourths of them were Republicans. One district, composed wholly of market gardeners, gave Bryan but two votes out of 85. In an exclusively farming district, Bryan got but 10 votes out of 160. Our "American" labor is mostly performed by Poles, Hungarians, and Italians, many of whom are included in the registration list, but do not vote. The party which demands the highest protection for this American labor always carries Allegheny County by a large majority.

Yours truly, W. Howels.

Pittsburgh, November 17, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 12 you mention Denver, Omaha, and New Orleans as the only cities of over 100,000 souls which were found on the wrong side in the recent election. This unenviable distinction does not belong to Omaha, which gave McKinley 1,272 votes over Bryan.—Respectfully,

Newton M. Mann.

Omaha, November 17, 1896.

THE FOREIGN VOTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit one of the foreign-born American citizens of the United States to thank you most sincerely for your editorial utterances in your issue of November 12? I refer to the article entitled "Redemption of our Cities." That a journal of the standing of the *Nation*, reaching, as it does, a very great proportion of cultivated and influential readers, should take this stand at this peculiar period in our national history is certainly very significant. It is also an act of justice for which every foreign-born American citizen has special reason for earnest gratefulness.

Permit me to call your attention to the enclosed publication, especially prepared by the undersigned, pending the last national campaign. It deals, as you will observe, exclusively with the Scandinavian aspect of the political field of the United States. You will notice that over 90 per cent. of the entire Scandinavian press, numbering more than one hundred journals, all their institutions of learning, or, more correctly, all their presidents and teachers, and, for all practical purposes, the entire Lutheran priesthood, were on the side of national honor and national conservatism in the body politic.

I have not had the opportunity to prepare a similar object-lesson as regards the other leading foreign divisions of our country, but I believe as good a showing would have been made for most of them. Altgeld and all he stands for are as much of an anachronism to the representative foreign-born workman in field or shop as is Tillmanism to the enlightened business judgment of the "New South." The "crackers" and their uncouth spokesman are not the real South; even less, if possible, do the Altgelds and their would-be blatherskite followers represent the hard-working, thrifty foreigner, whose main ambition, next after obtaining the boon he has travelled thousands of miles to obtain—remunerative employment—is the establishment of a home, either rural or urban. No commonwealth is in any danger whatever from its home building class of citizens, and that such are the actual facts in the case, and that our foreigners are above all home-builders, the census will prove, and the last election has magnificently vindicated the cold figures of that report.

That the *Nation* is among the very first to discern and publicly state this is, I repeat, one of the most satisfactory and significant results of the last great campaign.

Olaf Ellison.

Chicago, November 21, 1896.

FRENCH UNIVERSITIES AND AMERICAN STUDENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Several notes and communications have recently appeared in the *Nation* relative to the Franco-American Committee and the movement in France to make the universities of that country more accessible and profitable to American students. In order to correct certain misapprehensions apparent in at least one of these publications, I deem it proper to make a statement on the subject.

In May, 1895, a private gentleman, then resident in Paris, called the attention of the Minister of Public Instruction to the comparatively small number of American students who availed themselves of the advantages so freely offered them by the universities of France. The contrast with the large number who flock to the German universities was set forth, and the causes of the superior attractions seemingly offered by the latter country were discussed. The memorial led to the formation in Paris of a "Comité Franco-Américain," made up of a number of the most eminent of French educators, some of them holding high official positions in institutions of science and learning. This committee went at its work with a spirit which showed a warm desire to strengthen the bonds of intellectual sympathy between France and America. It was soon found advisable to know what measures would best conduce to the objects in view, especially that of rendering French university teaching useful and attractive to American students, and whether such measures would meet with a response in our own country.

Under these circumstances the writer was asked to form an American branch of the committee, which should serve the double purpose of expressing the feeling of American educators on the subject, and, if that feeling proved favorable, of advising the French committee as to what should be done. At first he demurred to the proposition on two grounds. One was, that American educators could not assume the attitude of petitioners before a foreign Government, asking them to change their rules and regulations in favor of our students. Another was, that he did not wish to engage in any movement which would imply unfriendliness towards the German universities, or a desire to dissuade American students from visiting them. These objections were, however, satisfactorily met by the assurance that the movement was not conceived in any spirit of rivalry with Germany, but solely in a desire for closer intellectual sympathy with America; and, so far as the measures proposed were concerned, the American committee would act only as an adviser to that already formed in Paris, and would not be expected to hold any communication with the official authorities in France.

A few of our eminent representative men who held official positions justifying them to speak with authority as representatives of American education, were then invited to make known their views on the subject, and, if favorable, to allow their names to be used as members of the proposed American branch. The responses were, with scarcely an exception, such as to show the French committee that their friendly feelings towards us were cordially reciprocated. The committee formulated a brief statement of what seemed to it the best measures to attain the end in view, and it is expected that these measures will be adopted as soon as circumstances permit.

The writer availed himself of a visit to

Paris last spring to discuss the subject personally with some of those most interested. The general outcome of the whole movement, so far as developed, is that American students desiring to avail themselves of the instruction of those French schools which are not designed exclusively for aspirants to the Government service will receive a most cordial welcome in France, and will find the treasures of French learning open to them on a scale and with a liberality which cannot be exceeded. The only important question which, so far as I am aware, remains undecided is that of the doctor's degree. The conditions on which this degree is conferred differ very widely in France from what they are in Germany and this country. In France the doctorate is awarded for some important work of original research, far beyond the ordinary doctor's thesis of other countries, and it requires no examination beyond what the aspirant is presumed to have already passed in obtaining the intermediate degree of *Licencié*. Some modifications of this system are in contemplation, but the writer is not advised as to the final outcome. SIMON NEWCOMB.

WASHINGTON, November 21, 1896.

TIVARONI'S ITALIAN RESURRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the Notes of No. 1634 of the *Nation* there is a paragraph on the very comprehensive history of the Italian resurrection, by Tivaroni, which seems to me to do very great injustice to that writer. It is true that there is no attempt at declamation or special pleas in his history, but the entire series is one of the most remarkable works of the historical spirit that I have ever come across, and I have had recent occasion to examine nearly everything that has been written on Italian history. It is so far from being "a ponderous mass of citations," as your note intimates, as to be, in my estimation, the most admirable summary of all the phases of the evolution of Italy from the end of its mediæval condition to the nation as it now exists, which can be found in all literature. It is true that the style is not attractive, and that as literature it is dry, but so far from being, as one might conclude from your note, the work of an "historical hodman," it is the statement, in the temper of a judicial and impartial critic, of the complicated and (to one who has not taken a part in the history itself) incomprehensible tangle of the real national life of Italy. It is not merely the sifting and verifying of that history in all its development, and the reduction to a clear and intelligible statement of everything that needs to be known of it, but it is such an impartial judgment of the men who have taken any considerable part in the formation of Italy as I do not believe exists with reference to any other country. It is to me delightfully free from rhetoric and special pleas, and I do not believe that a reader ignorant of the part taken by the author in Italian politics could guess to what party he belongs.

To any one who knows by actual contact the passionate perversion and exaggeration that disfigure more or less all the contemporary Italian histories of Italy, this is praise enough, but the merit does not limit itself to that. Tivaroni's work is the impartial examination of all these histories and the summing up, with a Rhadamantine impassibility, of their testimony. Everything has been read and weighed, from the bitter partisan records of La Farina and Gualterio to the verbose Corsi and Bersezio; and, simply taken as collation, it is rather the building of the solid framework of the house, to be decorated and stuccoed by others, than the heaping together of the facts of history for the use of later men. It is the work of a man who has lived and taken part with the men and in the events with which he deals; and that there should be no shade of partisan color in it—that it should render such justice, on the one hand, to Cavour and Charles Albert, and on the other to Garibaldi and Mazzini—that, but for knowing something of the life of the writer, I should never conjecture which of the rancorous parties in Italian politics he had belonged to, or rather come out from, is the highest praise which could be given to a contemporary historian, and this Tivaroni deserves. His history will be the basis for all forthcoming histories of Italy, and, diluted with rhetoric and fable, with the advocacy of political idols and partisan fads, will be disguised in innumerable works on Italy; but whatever is wanted to be learned on the growth and present decay of Italian institutions is to be found in these volumes.

Perhaps I mistake the drift of your note, and what was said was meant for praise and to distinguish Tivaroni from the "historical hodman"; and in that case I am only glad that I have had the opportunity to give my testimony to the value of one of the most remarkable and colossal works of modern history, from which I have in my own studies learned more of the growth of Italy than from all other works put together. In future centuries Tivaroni will be as indispensable to the student of the history of modern Italy as Herodotus to that of Greece. It is true that he records many details which are important only to an Italian reader, like the names and condition of the hundreds of martyrs to Italian liberty; and in the profusion of this detail the massive completeness of the work is sometimes disguised. But beyond the mere records of the facts, the author has given in the "Svolgimento del pensiero nazionale" the only existing complete summary of the development of Italian individuality, as distinguished from constitutionalism, and in this he has shown a philosophical acumen which is even more remarkable than the research of the purely historical portion of his work. To have maintained from the beginnings of Italy, through all her tortures and transformations, such a judicial temper, only broken over when it is a question of the inhuman suppressions of the Italian despots, in a pardonable and momentary flash of pious indignation, but never so far as to suppress or distort the facts, and, for the rest, with such calm and impartiality as to seem almost passionless, is, in a man writing of the events of his own time and country, an achievement which places Tivaroni, with all the defects of style and excessive condensation, in the front rank of modern historians.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, November 5, 1896.

OUR IMPROVED METHODS OF TEACHING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A dozen years or so ago, an engineer residing on the Pacific Coast, desiring to give his boy the best education possible, and influenced by glowing accounts of the new and improved methods of teaching introduced in the Eastern States, brought his boy to Boston, the focus of intellectual improvement.

At the East certain surprising facts were encountered. Thus, the number of college students was not increasing in proportion to the increase of population. Again, the age of the young men entering college was considerably greater than it had been thirty or forty years previously. At Harvard this increase of age is at least eighteen months on the average, as shown by data published by the University. The opinion was everywhere expressed that nowadays young men of seventeen are not mature enough to go to college, although in previous times the sufficiency of their maturity at this age was not seriously questioned. Moreover, there were mutterings concerning the attainments of candidates for admission to the colleges, culminating in the publishment of the Harvard examination papers, which were so poor that no boy writing such stuff could have been graduated from the preparatory school where the engineer studied in the late fifties.

These and similar facts bothered the newcomer. Trained by his professional work to judge theories by their practical results, he did not understand how, with such improved methods of training, the relative number of those desiring a college education could be lessened, the time needed to prepare students for the universities be increased, and perhaps, despite this increased time, the amount of useful knowledge of the languages be sensibly diminished. The excuses offered were to him unsatisfactory. The requirements for admission, it was explained, had been increased; but had not the methods of instruction been immensely improved? The examinations, it was said, are not fair tests of knowledge; the ignorant boys can be "crammed" through, and the good boys "get rattled." This, if true, is sad, for of what use is knowledge which is not utilizable when needed; and how can one discover whether it exists or not, except by such examinations? In practical life, both in business and in the professions, examinations are being held constantly, and men who do not pass them successfully, including those whose knowledge is so loose that it is rattled out of them by the tests, are relegated to the rear. As to the cramming business, it might be argued, with a fair show of reason, that this indicates the need of more numerous or more severe examinations quite as much as the necessity of abolishing them.

Desirous of solving the puzzle, the engineer has been visiting schools, from Massachusetts to Pennsylvania, during a dozen years, observing the methods of instruction, seeking to ascertain what the results actually are, and comparing these results with those obtained in the old-fashioned schools which he attended in his youth. Starting with a faith in the statements which had attracted him from the West, he has been forced slowly to the conclusion that these statements were greatly exaggerated, and that the results obtained by the new methods, under existing social conditions, are not only not so good as had been claimed, but to a certain extent positively bad.

Under existing social conditions, probably owing to them, the school-days in a year are considerably less in number than the holidays. A doctrine has become very popular, that children must not "use their brains" while they are very young. Few children go to school before they are five years old, very many not until seven. In numerous families school education is made entirely secondary to the pursuit of social pleasure. Under the delusion that brain-exercise is detrimental to

guese have been in possession of it for four centuries. This is due mainly to defects of administration, the officials being chosen, not for their capacity to govern the natives, but often as a punishment for some offence. The European army consists chiefly of military convicts. Another reason for the lack of growth is that, of the two crops solely cultivated, coffee and sugar, the latter is used mostly in the manufacture of rum, which is sold to the natives. The soil is rich in mineral deposits—iron, copper, and gold being found in all parts—but the mining "concessions are granted by the Portuguese on terms calculated to crush an infant industry, the price of the minerals extracted being fixed at Loanda."

The chief interest in the account of a journey round Siam, by J. S. Black, with which the *Geographical Journal* for November opens, lies in the contrast drawn between the regions opened respectively to French and British influence. The western basin of the Mekong, which, by the recent treaty with Siam, has become practically a French river, was found by the traveller to be an almost uninhabited wilderness swarming with wild animals. The few inhabitants remaining of the once dense population, witnessed to by the "extraordinary number of ruined cities," are stricken with fever, smallpox, and cholera. They have a custom of placing before their houses, when there is illness, as a supplication for mercy to the demon of the disease, an earthenware pot marked with blue or white bands; and "the number of these pots in some places," says Mr. Black, "was perfectly alarming." When the watershed between the Mekong and Menam basins was crossed, the change was very striking. In place of the flat, jungly plains in which marshes and brackish streams abound, were hills, sparkling brooks, fertile valleys, and an active, well-to-do people living in large and solidly built houses. The aggregate foreign trade of this part of Siam, both of imports and exports, the latter being chiefly teak and rice, is estimated at eighteen million dollars annually, while that of the Mekong basin is only one million. There is also a scholarly account of the Roman roads and defences of the upper Euphrates, in which Mr. Yorke gives as the most important result of the recent Hogarth expedition the discovery of the site of one of the four frontier stations, as well as an "important tributary of the Euphrates before unknown."

The last Bulletin of the *Société de Géographie* is wholly devoted to Africa. A description of a journey across Tripoli is followed by accounts of two exploring expeditions in the French Congo, and a sketch of the different attempts of the Franciscans to reach Abyssinia in the fifteenth century. The number closes with a vivacious account of a journey on the west coast of Madagascar, which is marked by great moral callousness. When the territory of a native chief was entered by the Frenchman, his present consisted mainly of rum and gin, with the inevitable consequence of an interview ending in a drunken orgy.

The State of New Jersey, which was the first to produce a topographical contour map of its territory, on the liberal scale of an inch to the mile, has used this work of its Geological Survey as the foundation of what is probably the best relief map ever constructed in this country. From this in turn has just been published by the Survey at Trenton a beautifully executed lithographic sheet of the State on the scale of an inch to four miles, which is incontestably the most important contribution to the teaching of geography yet made in New Jersey, and a useful instrument in such instruction anywhere. The strongly marked difference in conformation between the glacial and subglacial portions of the peninsula conveys a lesson almost without the need of a text. Within a range of elevation from tidewater to 1,800 feet, the river systems, whose singular courses have a singular history, are readily grasped by the eye, and afford the beginning of a real topographical knowledge of the State. The ordinary geologic and the as yet incomplete surface-geologic maps issued by the Survey leave nothing to be desired by the student of this relief map, which some of the New England States have materials for imitating.

A preliminary geological map of New York State has lately been issued after years of special study. It has been constructed under the direction of Prof James Hall, State Geologist, by W. J. McGee, printed by the United States Geological Survey, and published by authority of the State Legislature under date of 1894. It is in six large sheets, on a scale of 1:316,800. The base-map has no indication of topographic relief, but represents villages and cities, roads and railroads, etc. Twenty-nine colors represent as many subdivisions of the geological scale; glacial deposits not being included, and no indication being given of the southern limit of the drift. Certain areas are left blank, where information is still wanting, as, around the rim of the Adirondacks, the Hudson valley east of the river from about Chatham to Poughkeepsie, and Long Island. Otherwise, the map is a great improvement on anything hitherto published.

—A curious inquiry, engagingly set forth, and relating to "The Colonel and his Command," has fitly the place of honor in the *American Historical Review* for October. The writer, Mr. Julian Corbett, essays a destructive criticism of the explanations heretofore given of the origin of the title of colonel, and certainly leaves them discredited. His own surmise, that that officer of the Renaissance period once bore a baton in the semblance of a classic column, he offers for what it is worth; neither military work nor portrait can he cite in its support. Solution must come, if ever, from some Italian 'Oxford Dictionary' of the future. Entertaining also in its way is Prof. James D. Butler's article on "British Convicts Shipped to American Colonies," the result of research in contemporary periodicals, with many a shrewd and diligent resort to other sources beyond the histories. He bids those—"the Japhets who seek for their fathers"—who would go deeper and discover the names of the transported, consult the 110 MS. volumes of Old Bailey proceedings; but with a necessary caution in regard to aliases that will discourage the most ardent and insensitive genealogist. Prof. Butler lets it be seen what qualification of the term convict should be made in our conception of the "transports." Thus, in 1773, one John Lowe, who was to have been executed at Tyburn for returning from transportation, was reprieved because the original offence had been "receiving a shilling for the carriage of a goose that had been stolen, of which theft he declared that he was ignorant." Quite a different kind of transportation is the theme of Bernard C. Steiner in his article on "Rev. Thomas Bray and his American Libraries," a useful addition to recent revelations of the bookishness of our Southern gentry. Bray, an Oxford graduate, was bent on equipping with learned apparatus the first Anglican clergy sent over to Maryland, and to that end devised and carried out a general scheme of lending and parochial libraries for the British colonies. In connection with this he founded the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, which will soon celebrate its 200th anniversary, and later the Society for Propagating the Gospel in Foreign Parts. Fragments of these libraries still exist in several States of the Union. Their contents were varied, and by no means wholly theological. Bray's apparent reliance on the support and extension of his libraries by the people of the colonies was doomed to disappointment. We have space to mention further only Charles H. Haskins's lucid account of the Vatican Archives as now accessible to scholars, and Dr. Charles Gross's list of town records of Great Britain.

—With the assistance of Prof. Jesse Macy of Iowa College, Mr. James Bryce has prepared an abridged edition, in one volume, of his 'American Commonwealth' (Macmillan), for the use of colleges and high schools. Of the first volume of the larger work, all but two chapters and the appendix are here retained, but shortened by skilful omission of many sentences and paragraphs unsuited to a text-book, and of many of the comparisons drawn from English political usage. The selections from the second volume seem to us less adequate. We have the chapters on political parties and their history, on nominating conventions, and on public opinion, but we miss the keen accounts of "machine" politics, rings and bosses, spoils and corruption, and electoral methods, which helped to make Mr. Bryce's book such a revelation to most Americans, and which no teacher or student can afford to neglect. The same method of condensation that has been applied to the first volume would have allowed the inclusion of most of these chapters in the present abridgment without increasing unduly either the size or the cost; for the volume as it stands contains about 175 pages less than the original vol. i., but sells at the same price. Notwithstanding these omissions, however, the book in its present form is a real boon to students and teachers, and will doubtless be read and pondered by many who have been deterred by the size and cost of the larger work. Where the lecture system of instruction prevails, there is no better book than this to put into the hands of college students. To say, as one must, that it is not a very perfect example of what a text-book should be, is not to detract in the least from its merits, for the original work was never designed for such a purpose, and has been adopted extensively as a class-room manual only because of its commanding excellence in other directions. From the pedagogic standpoint, the volume before us not only is lacking in orderly arrangement, concise statement, and didactic discrimination, but fails, like the larger work, to include many details which, if not very interesting to read, are extremely important to know. This comes, of course, from dwelling more upon the political than upon the administrative side of American government, and is a defect only when an attempt is made to turn a philosophical treatise into a text-book. It is rather surprising that American history and American government are about the only departments of high-school and college study in which we have not, as yet, a single text-book to which such exceptions must not be taken. In the [illegible] field, this abridgment of Mr. Bryce's [illegible]

work is superior in many ways to anything yet offered, as it is certainly the most readable; but we do not think that Prof. Hart need be deterred by it from publishing his promised contribution to the American Citizen Series, on "Actual Government, as Applied under American Conditions."

—Mr. Moorfield Storey's interesting address on "A Year's Legislation," delivered last summer before the American Bar Association, has been reprinted (Philadelphia: Dando Printing and Publishing Co.), and makes a pamphlet of some seventy-four pages. It is a review of the "most noteworthy changes in statute law on points of general interest made in the several States and by Congress" during a year, and, notwithstanding the dryness of the subject, is entertaining as well as interesting, owing to the shrewd originality and point of Mr. Storey's style and the skill with which he presents his facts. Most of what he says is of more than professional interest. For instance, the first fact brought out in his review is exactly that emphasized by the recent election—that the interests affected by legislation throughout the country are homogeneous, and the essential feature of the country its unity. "The same problems confront us all alike, and are dealt with in the same way by Louisiana and Massachusetts, by Maryland and Utah." In the legislation of the year there is no indication that any social or political questions or antagonisms or passions or interests have created sectional lines, or made possible sectional legislation, such as slavery once produced. One State, for example, making arrangements for a constitutional convention, provides that it shall have no power to impair the obligation of the State debt. It is the State of Louisiana which does this. The State of South Carolina has passed the most enlightened statute abrogating charter jobbery. Civil-service reform has been adopted by Utah. Labor legislation is governed by the same principles, whether we examine the statute-book of New Jersey, Maryland, or Mississippi. The feeling against Trusts and corporations finds expression in all sorts of queer statutes, and they are sometimes queerer in one State than in another, but they all spring from the same economic misapprehensions. Massachusetts undertakes to fix the price of gas, while Mississippi allows any producer or owner of anything the cost or price of which is "affected" by any "unlawful Trust or combine," to recover $500 and all actual damages in a suit against any party to the "combine" or any of its attorneys, officers, or agents, whether they combined in Mississippi or elsewhere. So it goes on through the various heads examined by Mr. Storey, until we come to the subject of Railway Reorganization, in which case we find that Kentucky turns out to be the first State which has attempted to correct the notorious abuses from which the security-holders of railroads in the hands of reorganization committees and receivers suffer.

—The next point made by Mr. Storey is negative, but important. If it were true that any class, like the farmers or laborers, had been systematically oppressed in any part of the country for the last twenty years by anybody, the fact would certainly make itself apparent in the statute-books of the States affected. But there is no evidence of a local or class sense of wrong anywhere. Even the labor and anti monopoly statutes, he might have added, are not the result of any "uprising." They are always passed cheerfully anywhere the moment they are demanded. And this brings us to the final point - that there is a rapid increase all over the country of statutes of a socialistic tendency, sometimes by means of the use of the power of taxation, sometimes through the "police power." The pamphlet is really a valuable picture of American society in movement drawn by an exceptionally skilful hand.

—At this season's first meeting of the Hellenic Society in London, Mr. Arthur Evans read a paper on "Further Discoveries of the Early Cretan Script," the most striking of which he had related at Liverpool in his presidential address before the Anthropological Section of the British Association. In recent visits to Crete he had gathered additional evidence corroborating the evidence submitted in his paper read before the Hellenic Society two years ago. The new discoveries made still more certain the existence in prehistoric Crete of two interrelated systems of writing—one pictographic, the other linear. That the latter, which belongs to the Mycenæan era, and shows points of resemblance to Hittite script, was evolved out of the former, became still more clear from a fresh series of seals which was described. Examples of an earlier and pre-Mycenæan linear script on Cretan seals, which had curious points of resemblance to Greek and Phœnician letters, were also discussed. This part of Mr. Evans's paper consisted in the presentation of evidence not differing materially from the great mass of examples discussed in his previous paper, published in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for 1894 (vol. xiv., part ii.), which were chiefly engraved seals and *graffiti* on vases.

—A new piece of evidence, however, differing in character from anything previously discovered, was now presented. Mr. Evans described in detail the unearthing of a part of a libation-table of steatite (soapstone), imitated from a XIIth Dynasty Egyptian model, and bearing the remaining half of what seemed to be a dedication in Cretan linear characters. The inscription consisted of nine letters with two punctuations, and was of the highest importance, as showing that this pre-Phœnician script was applied to monumental as well as personal objects. The Egyptian affinities of this libation-table itself fitted in with other signs of intimate connection between Crete and the Egypt of the XIIth Dynasty supplied by the decorative designs of sealstones and steatite vases. The place of its discovery, on the other hand, had its bearings in another connection, since the table was found in the cave of Psychro, the "Dictæan Cave" of the Cretan legend of Zeus's birth. As to Cretan relations with Egypt, this Cretan imitation of an object of Egyptian *cultus* indicated more than mere commercial intercourse, and pointed to continuous land contact, suggesting, indeed, that the old empire of Egypt influenced Crete through Libyan settlements in the island. Upon this hypothesis the beginnings of the earliest and pre-Mycenæan Cretan linear script, which also showed Egyptian affinities, might ultimately be discovered in Tripoli. A remarkable parallelism existed, in fact, between Cretan signs and the early Libyan alphabets. Converging lines of evidence showed that the inscribed libation-table (found, as it was, under a votive and sacrificial stratum of Mycenæan date) could not be brought down later than about 2000 B.C.

—Few scientific societies have been founded more securely or operated more successfully than the American Ornithologists' Union, which has just held its fourteenth annual congress in Cambridge. Its membership includes every ornithologist of note in the world, its financial status [illegible] *Auk* does not suffer in comparison with the English *Ibis*, and the yearly reunions have always proved enjoyable occasions, whose scientific aspects are mitigated by social amenities, with a touch of missionary enterprise in warming up public interest in bird-life. On the last occasion the Union was received with an address of welcome by Prof. Goodale on behalf of Harvard University, which placed two lecture-rooms at its disposition; the resident ornithologists of the Nuttall Club entertained their visiting members handsomely at the Colonial Club, and President Brewster gave a series of receptions at his house and in his private museum, finishing a lavish hospitality with an excursion to his hunting-lodge near Concord. One of the two most marked features of the scientific sessions was the exhibition of some of the original manuscript journals of Audubon, made by Dr. Coues on behalf of Miss M. R. Audubon, who was present in person. The other was Mr. A. H. Thayer's out-door demonstration of some remarkable facts in the protective coloration of birds. The public programme occupied three days, besides two others devoted to routine business and to setting the fashion in bird-nomenclature for the current year. The officers of last year were reëlected, and the policy of the Union continues unchanged in its rigid exclusiveness regarding the Active, Honorary, and Foreign memberships, offset by its liberality in respect of its Associates and Correspondents. The fifteenth Congress will be held in New York about this time next year.

RAE'S SHERIDAN.

Sheridan: A Biography. By W. Fraser Rae. With an introduction by Sheridan's great-grandson, the Marquis of Dufferin and Ava. With portraits. 2 vols. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

AFTER a period of prosperity, Richard Brinsley Sheridan, like his father and his grandfather, fell upon evil times. His triumphs were numerous and so were his misfortunes. One of them was that he failed to get a good contemporary biographer. We can hardly explain the circumstance by Gray's dictum that "a favourite has no friend." Sheridan had friends among men of literary taste as well as among politicians. The trouble was that most of his intimates were too brilliant to assume the humble rôle of biographer. Moore knew him well and was an Irishman to boot. He ought to have produced a much better 'Life' than he did do. He failed from sheer ennui. He became tired of the subject before he had fairly started it. The following passage from his diary explains why his performance is so poor: "I often wish Sheridan, Miss Linley, and Major Mathews at the Devil."

Mr. Fraser Rae comes into the field to supplant Moore, Dr. Watkins, and Prof. Smyth. He has, of course, the great disadvantage of writing eighty years after his subject's death. Sheridan's genius was of the sparkling variety. We open a fresh volume about him with fear and trembling lest the champagne should be decanted. Fortunately we find that, in the present case, we have to do with a serious historian, and not with a belated retailer of Sheridania. Mr. Rae's opportunities for collecting material have been excellent. Lord

Dufferin, the most distinguished of Sheridan's descendants, is his sponsor, and the family archives have been opened to him without reserve. The Duke of Devonshire has furnished papers, and Mr. Gladstone recollections of recollections. Mr. Bancroft has described for him the modern presentation of Sheridan's dramas, and Sir Henry Irving has contributed a criticism of Sheridan as a playwright. The portraits and facsimiles are in the best style.

While an official biographer derives assistance from access to valuable sources, it is hard for him to be impartial. In the case of Mr. Rae, the difficulty is very considerable because he has always been a devoted admirer of Sheridan. It was his Memoir on 'Wilkes, Sheridan, Fox: The Opposition under George III.,' which first attracted the attention of Lord Dufferin and led him to suggest that Mr. Rae "should undertake a complete biography of Sheridan." Lord Dufferin is careful to explain that Mr. Rae's narrative must not "in any way be regarded as an Apologia. He possesses the confidence of Sheridan's descendants, because the family know from his other writings that he is studiously impartial and conscientiously accurate. Accuracy and impartiality are all that they bargained for, tempered by that benevolence of treatment of which the most blameless stand in need." We are not disposed to quarrel about terms, especially as apologia is ambiguous and often misapplied. But if Mr. Rae has succeeded in avoiding the strain of an apologia, he has not avoided the strain of a vindication. It will be remembered that Lord Macaulay, after his defeat in the Edinburgh election of 1847, sat down at once to the composition of some stanzas concerning his own career. He brings a number of fairies to his infant bedside and relates what they did and said. Mr. Rae uses the same imagery, although he keeps to prose. He brings the fairies to 12 Dorset Street, Dublin, shortly after Sheridan's birth, and makes their queen prophesy many desirable things. When she has ceased speaking, a wicked fairy predicts that the babe will have "all his grandfather's levity and thriftlessness, and all his father's ill-luck"; also that his second marriage will be unfortunate, and that his own countrymen will circulate untrue, dishonorable stories about him. "Having exhausted her power for working mischief, she shook her tiny fist at the sleeping infant and faded into the darkness. Thereafter the moon shone forth and brightened the bed-chamber. The Queen of the Fairies kissed the eyelids and mouth of the infant whom she had taken under her protection, and softly vanished amid the tinkling of silvery bells." This somewhat rhapsodical beginning shows the extent of Mr. Rae's sympathy for Sheridan. He is accurate in statement and exposes many calumnies, notably those regarding Sheridan's deathbed. His chief biographical fault is that he carries "benevolence of treatment" a little too far. He softens hard outlines; he supplies the mantle of charity which the reader, left to himself, would doubtless cast over the declining years of the brilliant Irishman.

In venturing this criticism we have said all that we have to say in depreciation of Mr. Rae's interesting volumes. Sheridan has delighted the world, and it is an ungrateful business to deny him any portion of praise. Let us turn to Mr. Rae's account of his happier years. Two women inseparably connected with Sheridan are here described with much fulness and with a new charm—his mother and his first wife. Each of them has an individual claim to remembrance on the score of accomplishments. Frances Chamberlaine wrote the 'Memoirs of Sidney Biddulph,' which Fox styled the best novel of the age, and which the Abbé Prévost translated into French. Elizabeth Linley was one of the most rapturous singers of her generation. In the ordinary sketch of Sheridan's life she drops out of sight after the Bath episode, or, at least, after her marriage. Mr. Rae never loses sight of her from 1770 till her interment in Wells Cathedral. The best thing in Sheridan's character was his devotion to her amid the storm of flattery which buffeted him during the heyday of success. Lord Dufferin calls her "the angelic woman to whom Sheridan was united under such romantic circumstances, who shared his earliest trials, whose sweetness and beauty shed an additional grace on his subsequent triumphs." By his just portrayal of the first Mrs. Sheridan, Mr. Rae has enriched biography with a new and charming character.

For thirty years Sheridan's life was overflowingly full of incident. He moved in at least four circles, literary, parliamentary, dramatic, fashionable, and was a star in them all. With so much material at hand, Mr. Rae must have found it difficult to keep his memoir within the reasonable limit of two short volumes. He secures conciseness by a topical treatment. Indeed, he comes nearer to the critic or essayist than to the annalist. Economizing space on the unimportant years, he is able to describe important incidents at length. Sheridan's life might well be made the subject of a five-act play, ending with the success of the "School for Scandal" or with the Warren Hastings trial. The first act of such a play would centre at Bath, and, of course, Miss Linley would be the heroine. Mr. Rae's account of Sheridan's intimacy with Halhed, of the elopement, and of the duel with Major Mathews in London, is by far the most authentic and the most graphic story of these events which has yet been printed. His extracts from the letters of the two ardent and venturesome lovers are enough to put the banal novelist of modern days to shame. Here is a picture of Miss Linley writing at midnight to her "dear Horatio" (vol. i., p. 192):

"Upon my knees, half-nacked, once more I am going to tire you with my nonsense. I could not bear to see this little blank without filling it up. Tho' I do not know with what, as I have almost exhausted the Budget of news which I had colected since our long absence. I do insist that you write to me, you lazy wretch; can't you take so small a trouble? I can receive your letter by the same method. My sister is very impatient that I don't come into bed, but I feel more happiness in this situation, tho' I am half froze, than in the warmest bed in England . . ."

Mr. Rae's narrative of Sheridan's years of prosperity in London is equally divided between Drury Lane and St. Stephen's. Considering his hero to be "the greatest dramatist since Shakspere, and the greatest orator who ever addressed the House of Commons," Mr. Rae is bound to do him justice in both capacities. As a contribution to biography, the dramatic part of the work is far more important than the political part. Mr. Rae establishes an important point in proving that Sheridan was without lust of office. On the other hand, his personal relations with "the first gentleman of Europe" are not very satisfactorily presented. When Mr. Rae gets Sheridan on the boards of the theatre, he has nothing to explain or defend, and he has new information to relate. One of his discoveries is a revision of the "School for Scandal," which Sheridan prepared for publication at the instance of Ridgway.

Mr. Rae says little in praise of the second Mrs. Sheridan, and it is clear that her memory is not warmly cherished by the first wife's descendants. Relations between husband and wife became strained in 1810, and Sheridan drew up a statement, "covering twenty-four closely written pages of quarto paper," in his own defence. The substance of it is expressed in two sentences (vol. ii., p. 218): "I have said before, you do not know me; in truth you do not in the least. You should judge of my conduct, character, and principles upon a larger scale of observation, and not from the defects of daily life which arise from the failings I acknowledge."

It is greatly to Mr. Rae's credit that he does not seek to make his book readable by repeating worn-out and apocryphal stories of Sheridan's wit. When he wishes to show what good things Sheridan could say, he selects gems from authentic plays and speeches. The first effect of his volumes will be to send readers post-haste to the "Duenna," the "Critic," the "Rivals," and the "School for Scandal."

Sheridan has a double claim upon his tomb in Westminster, and he still has a double claim upon our gratitude. We are far enough away from him now to judge his work and his genius fairly. He has suffered much from detraction, and no one will grudge him this competent and sympathetic biography.

THE ALEXANDER LEGEND.

The Life and Exploits of Alexander the Great; being a series of translations of the Ethiopic Histories of Alexander by the Pseudo-Callisthenes and other writers. With introduction, etc., by E. A. Wallis Budge, Litt.D., F.S.A. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

Comment Alexandre devint Dieu en Égypte. Par G. Maspero. Annuaire de l'École Pratique des Hautes Études. 1897.

THE growth of the Alexander romance is a very curious and instructive example of the process of myth-making. It began during the lifetime of its subject. It was cultivated and disseminated by Greeks as well as Egyptians. It was easily accepted by the soldiery of the perpetually victorious army; it was probably more than half believed by the great general himself. He had not only the current beliefs of his epoch, but the superstition which has characterized many great leaders; he believed in his ancestry and his destiny. His soldiers might well accept with complete confidence a manifest deity who led them to unfailing victory, in preference to those remote dwellers in Olympus who "lay beside their nectar careless of mankind." His very tent was a sort of tabernacle, which brought security against their enemies; his body was a precious and divine relic fought over by his generals and successors, and conferring sanctity and protection on the great capital which bore his name. His miraculous presence in the Sema spread an ægis over the empire of the Ptolemies.

The Egyptians, as Dr. Budge shows, were naturally foremost in accepting his divine character, and it was in Egypt that the myth first sprang and flourished and assumed some characteristic aspects. The Pharaohs were all sons of Ra or of Ammon-Ra, either directly

or by descent. To maintain the blood of this solar line unmixed and untainted was devised that incestuous custom of intermarriage between brother and sister which the Ptolemies adopted as a matter of state policy, if for no other reasons. The issue of such marriages inherited the clearest title to the throne, and the undisputed right to approach the temples of his divine father and be saluted by the priest as son of Ra, according to a well-known formula and ceremonial. It was in accordance with this traditional ceremony that Alexander was hailed by the priests as a son of Ammon. The occasion, as M. Maspero has lately shown with great clearness, was not exceptional and political; it was part and parcel of the institutions of the country.

The priestly logic, which had worked out with such rigor the process for securing the purity of the solar line, had already proved capable of a flexible somersault when the necessities of the national fortunes required it. If a foreign invader proved successful in imposing his yoke, then the native deities must have adopted him and ordained his good fortune. The moment that Alexander made his appearance as a victorious Pharaoh *de facto*, the divinity of his origin and his descent from Ammon became established according to priestly tradition. It made no difference that Philip was his reputed father; they asserted that in this case, as in others known to their history, Ammon had condescended to assume the form of a mortal, Philip of Macedon. The conqueror of Egypt and of the world was, after all, an incarnation of the supreme Egyptian deity.

On this priestly and official fiction, which commended itself to the pious Egyptian, and which flattered and soothed his national pride, was built the legend of Nectanebus, and of the sorceries he practised on Olympias. The nidus of the story is Alexandria rather than Egypt at large, and a breath of Euhemerism has blown over it, as Maspero says, to adapt the details to the rationalizing spirit of the Alexandrian population. Nectanebus II. was the last native king of Egypt, and sober history records that he fled into Ethiopia before the victorious Persians, about 350-340 B. C. The inventors of the legend transport Nectanebus to Macedonia; they convert him into a magician who, in the absence of Philip, deceives Olympias and becomes the father of Alexander. It is true that Alexander was born anywhere from five to fifteen years earlier than the flight of Nectanebus; but this does not embarrass the myth-makers. He is made to practise certain black arts with wax figures, which were familiar to the Egyptians as early as 4000 B. C. He beguiles Olympias in the form of a two-horned serpent, the symbol of Ammon-Ra—a form which agrees at once with the Egyptian worship of the Agathodemon Pshai, prevalent at that period, and also with the current Greek rumors which reported the familiarity of Olympias with serpents, and her devotion to bacchic orgies. The transformation is therefore made plausible to the mind of that generation, and it bears some slight relation to historic facts. It is a fair sample of the other transformations and distortions which make up the history of the Pseudo-Callisthenes. This conglomerate is in the main not a popular growth, but the work of half-learned rhetoricians unscrupulously exercising their fancy on historical themes. Hence the astounding trash put in the mouths of Demosthenes and Demades in Book II., and the perpetual flow of letters to Darius, to Aristotle, to the Amazons, which issued from the copy-books of the epistolographers. The result of this *rifacimento* reflects the real facts of Alexander's career very much as a convex mirror distorts the objects before it.

This comparison will serve in a general way, but is of course not exact. In some cases the facts are more wildly distorted, in other cases the facts do not exist, the narration is pure fiction or folk-lore. The visit of Candace, the tokens exchanged with Darius, the descent to the bottom of the sea, and the flight on eagle's wings up to heaven, evidently belong to the category of folk-tales. Dr. Budge even shows that the latter story is told of a Babylonian hero called Etanna, and is recorded in an Assyrian fragment of the royal library of Assur-bani-pal.

Such as it is, however, the popular fame of Alexander is based much rather on this curious composition than on the biographies of Arrian, of Quintus Curtius, and Plutarch. It has travelled from one end of the world to the other; it has assumed the garb and language of all nations from Malay to the British Islands, from Sweden in the north to Abyssinia in the south. It has been translated into Armenian, Peblevi, Syriac, Hebrew, Arabic, Persian, Coptic, Turkish, and all the principal European languages. No other book except the Bible has wandered so widely or met with so universal a reception. In fact, we meet with traces of the Alexander myth in the Book of Daniel and in the Koran. No wonder, indeed, that the career of this youthful hero, which outruns the invention of romance, should have captivated the imagination of mankind the world over; his very name, which was naturalized in so many languages, became a sort of magnet that attracted to itself the floating tales of the marvellous such as we hear from Herodotus, or Lucian, or Palladius, or Marco Polo.

The divergence of these translations from their original source in the Greek varies considerably. The Armenian, which has not yet, we believe, been translated, is said to follow very closely an early and authentic text of the Greek. The Syriac, which Dr. Budge printed with a translation in 1889, exhibits some departures in detail from the Greek texts known to us, but agrees substantially with Codex A of the Bibliothèque Nationale, and can be compared in the main, chapter and verse, with the original. It contains the ludicrously puerile correspondence between Philip and the tutors about Alexander's pocket-money, which does not occur in the Greek; and also a curious letter purporting to be written by Aristotle to dissuade Alexander from founding Alexandria, on the ground that the city would be too large to be managed and supplied with provisions. The translator was undoubtedly a Christian, as he occasionally foists in quotations from Jeremiah and the Gospels.

But the Ethiopic Histories which Dr. Budge here publishes present a much wider departure from the original, and have taken on a new color from the hand of the unknown translator. Working from the Arabic, he makes Alexander a Christian King of rather Judaic type, yet a believer in the Trinity, whose conversation is bestrewn with quotations from the Scriptures, and who omits no opportunity to address pious homilies to his subjects, his army, and to Darius himself. His single lapse from ascetic virtue is caused by the bewildering charms of Candace, a countrywoman of the patriotic translator; and, in his last will and testament, he bequeaths 10,000 dinanir to the churches of Egypt. Other characters and incidents suffer a sea-change to match this pious predilection. His master Aristotle appears as a Christian philosopher, quoting the Psalms, Deuteronomy, and Samuel. The Brahmins, whose ascetic simplicity and wisdom cut so striking a figure in all the biographies of Alexander, here announce themselves as "the children of Seth, and the remnant who had not bowed the knee to Baal-Peor." Dionysus is transformed into Enoch, Bucephalus is turned into a mare to agree with Arabian notions; and, as might be expected from such a quarter, the long narrative of the Olympic contest with Nicolaus has disappeared completely. The episode made no appeal to the Oriental mind.

It is an easy step from such vagaries and digressions to the absolute waywardness of the curious Christian romance, which is largely a rhapsody on the merit of chastity, supported by a cento of Scripture texts. In this history, which was found among the mass of MSS. accumulated by King Theodore at Magdala, Alexander is pictured as a very tedious Sir Galahad, who goes forth to conquer the savage and lustful nations of Gog and Magog, and to preach to a sinful and adulterous generation. Besides other extravagant and strictly Pagan adventures, he converses with Enoch and Elijah, and is instructed by the Holy Ghost, who assures him that his father Philip will be reckoned among the martyrs. The name of Alexander is here become a mere peg, as Dr. Budge remarks, on which to hang the author's homilies. The single shred by which it adheres to the traits of the original is the reputation for continence which the conqueror of the Persians won by his treatment of the wife and daughter of Darius.

Another turn of the kaleidoscope associates Alexander with Attila and the terrors of the Huns. In the Syriac version he goes forth to meet Tubarlak, the "King of the Persians, of the house of Xerxes," who leads against him sixty-two kings and the people of Gog and Magog. He defeats these with an army of several hundred thousand men, and, to restrain their inroads, he builds enormous gates of brass and iron "in the face of the north wind." The description of these people and of their leader exactly fits the Huns and the "Scourge of God"; the account of the battle is probably a reflection of the Roman defeat of Attila on the plains of Châlons. A. D. 450-453. The fullest form of the tale is in the Canticle of Jacob of Serug, who was born about this period. His poem begins with an invocation of Christ, throned among the cherubim and seraphim, and ends with a jeremiad largely quoted from Jeremiah, predicting the woes that shall befall the earth when Gog and Magog break forth again. The Ethiopic offers variations on the same theme.

Now what are the facts about which this fantasy is composed? There stood, or stands, in the pass of Derbend along the ridges of the Caucasus, an ancient wall furnished at intervals with iron gates, called Saddi Iskander, the rampart of Alexander. In the third book of the Greek Pseudo Callisthenes, Alexander, writing to his mother, tells how he lately chastised a cannibal people, and, to restrain their ravages, had built gates of brass, which he called the Caspian Gates. From this, and the recent invasion of the Huns, arises the vision of Jacob of Serug, like the dream of an opium-eater. Suppose all the facts to have vanished, and that, after a lapse of a thousand years, this fantasy were to be subjected to the microscope of the scientific historian; what grain of truth could be detected as to the life and exploits of Alexander the Great?

Dr. Budge's introduction and notes, drawn from many recondite sources, add great interest to this sumptuous work, for which the public is indebted to Lady Meux's munificence. Five hundred copies of the volume containing the notes and translations have been printed separately for the benefit of those who have no use for the Ethiopic text.

European Architecture: An Historical Study. By Russell Sturgis, A.M., Ph.D., F.A.I.A. Macmillan Co. 1896.

One notices quickly the difference between a book freely written from a mind that is full of its subject, and a composite of matter that is accumulated as it is used. The advantages which the first is apt to have in form and cohesion, as well as in freshness and animation, Mr. Sturgis's Study has over most architectural compendiums. It is not a handbook, nor even a history, but an historical essay, confined pretty closely to the main line of development in European architecture, hardly meddling with those aspects of it which are not significant of the manner of its evolution from classic through mediæval to modern. Thus, Byzantine architecture is but lightly touched, though obviously Mr. Sturgis is its admirer; Russia, Scandinavia, and other regions outside the area of main development are entirely passed by. Within its limits the book takes all the freedom of an essay, delaying here, hastening there; lingers in France and Italy, treats Germany, England, and Spain briefly. It dwells especially on the Gothic style, more lightly on the Renaissance, deals with the Romanesque a little like a step father, and dismisses the modern styles with scant attention. The logical evolution of the subject fails after the early Rennaissance, and the book from this point inevitably lapses a little into the method of a handbook; for analysis of the later styles, especially outside of Italy, is unrewarding, its only interest being in a minuteness of study that is impracticable in a work of this compass.

Gothic building invites Mr. Sturgis most; and indeed its development is the logical thread that for a thousand years or more holds together the growth of European architecture. The backbone of his essay is the study of its structural progress from early Romanesque to the classic revival. He holds firmly by the now accepted doctrine that the essence of Gothic is in its structure, and the essence of its structure in the development of its vaulting, in the subordination of the whole construction of a building to that feature, and of its whole design to its construction. The doctrine, however, is one that may be pushed to extremes, and often has been. Gothic architecture is exceedingly logical, but it is not all logic—no great art can be. Apart from the great types of plan that were developed before its system of vaulting, and gave the spur to that, although they were modified and in some degree constrained by it, many other things are to be considered: the upward aspiration, the preference for lines over surfaces and for horizontal lines over vertical, for polygonal forms over round, the actual fervor for the pointed arch that grew up (which is apt to be belittled in modern analysis), and the whole array of decorative features and sculpture of animal and vegetable forms, which might have been very different without interfering with the vaulting system. The untaught reader would be better off for some allusion to these things.

There are other omissions that we should not have looked for: in the discussion of Greek architecture, for example, buildings other than temples and theatres are hardly mentioned, and we miss an adequate account of the temple form itself, or of what constitutes an order, either Greek or Roman. The types of building in all styles get scant attention, including even the great types of mediæval churches, nor do we find any account of the influence of the monastic orders on architecture, or of the transition to Gothic forms at the end of the twelfth century. One wonders why we see St. Paul's Church in London carefully analyzed, and St. Peter's at Rome slighted, or why Raphael is made prominent as an architect, and Bramante's work in Rome, even on St. Peter's, overlooked.

But only a small part of so large a subject can be discussed in five hundred pages with freedom enough to give it interest, and one man's selection is not another's. Mr. Sturgis has his own convictions and an educated critical faculty. A large store of information and much animation of mind give freshness and interest to his writing, and will furnish the reader with more to think about than he will find in many books of twice the size of this. Among all its class, at least in English, this one, we think, is the most likely to be profitable and attractive to readers to whom the subject is unfamiliar.

A History of Elementary Mathematics. With Hints on Methods of Teaching. By Florian Cajori, Ph.D., Professor of Physics in Colorado College. Macmillan. 1896. 8vo, pp. 289.

The author, in his preface, admits having freely used the works of Cantor, Hankel, Unger, etc, some of them quite recent, on the history of mathematics. He seems to have followed his German authorities so slavishly that he spells Arabic words and names in the awkward German manner, with *dsch* where a simple *j* renders the sound much better, as in the title of Alkhwarizmi's work 'Aldschebr [aljebr] walmukabâla' (Restoration and Opposition), from which the very word "algebra" is taken; or *dschîba* (*jiba*) as the Arabic for our sine; it is in fact *jaib*. There are also annoying mistakes in mathematical notation, which we hope are slips of the pen or misprints. For instance, we find that in Briggs's tables, upon Napier's suggestion, 10^7 was made the logarithm of the whole sine, while Briggs had proposed 10^7 as the logarithm of 1-10. For 10^7 there should be 10 in one place and 1 in the other.

The introduction gives the number-systems of antiquity, based on the powers of ten, of twelve, of twenty, and at Babylon, in part, of sixty. The history proper begins with the Ahmès papyrus, written between 1700 and 2000 B. C., which shows that great progress had even then been made on the banks of the Nile in arithmetic, especially in fractions; but Egypt seems not to have gone much further. We are then introduced to the numerical notations of Babylon, Phœnicia, Greece, and Rome, and lastly to that of the Hindus, perfected about 500 A. D., borrowed from them by the Arabs, and by Europe from these. The use of the Roman abacus for adding numbers and certain fractions by balls on strings is well explained. This instrument became needless when Arabic figures were written in position, giving value to each, like the strings of the abacus; and the author shows clearly how greatly the art of calculation was aided by this mode of numeration, yet how slowly and painfully middle-age Europe groped about before division, especially before long division, took its present form. The Greeks, though backward in arithmetic, struck out boldly in geometry, which they kept wholly separate from it, and which in the hands of Euclid (to whom, of course, the largest space is given) belied its name (earth-measuring), as mensuration seems to have been beneath his notice. Thales, Pythagoras, and Plato before him, Archimedes, Eratosthenes, Claudius Ptolemæus, Theron and Hypatia after Euclid, are shortly referred to as geometers, and last, among the Greeks, their only algebraist, Diophantus. Very little is said or could be said about the Romans, who did nothing in mathematical research, and did not even appropriate the discoveries of Greece in this field. The author then turns to the Hindus and Arabs. Both, he thinks, learned much from Greece; both of them carried the science further. Trigonometry, plane and spherical, seems to have come from India to the Arabs; and, among the latter, Al Battâni is said to have found the fundamental equation for the oblique spherical triangle.

Christian Europe did little or nothing for mathematics till the time of the Renaissance in Italy. We find, starting with this period, the names of all the great masters in Italy, France, England, Scotland, and Germany; and besides them those of such arithmetic writers as Cocker in England and Adam Riese in Germany, together with their imitators in the American colonies. On coming to Napier and his logarithms, the author points out that these were not exactly "natural," that they run in the opposite direction from the *sinus totus* down, and belong to sines, not to current numbers; that Napier got at the idea of this function in a roundabout way, from the proposition which we write: $d \log x = \frac{dx}{x}$. But he fails to tell us how Napier worked out his table; which we supply. Napier felt somehow, that for an ω so small as to be written by 16 decimals of which the first 8 are zeros, he might consider $\log(1+\omega)=\omega$. He got his $1+\omega$ by drawing thirty times (or oftener) the square root of a given N, reaching thus the 1,073,741,-824th root of N, and then $\log N = 1{,}073{,}741{,}-824 \times \omega$. Whoever wishes to test the Scotchman's patience should try to find one logarithm by that road.

On page 265 we read of Gauss, when still a boy at the University, inscribing a polygon of 17 sides in the circle, and his discovery is referred to on page 74 as applicable to all polygons with $2^{2^n}+1$ sides, when that number is prime. But as the author tells us not a word about De Moivre's great theorem for expressing the sine and cosine by imaginary exponentials, and of the resulting mode of dividing the periphery into $2m+1$ parts by the equation $x^{2m}+x^{2m-1}+\ldots x+1=0$, he does not in anywise indicate that Gauss found real roots, without passing through the imaginary symbol, when $2m=2^{2^n}$. If De Moivre's theorem is not elementary enough for the scope of the work, neither is its application by Gauss.

In speaking of $\sqrt{-1}$, the author rebukes those text writers who still deny its reality, as holding an obsolete view, and he refers to scholars from H. Kühn in 1750 down to Hamilton and the elder Peirce, who gave to $\sqrt{-1}$ its geometric meaning. This meaning is simple enough: when (-1) represents the half-rotation, or direction turned back, $\sqrt{-1}$ is the quarter rotation or perpendicular; but Prof. Cajori does not tell us this, though it is one of the most momentous steps in the progress of mathematics. Towards the end of the volume Lobatchevsky, Bolyai, father and son, and

Riemann are named as creators of a non-Euclidean, or even an anti-Euclidean, geometry; but while there are short notices on the lives of the Russian and of the two Magyars, there is not one word to denote the standpoint of any one of them; and of Riemann we are told only in a foot note that he deems all our notions of space to be derived from sensation and experience.

Our author gives a great deal of space to the attempts of modern writers to prove the unsatisfactory axiom of Euclid on which he bases all his theorems about parallel lines; and, after displaying the weakness of some of these attempts, comes to the conclusion that parallels cannot be truly defined, and that the equality of the angles upon them cannot be proved. He does not name Prof. J. J. Littrow of Vienna, whose demonstration is yet worth notice. Littrow proves first that the three angles of a triangle are = 2 R. Thus: When a side a and angles B C are given, angle A is determined; it is = F (a B C); and as an angle may be viewed as an abstract number, it has no relation to one measure in space: angle A = F (A B) simply. Now divide a right-angled triangle by a perpendicular; the new angles are each in a new triangle which has two of the old angles, and must therefore be equal to them; hence in a right-angled triangle the sum of angles is =2 R, and by putting two of these figures together so as to run two right angles into one line, any triangle can be formed with its three angles =2 R. Now cross one line by two others, meeting on one side, at any distance at A; then the two other angles sum up 2 R—A, or are less than 2 R, which is Euclid's axiom, and parallels appear as lines drawn in the same plane which never meet. The difficulty remains how to teach the meaning of the words "in one plane" without going into solid geometry; but this pervades the whole of Euclidean, and perhaps of all other, plane geometry.

The promised "Hints as to Methods of Teaching" are hints only. A systematic work on the best mode of teaching mathematics, somewhat like Parker's method of teaching geography in the Educational Series, taking a broad independent stand, and cutting loose from Euclid and from all old prejudices, as to the order and selection of the material, would do a great deal towards diffusing a taste for and the knowledge of the purest of disciplines known to mankind.

Guide to the Study of American History. By Edward Channing, Ph.D., and Albert Bushnell Hart, Ph.D., Assistant Professors of History in Harvard University. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1896.

If Jared Sparks could cast an eye over his progeny in the fields of American history and biography, he would behold them numerous as the sands of the sea. They have toiled hard and have much to show for their toil. They have planted a forest which abounds in well-grown elms and maples, but which is encumbered in spots with a dense jungle of underbrush. One must attempt to cut a section through this maze before he can understand either its extent or its intricacy. Even if he boasts some knowledge of woodcraft, he will welcome the assistance of a local guide. The authors of the present volume are professional pathfinders of skill and endurance. Not content with blazing a trail, they haussmannize the wilderness, that their students may sip coffee on an ample boulevard.

Thirteen years' experience in teaching history at Harvard forms the basis of this "guide." It is familiarly known that the lectures of Prof. Channing deal with the colonial period, those of Prof. Hart with the history of the United States. By combining forces they cover the whole ground, and get the benefit of mutual advice and suggestion. Their plan of bringing out a joint bibliography was an excellent one, and it has been successfully put through. The production of work like Mr. Mason's study of the Veto Power and of Miss Follett's study of the Speaker has already shown that American history is soundly taught at Harvard. This impression will be confirmed by the diligence and learning now disclosed.

There is a vast difference between "a mine of learning" and "a dungeon of learning." The lucidity implied by the former phrase shows itself here in many practical hints, and in the arrangement of a large and intricate body of literature. The contents are classed under three parts, each with its series of clearly defined sections. Part i. deals with methods and materials; part ii. with topics and references in colonial history; and part iii. with topics and references in United States history. The sections are numbered consecutively and run up to 214, where the book closes with the abolition of slavery. A more logical division might perhaps have been effected by making two parts only, and putting what now constitutes parts ii. and iii. under part ii. as A and B. Parts ii. and iii. are really the same thing. The treatment of subjects is identical throughout both, and they are merely divided by the transformation of the colonies into the Union. At the same time part i. has a character of its own and occupies more space than the other two parts. A neater tabulation, then, would be: Part i., methods and materials; Part ii., topics and references—A, Colonial, B, United States.

But this may very well be called a matter of taste. The book deserves unqualified praise for its clearness and precision. Designed for the aid of teachers, students, and librarians, it makes useful suggestions to them all. The treatment is rigidly categorical, and every word has been weighed. We have seldom seen such careful compression, such painstaking elimination of what is ornamental and unnecessary. In this respect the guide is not second to Stubbs's 'Select Charters.' Part i., which consists largely of disquisition, contains the highest quality of work, although parts ii. and iii., with their concise bibliographies, will probably be most used by the student-with-a-purpose. The tone of part i. is didactic, but not dogmatic, and under its seventy-six sections almost every matter connected with the private reading or the class study of American history is discussed. The standing and extent of American history, general methods, special bibliographies, working libraries, class exercises, reading, written work, and tests are its main divisions. Each division has its own sub-sections, ranging in number from three to twenty-one. The book is so concentrated that analysis of its main points would involve almost exact reproduction. Hence we are driven to describe its contents by the use of statistical formulas.

The authors safeguard themselves against a charge which might be brought against many professors of American history, namely, that of encouraging students to undertake special research before they are properly equipped for it. Just as Sir Henry Maine insists that democracy is a form of government, Prof. Channing and Prof. Hart insist that American history is a part of history. "Every student, teacher, and writer of American history must from the beginning keep in mind the fact that the development of this country is only a part of a general movement, and that in the relations of foreign Powers with the nations of the New World is often to be found the key to the actual direction of American history." And again, in another connection: "No one can be fitted to be a specialist in American history who has not also a good, all-round training in the general subject, and thus is able to compare intelligently the history of other countries with that of his own." We doubt, however, whether a large proportion of the students who hand in the "special reports" described under section 70 are best served by that ingenious system. A scrutiny of the life of Robert C. Grier is all very well in its place, and so is an investigation of the receipts derived by the United States from the tariff on quinine; but we say about them what Horace says about misplaced purple patches, "*Sed nunc non erat his locus.*" We assume that the undergraduates engaged in drawing up these reports are not on terms of close intimacy with Thucydides, Tacitus, and Gibbon. Until they have learned from the masters what historical writing really is, they had best leave the "intensive" study of American history alone. The time allotted to history by the ordinary curriculum will barely suffice for the laying of a broad foundation. Of course one expects thoroughness everywhere, but the methods of historical specialization, in so far as they tend to be professional, should be relegated to the graduate school. We applaud the zeal which Prof. Channing and Prof. Hart have shown in emphasizing the necessity of thoroughness, observation, and reflection. Their manual proves that the authors themselves are the happy possessors of these three high qualities. And so, if we criticise the special-report system, it is only because we think that it may conflict with the attainment of that firm grasp of general history which, in common with them, we hold to be indispensable.

We regret that we are unable to devote any space to the purely bibliographical aspects of the book. We should attempt such an examination if it could be kept within reasonable limits. As it is, we recommend every lover of the national history to buy this guide and to keep it at his elbow. The literary style of part i. is on the whole good, though at times it is not immaculate. Parts ii. and iii. make no literary pretensions. The main considerations suggested by each topic which they embrace are grouped under a summary. The summary is followed by an analysis of the material under the heads general, special, sources, and bibliography. The authors do not pretend that the bibliography of any given topic has been exhausted. Leaving the antiquarian and the genealogist out of account, they have sought to bring together what is "likely to be most immediately useful to the searcher into political, social, constitutional, and economic history." Within the limits thus defined they have succeeded admirably.

My Long Life: An Autobiographical Sketch. By Mary Cowden-Clarke, Author of the 'Concordance of Shakspeare,' etc., etc. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896.

For so long a life as Mrs. Cowden-Clarke has very literally enjoyed, her story of it is extremely short, and the 270 openly printed pages are as cheerful to the eye as is her brief

recital to the mind. That she is a gleaner after her own reaping in her 'Recollections of Literary People' is probably the reason why she dwells so little on even the more distinguished figures on her crowded stage, and makes her narrative but little more than a journal of meetings and partings, the seeing of famous actors and the hearing of famous singers and other musical performers. For those who are much interested in the history of music and the drama, her book will have a special interest. But it does not make its principal appeal to any favored class. It is delightful because of its infectious cheerfulness. In front of her Italian house there is a sun-dial with the familiar motto, "I mark only the sunny hours," and her sister tells her that this might well have been the motto of her book. It was the motto of her life. Particularly beautiful was her married happiness with Charles Cowden Clarke, who was nearly twenty years her senior, but who was always young of heart. He died in 1877, "the spring sun shining on his bed," and left behind him a memory as cheerful as his living presence. Together they made full proof of Theodore Parker's saying, "A happy marriage is a long falling in love."

Born in 1809, Mrs. Cowden Clarke enjoyed a glimpse of Shelley and had a golden vision of John Keats listening to her father's music. In her husband's memory he lived a second life as vivid as became the author of an Epistle to Charles Cowden Clarke. Leigh Hunt she knew long and intimately and Charles Lamb very well. It was no ordinary honeymoon that had for its consummation a week with Lamb at Enfield, which was enlivened by some of his most humorous escapades. It was on a little visit celebrating her first wedding anniversary that she resolved to undertake the Shakspere Concordance, some one at table having regretted that there was none. Sallying out after breakfast, she took a volume of Shakspere, with pencil and paper, jotted down her plan, and wrote the first line of her intended book, which, although diligently followed up, was sixteen years in the making. Coleridge she saw but once, when, incited by her father's musical reputation, he plunged into an eloquent exposition "of an idea he had that the creation of the universe must have been accompanied by a grand prevailing harmony of spheral music"—probably an unconscious reminiscence, after his manner, of the singing of the morning stars. She would have us know that her literary tasks did not prevent her skill in cookery and needle-work. At one time she made all the clothes she wore, as well as her husband's dress waistcoats, one of which, "embroidered on black satin with a wreath of ivy-leaves and berries in their natural colors," must have been a spectacle for men and angels.

Mrs. Cowden Clarke has been a diligent traveller and visitor, and has seen much of interesting people, and few indeed are the contemporary celebrities that do not at least flit across her page. The music of the future pleases her equally with the music of the past. All is grist that comes to the mill of her enthusiastic disposition, or rather she is instinctively selective of the good and fair. All coarseness she has repelled, and she quotes with heartiest approval words of Sir John Lubbock, which may be commended to the editors of the *Daily Muckrake* as deserving their deliberate attention: "The soul is dyed by its thoughts; we cannot keep our minds pure if we allow them to be sullied by detailed accounts of crime and sin."

An Illustrated Flora of the Northern United States, Canada and the British Possessions, from Newfoundland to the Parallel of the Southern Boundary of Virginia, and from the Atlantic Ocean westward to the 102d meridian. By N. L. Britton, Ph.D., Emeritus Professor of Botany in Columbia University, and Director-in-Chief of the New York Botanical Garden, and Hon. Addison Brown, President of the Torrey Botanical Club. In three volumes. Vol. I. Ophioglossaceæ to Aizoaceæ, Ferns to Carpetweed. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

THAT there is a real demand for an illustrated account of the plants of our country is apparent from the eagerness with which every honest attempt in this direction has been received. One need go no farther than to note the welcome which has been accorded to the two charming handbooks by Mr. Schuyler Mathews. These two works, although very limited in their range, have been recognized as important aids to the understanding of our native plants. The time, therefore, seems ripe for the production of an exhaustive illustrated flora of the most easily accessible parts of our continent.

In the work before us we have a partial realization of this plan. As far as the present volume enables us to judge, we have here a treatise which will exert a wide influence in inducing large numbers of persons to make botany within these limits a pleasant recreative study, and which will, at the same time, afford to those who are fond of systematic botany a convenient work of reference. As we shall see later, the authors have followed a hint from German systematists, and have reversed the sequence of orders. May we not be permitted likewise to reverse the ordinary sequence in criticism, and mention first what seem to us to be serious defects in the treatise, and then proceed to the more agreeable task of speaking of the many excellences? These defects appear to us to be chiefly three.

First, the *differentiæ*, or the characters by which genera are separated from contiguous genera, and species from allied species, are not always sharply put. Of course we recognize the fact that in some instances these lines are very obscure, and contrasted characters are not readily found, but such as do exist should be brought into prominence. An ingenious typographical device which is the common property of all sciences of the classificatory type, namely, the use of italics to denote the more important differential characters, so that the eye of the reader is aided considerably in his search, is here unfortunately wanting. The fact that such a difference of type is employed in another work covering much the same range could not have influenced the authors of this, but we regret that the good judgment which moved them to choose such admirable type for the body of the treatise did not lead them to go still farther and make it much more helpful.

Secondly, while expressing admiration for the prodigal use throughout of figures in outline, we must qualify our expression by calling attention to the unequal quality of the drawing, considered from a botanical point of view. A large proportion of the drawings are excellent in all respects; others will hardly prove of any assistance to the student. In some notable instances the artists have with true feeling caught the essential and differential features, and have given these with skill. What is needed in a botanical drawing may be illustrated by what everybody knows about caricature. A skilful draughtsman can catch from the human face a few lines which will bear a trifling exaggeration, and these lines become ever after associated with the face in question. Even such slight emphasis or exaggeration gives to some drawings of plants a character which aids very greatly in their employment in identification. Those who are familiar with the occasional look of despair which comes over the face of a botanist who, in Europe, tries for the first time to discriminate between polymorphous species by the help of some of the popular illustrated floras, will share our apprehension that a similar look of disappointment will be observable when some of the more sketchy figures in this work are employed.

Third, the nomenclature. This embodies an application of the rules against which a good many conservative botanists have been compelled to protest, in the hope that by and by there might be a general consensus looking towards reform in the matter. Now, however, we have Pandora's box wide open and the cover gone. The most grotesque even of Rafinesque's names are here, and now can never be recalled. It is not unlikely that in the not very distant future these same generic names will be a source of deep mortification to those who have dragged them from merited obscurity. Those who had hoped that better counsels might prevail must wait a little longer for order to come out of the chaos of names. Our readers remember how deeply many botanists regretted that the sumptuous work, 'The Silva of North America,' was handicapped by its nomenclature; to the confusion ushered in by this innovation is now added a new element in the present treatise. We trust that the more conservative botanists will not entirely give up the old idea that possibly hope may be lingering around Pandora's box, but it seems rather a discouraging way of getting at it to have to meet so many unnecessary troubles first.

Now, having said our say, but we trust with no spirit of petulance tinging our expression of regret, we proceed to the enumeration of some of the many merits of this work. In the first place, it wisely adopts the plan of arrangement by which one goes from the simpler to the more complex forms of vegetation. Such a course takes its way from the ferns to the gymnosperms, which were formerly sandwiched between two great groups, instead of standing as an interesting link between the so-called flowerless and the flowering plants. From the gymnosperms we pass in succession to the monocotyledons, and finally to the dicotyledons, the volume coming to a close with certain allies of our common four-o'clock. This adoption of the Engler, or, as it is generally known, the Eichler method we regard as a substantial step in advance.

Secondly, the artificial keys are excellent throughout. All of them appear, so far as our examination has gone, to be carefully prepared. They are characterized by much of the same quality which rendered the keys in Wood's Botany popular, and will serve a good purpose through not being deterrent to the beginner.

Thirdly, the appearance of the whole work is extremely attractive, and every feature of its mechanical execution will bear strict scrutiny as regards both workmanship and sound taste. The authors are to be heartily congratulated on their genuine success in securing earnest coöperation from all their coadjutors, and thus making a worthy contribution to the advancement of interest in our native flora. No matter how many changes may be sug-

gested in the range of plants here described, no matter how great the temporary confusion resulting from a transitory change of names, the fact remains that in this treatise we have an admirable addition to the working appliances of all lovers of North American plants.

Hand-book of Courses Open to Women in British, Continental, and Canadian Universities. Compiled for the Graduate Club of Bryn Mawr College by Isabel Maddison; assisted by Helen W. Thomas and Emma S. Wines. Macmillan Co. 1896.

It seems quite unlikely that the course of woman's education ever will run smooth; and those who have experienced the restrictions under which women study abroad will understand that a hand-book of courses open to women in foreign universities is useful rather than agreeable reading. The volume entitled 'Graduate Courses,' published at first by Harvard University and later by the Federation of Graduate Clubs, was compiled to meet needs arising from the rapid increase of graduate work in American universities and colleges. The present work, published under the auspices of the Bryn Mawr Graduate Club, implies by its title that it is the woman's side of the subject that has been mainly considered. But, since *Minerva*, the "Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt," the German *locus classicus* on the subject, cannot be supposed to have a wide circulation in America or England, it is probable that the mass of information about the lecturers and regulations in foreign universities here presented, in English, for the first time, will be useful to men as well as women students—and it is interesting even to the general reader.

Those who measure a nation's refinement by the position of its women may be reminded that the universities of France, Italy, and Spain lay no restrictions on women—in the two latter countries no distinction has ever been drawn—whereas England and Germany give grudgingly what little they give, their motto being "no rights and few privileges," and Russia is uncompromisingly intolerant. Norway, the Netherlands, Denmark, and Belgium are liberal in their attitude; Austria is a shade more conservative than Germany. In cases where the editors have been unable to obtain information, the silence of the authorities does not augur friendliness.

In Great Britain we find Scotland boldly offering to women equal chances with men, whereas in Ireland, whose national characteristics are not usually supposed to include timidity, Trinity College, Dublin, has just entered on the first year of a cautious policy whereby women, separately trained, may take the examinations for the senior freshmen's certificate. This is to be regarded as an experiment, and the privilege holds good only until 1898. After giving such a sign of life, the venerable foundation of Trinity College may reasonably demand these three years in which to take breath. At this rate, no doubt, women will ultimately be admitted to the Dublin degree; but, to paraphrase Mrs. Garth, they are not asking for degrees "ultimately"—they are asking for them now.

At Oxford, women are excluded from the Medical School only—we forbear to point the moral for Johns Hopkins—and the names of the Medical Faculty are accordingly omitted (p. 93); since they are given for Cambridge (p. 79), the implication is that women may pass through the medical courses there, though, as is well known, Cambridge does not, as yet, grant the actual degree to women; it would be well, however, to state more precisely on p. 78 what privileges Cambridge gives to women medical students.

The Collège de France has admitted women since the sixteenth century. We note (p. 26) that attention is drawn to "the advantages of less crowded classes and more individual attention from the professors offered by the faculties of the provinces compared with those of Paris"; it seems improbable that students who set out to hear the classical lectures of Martha, or Boissier, or Croiset, or Poincaré in mathematics at the Sorbonne, would regard individual attention in the provinces as an equivalent. In fact, if that were indispensable, it could be had in Paris itself at the École Nationale des Chartes, where there are eight lecturers teaching eight subjects to twenty students. A concession to masculine interests is made on p. 32, where particulars are given of the École Libre des Sciences Politiques, "for the training of diplomatists, consuls, and ambassadors." On p. 28 we are informed that "students from American universities going to study in France are allowed a reduction of thirty per cent. on the rates of the steamers of the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique." We take this opportunity of warning intending passengers to follow literally the instructions to apply for this reduction to M. Paul Melon at the Sorbonne; the New York office of the line denies all knowledge of such an arrangement, and one member at any rate of the American committee, having himself received no information on the subject, is unable to impart any.

We would say, in conclusion, that the Handbook is admirably got up, and is open to criticism only on minor points. On p. 86, left column, for Sellars read Sellers; p. 79, right column, Sir G. M. Humphry's name is misspelt Humphrey; p. 78, right column, is the typographical error "Head, lam" for Headlam.

Parakites: A Treatise on the Making and Flying of Tailless Kites for Scientific Purposes and for Recreation. By Gilbert Totten Woglom. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

This treatise is exceedingly uneven in quality. In parts it merits high praise; but its defects and its apparent lack of frankness regarding the work of other experimenters afford ground for censure. The essential features of the Woglom parakite (more than a kite) seem to be precisely the same as those of the Malay kite which Mr. Eddy has been flying and describing for four or five years. It is true that Mr. Woglom's Libby is a "dream in pale blue China silk," and that the Bride is "a spruce creation robed in virgin-white silk conventionally cut and plaited," and that Mr. Eddy has not aspired higher than cambric or silesia; but whether spruce, or bamboo, or silk, cotton, or paper, the parakite is the Malay kite, and nothing else, in form, figure, and proportions. In the scientific journals Mr. Eddy has frequently given directions for constructing the kites he was using, and in a number of places he has told how he came to evolve this particular form, so that the appearance of the very same tailless kite as the idea of Mr. Woglom, with his name tacked to it, is, to say the least, surprising. Mr. Woglom ought to have explained this. Further, the omission of any word in the book about Mr. Eddy or his work (unless, indeed, the sneer at the aerial photography of others is a mention of Mr. Eddy) is significant, as is also the utter neglect to speak of Blue Hill Observatory, where so much work has been done in a scientific way, and mostly with kites of the Eddy pattern. Scientific men who have kept the run of reliable publications have come to know Mr. Eddy as the man through whose apparatus, energy, and example kite-flying has become the important adjunct to investigation that it is, and thus far in no one of these publications has his right to this reputation been even questioned. Mr. Woglom made a mistake in ignoring these facts which everybody conversant with kites is informed about, for no one can be permitted to appropriate that which belongs to another without some kind of justification.

His book, however, as a guide to the construction of tailless kites, is admirable. The author is a man of ingenuity and has mechanical instincts. He adopts proper ways of constructing things and shows how to do them well. He has ability to follow up certain lines of investigation, and has done this with care and precision. He has developed the minutiæ of kite-building in a remarkable way; he has studied with care the possible materials, and has noted the problems which occur during flight. All this he explains in language so clear that, with his book in hand, any one could make a tailless kite, and with a little experience could make it fly. Thus far the book is a model. But when Mr. Woglom tries to write a chapter about meteorology he fails. He seems to have acquired some of the elementary principles of the science, but in developing them he plainly gets beyond his depth—so much so that even the professional meteorologist finds himself puzzled to know what it is all about. The mathematics, too, are a little queer. One cannot say that they are wrong, but Mr. Woglom assumes that the reader has a knowledge of sines, secants, and logarithms, and then tries to simplify the elementary formulas for the solution of the right-angled triangle. The method of triangulation he advises for getting the heights of kites is not to be recommended. It requires an assistant who must place himself vertically under the kite and determine the exact spot by sighting up a plumbline, and then must measure the exact distance back to the flyer. Of course in a city, or in a country that is not perfectly level, these measurements are out of the question. If, however, this is the way in which Mr. Woglom has determined the flight of his kites, it perhaps explains his evident exaggeration in estimating the heights from which those pictures were taken with his camera which appear as illustrations in his book.

The volume is well illustrated, but one who desires to look up some particular item in the text will usually find it more easily by turning the pages than by consulting the index.

Myths and Legends of Our Own Land. By Charles M. Skinner. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1896.

A scientific treatment of American myths and legends would divide them into two great classes: the myths and folk-lore of the aborigines and those of the white colonists and their descendants. These latter again subdivide into variations on old themes common to all Europe (such as headless horsemen, buried treasure, and the like) and those which seem to have sprung up indigenously on American soil. Besides these there are numerous floating stories which are not properly folk-lore, but inventions of ingenious story-tellers of the literary class, such as William

Austin's 'Peter Rugg.' If there is a dangerous reef, somebody is sure to fit it with a pathetic shipwreck; if there is a precipice or catarract, we are certain to have the fugitive lovers who leap or are drifted over it. Of the ætiological myth, or story made up to account for the facts, we have here a good example in the rather grim tradition of "The Deformed of Zoar." If there ever were such strangely malformed people, it is clear that the story of the peddler's mutilation and murder has been made up to account for their occurrence.

It has not, however, been Mr. Skinner's purpose to undertake any scientific treatment or classification of American traditions, but simply to make a collection of those that are current, and to tell them as concisely as possible. He groups them geographically: legends of the Hudson and the Dutch colonists; those of the New England States, those of the South, of the Central States and Great Lakes, of the Rocky Range, and of the Pacific Slope. And he certainly has made a remarkable collection of nearly three hundred myths, traditions, and curious stories, out of which novelists, poets, and dramatists might draw excellent material. His treatment is perhaps a little jejune; but if he had not told his stories very briefly, he could not have condensed so much into these small volumes. The book is handsomely printed and tastefully illustrated from photographs.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. A Golden Autumn. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Alger, Horatio, Jr. The Young Salesman. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Allen, Grant. The Desire of the Eyes. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Amicis, Edmondo de. Constantinople. 2 vols. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co. $3.
Anderson, Mrs. Finley. A Woman with a Record. G. W. Dillingham Co.
A Record of the Buddhist Religion as Practised in India and the Malay Archipelago (671-695). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Armstrong, Walter. The Art of Velazquez. [Portfolio Monographs.] Macmillan
Aubrey, W. H. S. Rise and Growth of the English Nation. 3 vols. Appletons. $4.50.
Balzac, H. de. Juana. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Barnes, James. Midshipman Farragut. Appletons. $1.
Barnes, James. Naval Actions of the War of 1812. Harpers. $4.50.
Beal, Mrs. Mary B. The Boys of Clovernook. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Beal, Prof. W. J. Grasses of North America. Vol. II. Henry Holt & Co. $5.
Beard, D. C. The American Boy's Book of Sport. Scribners. $2.50.
Beck, Friedrich. Dante's Vita Nuova. Kritischer Text. München: Piloty & Loehle.
Behrends, A. J. F. The World for Christ. New York: Eaton & Mains. 90c.
Biddle, A. J. D. The Froggy Fairy Book. Philadelphia: Drexel-Biddle & Bradley Publishing Co.
Biedermann, Prof. W. Electro-Physiology. Macmillan. $5.50.
Bigelow, John. The Mystery of Sleep. Harpers. $1.50.
Bill Nye's History of England. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Biré, Edmond. The Diary of a Citizen of Paris during "The Terror." 2 vols. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $7.50.
Birrell, Augustine. Boswell's Life of Johnson. 6 vols. Macmillan. $6.
Bolles, A. S. The Elements of Commercial Law. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Bolmer, W. B. The Church and the Bible. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.
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Bowen, H. W. International Law: A Simple Statement of its Principles. Putnams. $1.25.
Brögger, W. C., and Rolfsen, Nordahl. Fridtiof Nansen, 1861-1893. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Brown, Alice. Mercy Warren. [Women of Colonial and Revolutionary Times.] Scribners. $1.25.
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Donaldson, Thomas. Walt Whitman, the Man. New York: F. P. Harper. $1.75.
Dörpfeld, W., and Reisch, E. Das Griechische Theater. Leipzig: Fleischer; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
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Grier, S. C. An Uncrowned King: A Romance of High Politics. Putnams. $1.50.
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Horstman, C. Yorkshire Writers. Richard Rolle of Hampole and his Followers. Vol. II. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.60.
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Hughs, G. S. Ancient Civilizations. Des Moines, Iowa: The Author. $2.
Hunting. [The Out-of-Door Library.] Scribners. $1.50.
Ingalls, Herbert. The Columbian Prize Charades. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Irving, Washington. Bracebridge Hall. [Surrey Edition.] 2 vols. Putnams. $6.
James; or, Virtue Rewarded. Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
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Lincoln, Mrs. Jeanie G. A Genuine Girl. Boston: Houghton Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
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Loveman, Robert. Poems. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Lowell, A. L. Governments and Parties in Continental Europe. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
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Malet, Lucas. The Carissima: A Modern Grotesque. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
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Matthews, Sue F. Sic Vita Est. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
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Otis, James. Under the Liberty Tree: A Story of the "Boston Massacre." Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 75c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 3, 1896.

The Week.

THE Republican politicians generally are opposed to doing anything in reference to the tariff before McKinley comes in. They do not want to risk the fruits of the recent victory by reopening that question immediately. If they continue in this frame of mind, the Dingley bill will not pass. To defeat it in a short session, when there is hardly time to pass the appropriation bills, is easy enough. It will defeat itself unless it has some very powerful backing. Still, there is a good deal of money in it for private interests, and we see signs that these interests are stirring. They do not want to wait for a general overhauling of the tariff, which may not come. In their view a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. The Boston Home Market Club evidently shares these views. On the other hand, there is a growing opinion in Boston that there ought to be a permanent Tariff Commission. A resolution to this effect was offered to the Massachusetts Board of Trade at its last meeting by Mr. Edwin L. Sprague, which will come up at the next monthly meeting. Tariff Commissions have not been very successful heretofore, but Mr. Sprague's proposal may serve a useful purpose by furnishing a forum for Republican debate. The Tariff Commission of 1882 served that purpose, if no other.

If we turn to the South and West, we find other opinions about the bill. The wool-commission men of Philadelphia want it because it will throw back into their hands some profits which they have lost since foreign wools were put on the free list. The Ohio wool-growers want it if the duties on wool are increased to meet their views, but they do not want it in its present shape. Senator Morgan of Alabama wants it because it will punish the New England manufacturers and compel the people of the North to use more cotton to keep themselves warm. His interesting views are communicated in a letter to the Selma *Times*, in which he says that "a very high tax on wool would raise the price as compared with cotton, and give us a great market for our thick fleecy cotton goods, which can be made a quarter of an inch thick, as soft as silk, and very light." Although his heart is moved with pity for the poorer classes of the North, a tax on wool has never been alarming to him as a Southern man. Thus he and Judge Lawrence stand on the same platform at last, although for somewhat different reasons. Senator Dubois of Idaho, on the other hand, agrees with Senator Teller. He sees no reason for changing his position as an obstructionist of tariff legislation until something is done for silver.

As soon as the news of McKinley's election reached the Hawaiian Islands the cry was raised by the *Hawaiian Gazette* that the Republican victory was "the signal for opening the annexation campaign." Bryan's election would, of course, have given the same signal to the *Gazette*, as its preëlection comments showed. But the intention to make a dead set for annexation is unmistakable. Ex-Secretary Foster, who drew the Harrison snap-shot treaty of annexation four years ago, is just back from Hawaii, and is strong for annexation, though his arguments, as reported from Chicago, are neither coherent nor convincing. "The islands were never in a more prosperous condition," he says, which would seem to be a good reason for continuing, instead of extinguishing, their present government. But Mr. Foster meets this by saying that though the islanders have governed themselves so successfully for four years, they will not be able to do so "for any great length of time." That does not mean that the Queen could be restored, Mr. Foster hastens to add; she will "never rule again," and the people are all sound republicans, only, somehow, they will not be able to make the republic work. They can make it work just long enough to secure annexation, but not a moment longer. If this is a little intricate, Mr. Foster has one conclusive argument in reserve. If the islands are not annexed by the United States, they will be by "some other of the great Powers." But this appeal to jealousy, when self-interest is not clear, was so overworked four years ago, and has become so ludicrous by lapse of time, that we do not look to see it have much effect on a country and a Congress that show signs of being decidedly weary of Hawaii.

The signs are that Congress is not going to be quite so hilarious and precipitate about Cuba as it was last winter. A Presidential election just past instead of just to come usually cools off the unselfish ardor of professional patriots. Yet the subject will no doubt be much discussed and action of various sorts urged. We do not say that some kind of action will not be necessary soon, but we do say that the matter should be approached in a much more sober spirit than we see manifested anywhere. It is not a question of going to war "with a light heart," like Ollivier in 1870. There is small chance of a serious war with Spain. But the thing that should give us pause and make us grave is the prospect that our interference in Cuba will bring us speedily face to face with the enormously difficult problem of ourselves undertaking the government of that island. What provision for colonial administration have we anywhere in our system? How are we to assimilate vast new masses of illiteracy? What will the addition of six Cubans to our Senate do to exalt the character of a body now counting a Tillman, a Butler, a Quay, a Hill among its ornaments? These are some of the questions which ought to be filling the minds of our great authorities on how to do it in Cuba; but all their givings forth are of the way our ships could make the Spanish navy look silly, and so on.

"The atrocity of the war in Cuba," says a morning paper, "forces on this country the question whether there is such a thing as international morality." The filibustering newspapers generally seem to favor a war which does not hurt anybody except, perhaps, the combatants, and them not much. They seem to have forgotten some of the lessons of our own war and some of the sayings of our own most beloved and revered commanders. When Sherman was at Atlanta, he said, in reply to somebody's complaint, "War is cruelty. You cannot refine it." At a later period, long after the close of the war, he said in his abrupt way on some public occasion, "War is hell." Nobody need question Sherman's authority on that subject. There is a great outcry among those who advocate the use of rose water for suppressing rebellions, against Gen. Weyler's plan of denuding the province of Pinar del Rio of food supplies in order to starve out Maceo. Was it Gen. Grant or Gen. Sheridan who gave orders to strip the Valley of Virginia "so that a crow flying over it would have to carry his own provisions"? That is about what Gen. Weyler proposes for Pinar del Rio, yet we of the North thought at the time when Gen. Early made his raid upon Washington that that was the right way to prevent a repetition of it. It makes a great deal of difference whose ox is gored.

The most striking passage in Mr. Morgan's report as Treasurer of the United States relates to greenback redemption. During the fifteen months ending with September, he informs us, no less a sum than $192,972,205 in gold was paid out on presentation of greenbacks. That is to say, considerably more than one-half of all the greenbacks in existence were redeemed in those fifteen months. But will they stay "redeemed"? Oh, no. A wise Congress has ordered the Treasurer to put them all out again, and "redeem" them all over again as often as they are thrust in his face. For a nation that boasts of being "smart," and piques

itself on its Yankee 'cuteness, this position is one of the most astonishing ever known. We practically advertise to all the world that if gold is needed anywhere, all that is necessary is to walk up to Uncle Sam's counter and get it. We furiously curse all who accept the invitation, and call them unpatriotic, yet we just as furiously curse those who propose to avert the continuance of the folly by cancelling the greenbacks as fast as redeemed. A great democracy taking a turn at finance must now and then excite laughter in Olympus.

A paragraph is going the rounds of the newspapers, for which nobody in particular seems to be responsible, to the effect that Russia has it in mind to call an international conference for the purpose of establishing a fixed price for wheat. The idea is that if the leading commercial and wheat-growing nations of the world would join, they could fix a price for wheat, to be maintained uniformly through various seasons of over-production and unsatisfactory crops, caused by drought or continual rain, and thus make the principal grain staple upon which the millions of consumers depend for food as unchangeable in value as gold. This is really a scheme to fix a ratio between wheat and gold, say 15,500 to 1. It so closely resembles the scheme of the international bimetallists that we strongly suspect that it was put out as a kind of international joke on Dr. Arendt, Mr. Balfour, and our friend Gen. Walker. The idea of a fixed ratio between wheat and gold is not intrinsically more absurd than one between silver and gold. The difference is one of degree, not of kind. Of course it is capable of indefinite extension. A ratio between corn and gold would be equally desirable and feasible, and, if preceded by a wheat-gold ratio, would *ipso facto* establish a ratio between wheat and corn. As this plan, once carried into effect, would put an end to "corners" in wheat, the speculators would oppose it, and they would cunningly begin by asking its advocates what particular ratio they proposed to establish. The latter would be justified by precedent in replying that they do not intend to be drawn into any such trap, and that there is no use in discussing that question until we know whether a sufficient number of nations will join to make the plan a success.

There are suggestions in nearly all States using the new ballot system for amendments in the law, but from no quarter does there come a call for a reversion to the old system. We have thus succeeded in getting rid of some of the worst influences surrounding our elections. The bulldozers and "heelers" have been driven from the polls for ever. Every man can cast an absolutely secret ballot now in all but a few Southern States, and can do it in a thoroughly civilized manner. But while the "heeler" and his work have been abolished, the politicians go on collecting money for the non-existing expense, much the same as if there had been no change. The candidates of the Republican party for office in this State at the last election paid in contributions to the State committee nearly $34,000; the Republican candidates for Presidential electors, an office which ought to entail no expense whatever, expended nearly $15,000, much of it through the State committee. Yet no real campaign was made and no large expense incurred. Our laws should be made more rigorous in regard to contributions and expenditures, and our reformers should devote themselves to this work now.

It is clearly the purpose of the Platt machine to give the new Governor, Mr. Black, no chance of following a doubtful course in regard to his relations to it. All its most notorious members are pushing themselves forward for places. If they receive what they are seeking, it will be as plain as a pikestaff that the new Governor is Platt's personal property. Such an appointment as that of Lou Payn for Insurance Commissioner could be interpreted in no other way than this. No Governor who was free to follow his own inclinations, with even the most superficial regard for his oath of office, would consent to give any kind of responsible office to Payn. He might just as well make Abe Gruber a Civil-Service Commissioner or Lauterbach a Judge of the Court of Appeals. It remains to be seen whether the new Governor is so indifferent to decent public sentiment as the Platt machine leaders think he is. They, of course, utterly despise that sentiment, but as he is a young man at the threshold of what may be a great career, he may be able to see the advantages of paying some respect to it.

The jubilee banquet in which Mr. Platt's election to the Senate is to be celebrated is already arranged for at Albany. A hall with a capacity of 3,000 persons has been engaged, and will be "floored over" for the occasion, and a great assemblage is promised. It is taken for granted that Mr. Platt's election is as good as accomplished, and the date for it is fixed at January 19. No discussion of his merits seems to be in progress anywhere, and none seems to be thought necessary. The fact is universally recognized that he has the "thing fixed," that the Republican members of the Legislature are in no danger whatever of voting for any one else, and that it is a waste of time to pretend that any such question as qualification for the place has anything to do with the matter. It is interesting to observe that not only is Platt virtually elected to the Senate this year, but Mr. Hackett, his chairman of the State committee, is booked for the next vacancy in that body, which will occur when Senator Murphy's term expires in 1899. Platt and Hackett would well fill the places held by Hill and Murphy.

A ray of hope dawns on us in the shape of the news that Mr. Joseph H. Choate is willing to stand for the senatorship, and that the reforming Republicans are ready to support him. It makes no difference whether Mr. Choate be elected or not. Every decent and intelligent man and woman in the State owes it to the American name to see that this great community, distinguished as it is in all the arts of civilization, does not allow its highest honors to be bestowed by a base and corrupt Legislature on one of its most contemptible members, without at least a protest. It will not do to have it set down in history that, after several years of experience of Hill and Murphy, the people of New York put Platt in the place of one of them when it got a chance. There has not been a better year since the Revolution than this to reaffirm the old principles on which the Government was founded. We were called on in 1861 to show the force of the republic and its capacity for material sacrifices. We are called on to-day to show its wisdom and its honor and its capacity for self-government. The Senate was intended by its founders to be composed of eminent men, famous for their "ability and integrity." For a long period New York sent such men to it. Since the war it has apparently been inclining more and more to the belief that the Senate was meant to be an assemblage of criminals and speculators. We cannot render better service to the country, therefore, than to show our children this year what the fathers of the republic had in their minds. When they founded the Senate, they meant that it should be filled by men like Mr. Choate. He is to-day our foremost man for political purposes, and it will be the greatest shame of this century, not if the Platt Legislature sends Platt in his stead, but if this old trickster be allowed to disgrace a great historic assemblage by his presence, without a word of protest from those of us who live in the hope of a better day.

The latest announcement by Mr. Croker is that he has decided, after looking the field over, not to remain with us for the next municipal campaign, but to return to Europe to look out for his racing interests. This would seem to imply a doubt as to the outlook for Tammany success next year. It was well understood in Tammany circles that the boss had returned because he began to realize the necessity of replenishing his private fortune; the large expenses of living, combined with unfortunate ventures on the race-track, having made heavy inroads upon his savings. Then, too, opportuni-

ties for "speculating in real estate" are less plentiful abroad than they are here, and, as everybody knows, it was in "real estate" that Mr. Croker made his fortune. His conclusion seems to imply that the real-estate outlook is not more cheering in his opinion than the political outlook. We trust that this will not have a depressing effect upon the real-estate market, for it is not a fair test of the situation. It must be borne in mind that the real-estate conditions which enabled Mr. Croker to become enormously rich within four or five years were not ordinary ones. No ordinary ventures in houses and lots yield such sudden and fabulous profits as his did. Of course he is looking for like conditions again now, and the fact that he does not find them should not be regarded as foreshadowing a decline in values. It is barely possible, also, that the very large Republican majority in both branches of the Legislature, and the presence of a Republican Governor at Albany for two years longer, have had some effect in clouding the clearness of Mr. Croker's real-estate judgment.

The change of faith which has come over Mr. Nissen, a Civil-Service Commissioner of Brooklyn, is much like that which Gen. Collis, our Commissioner of Public Works, has experienced. Mr. Nissen entered upon his duties last January, and was not thought at that time to be friendly to the reform. He says frankly now that he had misgivings about his ability to "make a strict performance of duty consistent with his views on civil-service matters," that he had "believed, with many other people who have not fairly looked into the question, that there was considerable humbug about civil-service reform, and that the system was being extensively used for the protection and promotion of political favorites." He now says:

> "I have got bravely over my misgivings, and I will frankly say that, in my opinion, no honest man can make a study of the subject in all its various bearings upon public and political morals without the result of making him a conscientious and sincere advocate of true and practical civil service reform."

He predicts that the proposed raid on the law will fail, because there is a popular sentiment in favor of strengthening rather than weakening the law, and that the public official who takes his stand in favor of the raid is doomed to political destruction. Our new Governor is likely to have this view of the matter pressed home to him in case the raid ever gets so far as to require his action to complete it.

Nearly two years and a half have passed since the Chicago riots took place which led to something like a riot on the part of Gov. Altgeld against the authority of the federal Government. It will be remembered that "President" Debs, the organizer of the strike and boycott out of which the riots grew, and which paralyzed industry all the way to the Pacific Coast, declared in a written manifesto that Pullman was engaged in "the devilish work of starving his employees to death." The fact was, however, that the Pullman Company was at that time manufacturing cars at less than cost in order to keep its men employed, and that the dispute between the company and Debs was whether the loss per car should be increased by an increase of wages at that juncture or not. One of the odd features of the affair was that the company closed its Detroit shops altogether, in order to keep the larger works at the town of Pullman going, but the closing at Detroit was never mentioned by President Debs as a grievance. The only thing worth rioting about was the question whether more money should be paid for wages and materials for car-building at Pullman than the buyers of cars would pay for the completed product, and whether Mr. Pullman should submit this question to arbitration. He took the view that a man who submits a business question to arbitration is bound by the decision of the arbitrators; and since he could not possibly pay the wages demanded under the existing circumstances of the market, there was nothing that he could submit to the decision of arbitrators. Then Debs issued his orders to railroad companies to stop hauling Pullman cars, and the riots began.

When Debs had been landed in jail for contempt of court, work was resumed at the town of Pullman, and the results of the fiscal year ending July 31, 1896, are now before us, in the last report of the Pullman Palace Car Co. Although it was a bad year for general business, the whole number of the company's employees was increased from 10,318 to 11,515, and the total amount of wages paid rose from $5.011,565 to $5,669,121. There was also a small increase of average wages during the year, *i. e.*, from $2.24 to $2 28 per day for journeymen mechanics. There was an increase of deposits in the savings bank of the town of Pullman of $133,042 as compared with the previous year, and the number of individual depositors increased from 1,683 to 2,222. These gains on the part of the workmen were made possible by an increase in the manufactured product of the car-works from $4,986.128 to $7,704,938. The low product of the fiscal year ending July 31, 1895, was due mainly to the strike itself, which began the last of June, 1894. These results ought to impair the future influence of Debs.

"I do not believe in adopting foreign rates of wages or foreign hours of labor" (cheers). This is not, as the shrewd reader infers, an extract from a Canton campaign speech. It is taken, rather, from an address recently made by the English Secretary for the Colonies before the Birmingham Chamber of Commerce. Mr. Chamberlain was discussing the question of German competition—that bogey which has been terrifying so many timid bimetallic and fair-trading minds in England. The Colonial Secretary had little difficulty in showing that the inroads of German on British commerce had been enormously exaggerated, and then went on to show that German success in foreign trade had come simply from applying the highest intelligence to it. It seemed to be a theory with many British manufacturers that consumers were sent into the world to take the goods which they (the manufacturers) made, and that there was no obligation upon the manufacturers to make the things the consumers wanted. The Germans had shown an underhanded willingness to consult the wishes, even the prejudices, of their customers. All this scarcely proved, as the Howard Vincent school asserted, that England could never make head against German competition except by going for protection and bimetallism.

The London County Council has been made the victim of an extraordinary fraud, which the London *Spectator* compares to Tammany's best efforts, but by which nobody appears to have profited. It seems to consist in the "cooking" of accounts by the employees, and the desire seems to have been simply to save the Council from charges of mismanagement and extravagance. To carry this design out they have transferred charges from one account to another, and charged for materials never used, so as to put a good face on the whole situation. But why they expected this never to be found out and exposed, does not appear. The trouble arose from what we call "bi-partisanship"—that is, the attempt to carry on work needing decision, energy, and administrative experience and ability, by a committee instead of a single head. Committees and bi-partisan commissions always differ, are generally at loggerheads, and are easily hoodwinked by subordinates. Subordinates get around some of them and "pull their legs," and the man whose leg is pulled feels flattered and stands by the man who pulls it, and feels bound to protect him against his colleagues, and his colleagues do not wish to quarrel about him, and so abuses go on until they become intolerable. This affair is extremely unfortunate for the County Council, for it has a host of enemies, and some very powerful ones, and its relations with laborers and contractors have long been a subject of indignant criticism from one party of taxpayers. It will probably result in some concentration of authority, for the leading feature of the scandal seems to be the impossibility of fixing responsibility for it on any one.

NO FEDERAL ELECTION LAW.

THE Chicago *Times-Herald*, through its Washington correspondent, makes an announcement as to the probable policy of the new Administration, which contains the following passage:

"Men who hold confidential relations with the President-elect believe the coming Administration will mark the enactment of a new election law—not a 'force bill,' but a comprehensive statute designed to prevent a recurrence of such election frauds as those which have cursed a number of Southern and border States during past national campaigns."

There is only one thing to be said of such a policy as is here suggested—it would be an exhibition of political madness. Six years ago, as "leader of the House," Mr. McKinley helped to put the force bill of 1890 through that body, and if he could have had his way, it would have become a law. Happily it failed to pass the Senate, through an alliance between the Southern Democrats and free-silver Republicans of the West—the one good thing, by the way, that the nation has ever got out of the free-coinage agitation. The force-bill policy was an important element in producing the popular revolution of 1890 and 1892, which gave the Democrats the House of Representatives during the last half of the Harrison Administration, and then entire control of both branches of Congress. They signalized their supremacy by repealing all the federal election laws. This action was hailed by sensible Republicans everywhere, and particularly in the South. The force bill of 1890 had been opposed by more than one Southern Republican in the House.

The election laws were repealed in the early part of 1894. In the following November the Republicans carried Missouri, Tennessee, and West Virginia, and, through a fusion with the Populists, defeated the Democrats in North Carolina—these being in each case the first Republican victories since the end of the reconstruction era. In 1895 the Republicans carried Maryland and Kentucky. In all six of these States Republicans claimed and Democrats conceded that the change was largely due to the repeal of the election laws by the Democratic Congress and the abandonment of the force-bill policy by the Republican party, which rendered it impossible for the Democrats to solidify the whites, as of old, by an appeal to the race issue.

The Republicans, in their national convention last June, ignored the whole sectional question, and Mr. McKinley, in his letter of acceptance, gave what was universally understood to be a pledge that he would never again lend any favor to a policy looking in the direction of federal election laws. This pledge was accepted at its face value by the sound-money Democrats of the South. Without it, McKinley would surely have lost Kentucky, and he owed to it a large share of his majorities in Maryland and West Virginia, as well as the unusually large Republican vote in Tennessee, North Carolina, and other Southern States. Since the election Gov. Oates of Alabama, a representative Southern Democrat, has urged the Legislature to abolish the system of separate State elections in August, and consolidate those elections with the elections for federal officials in November, on the ground that "the federal election laws were repealed by Congress three years ago, and now no reasonable person apprehends their re-enactment, or the passage by Congress of a 'force bill.'"

For the McKinley Administration to push a federal election law—any kind of a federal election law—would be as gross a breach of faith as was ever committed by a victorious party. It would be as shameless a violation of a pledge as would be a movement by that Administration to promote the free coinage of silver. Every honest man who supported Mr. McKinley in the belief that he and the Republican party meant what they said they meant about this whole force-bill issue would feel outraged. The solid South has been visibly dissolving before our eyes during the past two years. The bringing forward of a new force bill—and any sort of a federal election law would be regarded at the South as a force bill—would drive the whites together again, and inject the hateful sectional issue into our national politics once more. Such a scheme would be nothing short of a crime.

The one thing that the South needs is to be let alone. "You will tell me," said Mr. Ewart of North Carolina to his Northern Republican colleagues in the House, six years ago, "that I am suggesting no remedy for the political state of affairs in the South. Yes, there is a remedy, and that is to mind your own affairs and treat the colored man of the South with 'wise and salutary neglect.'" This remedy has now been applied for some years. The beneficent effects are apparent. The recent national election was the fairest held since the war in many Southern States. Public sentiment in most States has already made great headway towards compelling honest returns of the ballots cast. In Tennessee and Virginia, where the worst frauds were committed, the decent elements in the community are becoming aroused to the necessity of a radical reform, and they will bring it about if only left to themselves.

If the Republicans live up to their platform and pledges, they can hope to carry several Southern States in 1898 and 1900. If they should be so mad as to attempt any sort of congressional legislation regarding elections, they would put the South and the nation back a dozen years. In a private letter, a prominent Palmer and Buckner Democrat in a Southern State, who has accepted the force-bill issue as dead, thus describes the situation in his State caused by its disappearance:

"The Solid South has vanished. The whites are at last divided. In my judgment, if the McKinley Administration shall live up to its promise not to attempt any federal election legislation, no political scheme will ever bring our people together again. Freedom of opinion is in the air."

BANKING REFORM.

THE *Evening Post* published on November 25 a thoughtful communication from Mr. Henry J. Ford of Sewickley, Pa., on the subject of banking methods and the need of a reform which will satisfy the people of the South and Southwest. It is quite true, as Mr. Ford says, that the people of those States and districts cannot understand why money should be scarce and impossible to get hold of in their communities when it is piled up in large and almost unusable amounts in the cities of the North. It is probably true that they will continue to vote for free silver, or free greenbacks, or anything else that is considered wild and heretical in the North, until some change in the banking system of the country is effected which they will consider a measure of relief.

Most of them look upon the 10 per cent. tax on the notes of State banks as the chief cause of their trouble. It is not "the crime of 1873" that makes them angry, but an earlier one, dating back to the war period. They have an indistinct recollection of the banks immediately before the war, which were fairly good in the South, although they had been preceded by an atrocious litter of wildcats in all those States, almost coeval with the federal Union. Anybody who will take the trouble to read Prof. Sumner's historical review of those institutions will justly consider all present evils of a financial kind as Elysian fields by comparison. Yet it is probably true that a repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on the notes of State banks would kill the silver heresy stone dead in every Southern State. It would cure all other financial heresies for the time being, in the same way that John Phoenix proposed to cure mosquito bites, by plunging the bitten part into boiling water. As soon as free banking under all sorts of State laws should have reached its full development, there would be a much worse condition of things than there is now, and the cry for bank reform would be much louder than before.

None the less is it necessary to undertake bank reform. The greenbacks must be got rid of. The Government must go out of the banking business. The gold reserve must be allowed to regulate itself under commercial, not political, influences. Yet Mr. Ford is right in saying that retirement of the greenbacks cannot be effected without putting something in place of them. Even though gold would flow into the vacuum, the process would be unobserved, its existence would be

doubted, and hence it would be politically impossible. The people who need to be conciliated, and without whose co-operation no reform is possible, would say that the retirement of the greenbacks was another step on the part of the grasping national banks; that, having defeated Bryan, they were now trying to control the currency and "corner gold" again, and thus to collect back from the people the money they had paid to carry the election. This view is present to the mind of every member of Congress, Republican, Democrat, or Populist. There is no man with a livelier sense of the politics that lies in this question than Bryan himself. Nobody knows better how much is to be gained by fanning discontent with our present banking arrangements, and how much is to be lost by any measures which would quiet it.

It is certain that the country is in no mood for a return to the old miscellaneous sort of banknote issues which prevailed before the war, however pleasing that might be to the States south of the Potomac. If the evils surely attendant upon that system, or lack of system, could be confined to the States which believe in it and want it, the question would be very different. So, too, the proposed free coinage of silver would present a very different aspect if it could be restricted in its operation and effects to Kansas, Colorado, and other States that want it very much. Unfortunately, it is not possible to restrict the effects to any particular State or section. Silver dollars legal tender in one State must be legal tender in all. Any banking law passed by Congress must be valid in all the States. A repeal of the tax on State bank issues would open the door in New York as well as in Mississippi. Some States prohibit banknote issues other than national by their constitutions, but those provisions would not prevent the notes of other States from gaining entrance among their people. If Louisiana, for example, were allowed to issue banknotes under State laws, the notes would circulate in Texas, although the latter prohibits State-bank issues of her own. What serves for one must serve for all.

The practical question, therefore, is whether an amendment of the national banking law can be secured which shall keep the safeguards necessary to protect the people against wildcatting and yet make banking and banknote issuing profitable in those Southern communities where the silver craze, and the greenback craze, and the sub-treasury craze now predominate and threaten at every national election all that we hold dear. Mr. Ford mentioned in his communication the Scotch system of branch banks by which every nook and glen of the country is provided with banking facilities of the very best kind. While there is no fundamental objection to branch banks in this country, and while we have had some very successful examples in the past in the State banks of Indiana, Ohio, and Missouri, we must bear in mind that the Scotch system is the growth of more than two centuries, and that it cannot be transplanted to this country in time for the next election. Still, there is wisdom in the suggestion. National banks ought to be allowed to have branches in this country under certain conditions as to capital and public supervision.

The great thing to be done is to make banknote issuing profitable enough to induce capitalists to go to these bankless sections of the Union and supply them with the facilities now lacking. The present national banking law does not afford this profit. The public mind, the Granger mind, the Populist mind, is all wrong on this subject. The men who have money would be as glad to make money, say in Alabama, as anywhere if anybody would show them how. They would avail themselves of any facilities for issuing demand notes and giving "cash credits" according to the Scotch system if they could see a profit in it, but there is none (or none worth mention) if it is necessary to deposit $110 of bonds for every $90 of circulation obtained. The question now coming up is whether this feature of our banking system can be amended without giving the field to wildcats. Our Canadian neighbors seem to have solved this problem, in part, by borrowing the old safety-fund system of the State of New York. May we not do the same?

PLATT AND THE CIVIL SERVICE.

It has been evident to all persons interested in the reform of the civil service in this State, ever since the interpretation of the amendment to the Constitution by the Court of Appeals, that something would be done soon by the Platt politicians to get around, or, as they call it, "beat," the law. For it is one of the most extraordinary features of our present situation that the men who are actively engaged in managing our affairs, pass most of their time in trying to frustrate or defeat measures called for or forced upon them by public opinion. In fact, the complete separation between the class called "politicians" and the mass of the people in political ideals is one of the most interesting phenomena of the day. We were present in a small company of lawyers, immediately after the decision of the court, when the question of what Platt would do now came up for discussion, and one present immediately predicted the plan of making every department its own examiner, and giving the appointing officer full control of the eligible list. But it was not till six months afterwards that his prophecy was fulfilled by the appearance of an article in the *Sun* showing that there would be nothing unconstitutional in such a scheme, which revealed the fact that the Plattite brains were already at work on it.

We need hardly say that the scheme is an old one. The first demand for civil-service reform in Washington was met by an exactly similar arrangement. Each department was directed to examine its own candidates, and did so, but the result was, of course, laughable. No one presented himself except those the appointing officer called for, and the examination naturally allowed the men he wanted to pass without difficulty. Nobody who would be of much value would submit to such a farcical test, knowing he would not be appointed without "a pull." In fact, nobody would ever come to such examinations here except the Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys, for whom the Plattite appointing officers are now sighing. The steady growth since that period of the competitive system managed by independent boards, shows that the public speedily understood the Platt system and would have none of it. The extension of the competitive system by every President since President Arthur, and the unanimous testimony of departmental officers in its favor, prove that its success is assured. No more remarkable sign of its hold on the popular mind could be given than its submission to the popular vote in Chicago, of all places in the world, in April, 1895, when it was adopted by a majority of 45,000. No departmental officer in Chicago, Gen. O'Beirne will be sorry to hear, can now get "the men he wants." He must take the men provided for him by law.

Another very amusing episode in the earlier days of the civil-service reform agitation is recalled by the recent Platt movement. What is disturbing the Platt politicians, it appears, is that the examinations are not "practical" enough, and that, owing to their very literary and abstruse character, they are carried off by "college men." In the early seventies there used to be a vigorous stand made every now and then by the political class against examinations, sometimes because there were also examinations in China, but generally because the examinations were not "practical"—that is, did not let in more of the ignorant, shiftless "workers." One of their favorite illustrations of this thesis was that candidates for clerical places used to be examined about "the depth of the Polar Sea and the height of the walls of Timbuctoo." We were greatly amused, therefore, on Saturday by hearing from Chairman Hackett that

> "if a man is a candidate for a place on the police force or in the excise office, he doesn't think he should be asked to bound Timbuctoo or tell all about the government of Zanzibar. A man who has never heard of Timbuctoo or Zanzibar may make an excellent policeman or excise inspector. I think a man should be examined strictly on the duties he is expected to perform."

The last time we heard about Timbuctoo and Zanzibar was from the learned and vivacious Howard Carroll on the stump about 1882—"God be wid the good ould times," as Tom Brennan would say. The only answer needed to stuff of

this sort was, of course, the publication of the rules and of the examination papers, which was often done, and disposed of both Timbuctoo, Zanzibar, and the Polar Sea. The utmost pains is and has always been taken by all Civil-Service Commissions to make the examinations strictly practical, and to make them bear directly on the duties of the place to be filled, as any one may satisfy himself by looking at the papers of any examination. It is hardly worth while to apply this remedy now. Our advice to Hackett or any politician who is troubled about want of "practicalness" in the civil-service system, is not to go to the Legislature, but to go to a physician. If he finds his mind wandering about Timbuctoo, Zanzibar, or China, the best thing to do is to take an anodyne, and get a good sleep with a wet towel round his head.

Another old friend, over which in years long gone we spent many a merry day, was the fondness of politicians for civil-service reform in the abstract, but dislike of "this particular measure." "Real civil-service reform," they all, like our eminent friend Abe Gruber, desired, but "this particular measure"—faugh! The reappearance of this trouble thirty years later is one of the drollest incidents of the present agitation. Civil-service reform, "the men we want," but no Zanzibar or Polar Sea.

And then the college men—what are we to do about these "college men"? The practical examination is "to give other than college-bred folks a chance." Well, in the last ten years, the applicants for admission to all the departments in the federal service in Washington were 169,522. Of these, alas! 140,017 came from the public schools, 10,980 from business, but the college rascals numbered 18,525; an appalling fact, which makes the future of the republic look dark indeed. Of these, 84,051 of the candidates from the public schools passed, 7,440 of the business candidates, and 12,764 of the college men. It will be seen that the college contingent was small after all, but think of our universities extending their pestiferous influence into the public service even in this degree. And there are men among us who are glad that our colleges are multiplying!

We have not by us at this moment the figures about the candidates in this State, but we believe the percentage of college men among the candidates is still lower here than in Washington. In fact, the agitation which has been started is so plainly the concoction of beaten men who see their doom approaching, that, even if they get their bill passed, the end is near. We warrant that Gen. O'Beirne will be sick of "the men he wants" before we get done with him.

THE STUDY OF GOVERNMENT.

THE academic study of government and administration, as subjects distinct from history and political philosophy, has only within a very few years begun to receive particular attention in this country. Here and there, to be sure, one could find a college whose curriculum accorded to the Constitution of the United States a certain amount of respectful attention: the formal phrases of the instrument had to be learned by rote, while its provisions were illustrated by comparison with the Articles of Confederation, and reference to striking events in our national history. But, however fruitful its results, this was, after all, essentially a study of government in theory rather than in practice. Whether the actual workings of the various departments of government were such as the text of the Constitution seemed to indicate, and whether there were not other factors of which that document said nothing, were questions seldom raised. Of study of European systems of government there was none, save the little that was inseparable from courses in so-called "constitutional" history. Some colleges still require a memorizing of the Constitution; others have sought to "enrich" the course of study by the adoption of a text-book on "civil government," in which comment on the sections of the Constitution *seriatim* is judiciously mixed with the history of the United States, and supplemented by meagre accounts of State and local administration. How largely these dry and lifeless methods have been discredited, and how broad a field is being opened to scientific investigation, a very brief examination of typical courses of instruction in government, now offered by leading universities in this country, will serve to show.

In addition to American constitutional law, most of our universities of the first rank now provide for the extended study of government and administration in the United States, national, State, and local, with emphasis upon practical operation as well as upon the legal or theoretical basis. As is the case with other courses in this department, the method of instruction is usually by lectures, supplemented by reading, special research, and personal investigation. The University of Chicago offers a course in the government of American States, and Johns Hopkins a course dealing generally with systems of local government. Elsewhere, local government seems to be included in the general courses, although separate courses are allotted to municipal government at the Universities of Michigan, Pennsylvania, Chicago, Columbia, and Yale. The government and administration of European countries is studied comparatively under a variety of titles, and, apparently, with somewhat different estimates of its importance. Columbia, for example, presents courses in the comparative constitutional law and comparative administrative law of the principal European States, with seminaria in administrative law and comparative legislation. Pennsylvania devotes separate courses to the constitutions of leading foreign countries, the text of the German Constitution being compared with the constitutions of the United States and Switzerland; public administration in leading foreign countries, especially in Germany; and a study of the existing governments of France and England. Johns Hopkins has a year's course in systems of administration in England, France, Prussia, Italy, and the United States. The courses at Chicago include the comparative constitutional law of France, Germany, Switzerland, Great Britain, and the United States, and federal government in the United States, Germany, and Switzerland; while Harvard provides an elementary half-course in constitutional government and a half-course in federal government, historical and comparative. Columbia, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and Yale have courses for the comparative study of municipal institutions.

This enumeration of representative courses will suffice to show the field of inquiry contemplated and the classification usually adopted. It does not, obviously, indicate all the work in government done by the institutions named. In some cases, further, the work is merged in that of other departments, particularly law and history, or in research in various fields. At Harvard, for example, where extended facilities in this department are not yet provided, seminary work in government is announced as included under seminary work in history, while the history of government in the leading countries is treated in the historical courses. It is probable, however, that everywhere such combination courses are much more historical than descriptive. But, however variously entitled, it is clear that progress in this new department has been rapid, and that the facilities now offered in this country for the study of actual political methods, both at home and abroad, are very considerable, comparing favorably, as far as they go, with those available in European universities.

That more extensive work is not carried on is due in part, no doubt, to the newness of the subject, and uncertainty as to its proper place in the university curriculum. There are numerous indications, also, that the broad and thorough study of government and administration is not yet widely cared for in the United States. The different extent to which the various universities have taken up the work is noticeable. At present only two institutions of the first rank—Pennsylvania and Chicago—attempt to cover systematically a large field; the others follow at irregular distances, while two or three offer so little as to suggest either limited resources or a depreciatory estimate of the importance of the subject. As a rule, the largest share of time is given to American government—a fact partially attributable, doubtless, to laudable patriotic interest, yet somewhat surprising when we remember that, in these same institutions, courses in European history greatly outnumber those in American history. The most obvious lack is that of courses dealing exclusively and in detail with the political institutions of any one foreign country. As for the comparative study of European government, it is limited, for the most part, to the constitutional and administrative law of Great Britain, Germany, and France, with the occasional inclusion of Switzerland, Belgium, and Italy. It does not appear that the political organization of Russia, the Netherlands, Austria-Hungary, Norway and Sweden, or Spain is anywhere particularly studied in systematic courses; nor have we noted a reference to detailed study of the Dominion of Canada, although its federal organization is, presumably, considered in connection with the comparative study of federal government. In general, we may say that the study of government in American universities is still, in most cases, general rather than specific, extensive rather than intensive, and not quite comparable, in either extent or thoroughness, to our work in the kindred field of history.

The literature of a subject is sometimes a very good indication of the kind and amount of popular concern about it. Up to the pre-

sent time, it must be confessed, there is in English hardly more than the beginning of a literature descriptive of the political life of countries other than Great Britain and the United States. Discussion of any phase of the subject in the general periodicals is infrequent. Even in regard to the two countries just named, there is a real scarcity of accurate, scholarly, and usable publications. Next to American history, the history of England is probably most widely studied in this country; yet we do not possess a single book, treating of English political institutions, at all to be compared with Bryce's 'American Commonwealth,' or so well adapted to class-room use as Hinsdale's 'American Government.' On the other hand, the government of the United States has nowhere been treated so usefully as has that of Great Britain in the "English Citizen Series," or as that of France seems likely to be in the series now in course of publication under the title of "La Vie Nationale." For the comparative study of government, the well-known treatises of Burgess, Goodnow, and Wilson, reënforced now by Mr. A. Lawrence Lowell's recent work on 'Governments and Parties of Continental Europe,' stand almost alone. As far as the universities are concerned, the lack of books available for use as text-books may not, of course, be very serious, since with them the basis of instruction is usually the lecture with collateral reading. It may, however, serve as a partial explanation of the non-participation of the colleges in the study of government and administration. At present, few colleges in the United States offer in this department anything beyond a brief course in American government, and most do not do even that. Whether constitutional and administrative law are suitable subjects to be included in the college curriculum, admits no doubt of argument; but it is clear that the absence of a sufficient literature would act as a decided limitation on the work, even if the colleges were disposed to undertake it.

GEN. TROCHU'S MEMOIRS.—II.

PARIS, November 18, 1896.

WHEN Trochu returned to Paris, after the death of Marshal Bugeaud, to whom he seems to have been attached by the strongest ties of gratitude and of admiration, the first visit he received in his small apartment was, as I have said, from an aide-de-camp of Prince Louis Napoleon. The Prince, who was President, offered him a place on his military staff, in memory of Marshal Bugeaud. Trochu at once put on his uniform and went to the Élysée, where he was introduced to the Prince. He thanked him for the proffered honor, but asked permission not to accept. He owed his advancement, his position in the army to two men, General Lamoricière and Marshal Bugeaud. At the deathbed of Bugeaud he had taken the resolution never again to accept any position on the staff; he wished to take his place in the ranks of the army. He desired to be no longer in evidence.

Lamoricière had, in fact, been the first protector of Trochu; it was an act of courage to pronounce his name before Louis Napoleon. Lamoricière was among those who were arrested on the night of the Coup d'État of December 2, with Gen. Bedeau, Gen. Le Flô, and others, and sent into exile. Trochu never concealed his indignation and his profound sorrow at what he calls the "great military captation which preceded the Coup d'État," and which has recently been related, in all its details, with a sort of cynical sincerity, in the Memoirs of Gen. Fleury, a part of which has appeared in the *Revue de Paris*.

"Let those," writes Trochu, speaking of the Coup d'État, "who knew me in my youth, ask themselves what I would have done if, as aide-de-camp of Prince Napoleon, I had become an instrument, an accomplice, or merely a subordinate actor in those great political saturnalia!"

In saying to the Prince-President that he wished to return to the ranks, Trochu did not say all; in the election for the Presidency, he had cast his vote for General Cavaignac, for whom he had always felt the greatest respect. He could not enter into daily relations with his too fortunate competitor. The Prince received Trochu's refusal in his usual kind way; he did not seem ruffled, asked him to reflect, and left him entire liberty of reflection and of action. Trochu did not reflect long; an hour afterwards he was at the War Department, asking for letters of service. The Minister was very angry at his decision, and showed much temper. Trochu heard him in perfect silence; he felt himself free. "Never," he says, "did Providence serve me better than on this occasion."

Those who lived through that period cannot but feel much sympathy and admiration for a man, accustomed to military obedience, yet led by a virtuous instinct to refuse honors which he felt to be full of dangers.

"Victrix causa diis placuit, sed victa Catoni."

Trochu was not on the side of Louis Napoleon; he was on the side of Cavaignac, which was, at the time, the side of law and legality. After the Coup d'État, the Minister of War, Marshal Saint-Arnaud, who had known Trochu in Algeria and knew his worth, invited him to occupy an important post in the Ministry of War. Trochu refused. The invitation was replaced by a written order, and he had to enter upon functions which were very complex, as they comprised the services of the infantry, the cavalry, the gendarmerie, the staff, the military schools, the recruiting, military justice. He spent a whole year in mastering all these organizations; he had soon an occasion to show his independence of character. The Emperor had decided to place the gendarmerie in the Department of the Interior instead of the Department of War. The gendarmes, in this system, ceased to be soldiers, and belonged in reality to the police. Trochu would not admit such a change; the French gendarmerie is very much respected in the provinces, and it enjoys this reputation, which has survived all our revolutions, from the fact that the gendarmes are all recruited from the army by a very careful selection; the gendarmerie is, in reality, the élite of the army. Trochu felt that if it became merely a corps of police, it would lose its prestige. The Minister of War withdrew his project (he was still Saint-Arnaud, who was a thorough soldier); he felt the force of Trochu's arguments, and the gendarmerie preserved its ancient organization.

Napoleon, on arriving at power, pronounced at Bordeaux the famous formula, "L'Empire, c'est la paix"; but everybody in Europe felt that the new empire needed the baptism of war. The occasion was furnished by the eternal Eastern question. In 1852 some misunderstanding arose between the Porte and the Emperor Nicholas; the year after, diplomatic relations were interrupted between Constantinople and St. Petersburg, a Russian army entered the Principalities, and the Turkish fleet was annihilated at Sinope. A general war became imminent.

"The Emperor Napoleon," says Trochu, "was penetrated with the belief that the appearance of the imperial eagle on our flags was, for the French army, the permanent consecration of victory in the eventual wars of the future. This sort of Napoleonic fetishism explained itself in theory—in sentiment, if you like—by the splendid victories of a past of which the Emperor was the heir and the representative among us. Practically it was unjustifiable, full of dangers; and I affirm (contenting myself with viewing in its broad aspects the destiny of the Second Empire) that this fetishism was to be and became the most efficient cause of its downfall and of our ruin. This incurable and fatal blindness had overtaken the Emperor, the court, the military entourage, the ministers, everybody to a certain extent, sometimes through conviction, more often by imitation and by fashion."

Two formulas were in many mouths: the first was, "We have the first army in the world"; the second was, on the eve of a war, "We are ready." To do justice to Trochu, he did not wait for the time of our disasters to protest against this dangerous optimism. Nobody knew better, at the beginning of the Eastern difficulties, that we were not ready. "At the end," he says, "of January, 1854, two months after the catastrophe at Sinope, no question had been put to us as to the state of military matters." Trochu, with some other directors of the War Department, had to take the initiative, and they prepared among themselves, unofficially, so to speak, plans for the formation of an army destined for the East. Every detail of the plan was well studied, and thus it was that in a very short time the nucleus of the corps which was to operate in the East was prepared, and that afterwards this nucleus was increased into a real army, composed of three divisions of infantry, one division of cavalry, with the necessary artillery and the administrative services.

Saint-Arnaud, who was the commander of the French army, took Trochu for his first aide-de-camp.

"My dear Colonel," said he to him, with a sort of solemnity, "I know where I am going. I have a malady [angina pectoris] which is still intermittent, and which allows me a little more life; but I have it from a doctor who had the courage to tell me the truth, that it does not pardon. If the thing is to get worse, I would rather die among my soldiers than in my bed. . . . But my health may fail, and I need near me an auxiliary on whom I can count. You will be this auxiliary."

Trochu had often judged with severity the adventurous life of Saint-Arnaud, but he could not be insensible to such an appeal. "Providence," he says, "recompensed Saint-Arnaud by allowing him to end his life, as he had wished, among his soldiers." Saint-Arnaud, by a miracle of will, was able to superintend the landing of the army in the Crimea and to witness the battle of the Alma. The Marshal died a fortnight afterwards.

The Italian war was even less carefully prepared than the Crimean war. In 1859 Trochu, who had become brigadier, was discharging at the ministry the function of member of the committee of the general staff. "None of us," he says, "believed in a war"; but a few words spoken on New Year's day by Napoleon to Baron Hübner, the Austrian Ambassador, convinced everybody that a war was imminent. Without entering into details, it is enough to say that Trochu shows clearly that there was no preparation for a great campaign, that everything had to be improvised. The Emperor counted upon his "star." He gained much easier victories in Italy than in the Cri-

mea, and he became even more confirmed in an optimism which had in the end such disastrous results.

The first volume of the Memoirs of Trochu is devoted to an account of his military career up to the year 1870, and the exposition of his views on "The State, Society, the Army." The second volume is consecrated entirely to the war of 1870, and particularly to the siege of Paris. As such, it will remain among the most valuable documents on the war. It was no easy task for Trochu to preserve order in a city which was exasperated by a long siege; to maintain his authority over the National Guard, which was all but worthless as a military force, but which was very dangerous as a revolutionary force. He had only two regiments of regulars, and the sailors placed in the forts, on whom he could really depend; also a few battalions of Breton mobiles, who were faithful to him as a Breton. His only hope lay in the arrival of Bazaine's army, and after the surrender of Metz this hope was gone; he never believed much in the arrival of a second army, knowing well that the organization of it required more time than he had at his disposal. He tried, however, to the end to foster in the Parisian population a confidence which had nearly forsaken him. He does ample justice to the courage and the resignation of the Parisians, when, at the end of the third month of the siege, the bombardment of Paris began. During this bombardment he visited periodically the forts and the quarters on the left bank of the river, which suffered particularly.

"Going at my horse's pace through the groups of poor emigrants who, leaving the outskirts immediately bombarded, took refuge in the centre of the city, amidst terrible cold, I acquired proof that the besiegers completely failed in their plan of destroying the morale of the besieged. They were irritated, but not cast down. As I was following the Chaussée du Maine towards the ramparts, a tall woman, with gray hair, who seemed to have some authority there, screamed to me loudly: 'C'est toi, Trochu? Eh bien, va toujours!' And I was moved. This woman of the people gave me everything in a word — consolation, encouragement, recompense. She had in her unconsciously a force which I believe is now disappearing—patriotism devoid of any personal interest, any political interest."

Trochu modestly adds: "I feel authorized to say that if I have not done great things, I have seen great things."

After the war Trochu was elected Deputy to the Constituent Assembly by ten departments. He had not put himself forward as a candidate; he had resolved to retire into private life, but he was induced by his friends to take his place in the Assembly, which was obliged at once to set about the reorganization of the French army. When he reached Bordeaux, where the Assembly first met, Jules Favre, Minister of Foreign Affairs in M. Thiers's first cabinet, offered him, in the name of the head of the executive power, the rank of Marshal of France. Trochu declined an honor which, in his opinion, should be the reward of victory alone. He declined afterwards the command of an army corps. He did not remain long in the Assembly, where he took his seat among the monarchists, and he retired to Tours, where he spent the last years of his life.

Correspondence.

WASHINGTON'S LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Boston Athenæum possesses an interesting collection of over 300 volumes from the library of George Washington. These were acquired in 1848 from Henry Stevens for $3,800, subscribed by about seventy gentlemen in Boston, Cambridge, and Salem. A careful catalogue of these books has recently been compiled by Mr. A. P. C. Griffin, formerly of the Boston Public Library and now of the Lenox Library in New York. He has examined all of Washington's letters in the State Department at Washington, in Philadelphia, Boston, and elsewhere, and made notes of all passages in them relating to his books and the conditions under which they were obtained. The catalogue, which will shortly be published, includes, in addition to the books which were owned by Washington, a number of others formerly belonging to Judge Bushrod Washington and other members of the family, and the large collection of Washingtoniana which the Athenæum has gradually collected.

It is intended to add, in an appendix, the list of Washington's books as given in the appraiser's inventory filed in the Orphans' Court of Fairfax Co., Virginia. This list shows about a thousand volumes, and most of the books in the Athenæum collection can be identified on it in spite of the brief and imperfect titles given. I am anxious to trace the whereabouts of any of the other volumes, many of which have been sold at auction within the last ten years, and I shall be extremely obliged to any one who will kindly communicate any facts in his possession in regard to the present ownership of any of these books.—Very truly yours,

Wm. C. Lane, Librarian.

Boston, Mass., November 30, 1896.

THE CAMEL IN AFRICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The learned reviewer of Sayce's 'Egypt' asks (p. 350) what naturalists have "shown that the camel was not introduced into the northern coast of Africa until after the beginning of the Christian era." Whoever those "naturalists" may be, they are little acquainted with the facts. Cæsar took twenty-two camels from Juba half a century before the Christian era (*Bell. Afric.*, 68). The Louvre possesses a terracotta statuette, representing a camel, which was found in Cyrenaica, and belongs to the *second* century B. C. The real question is, whether or not the camel was of common use in the Barbary States (Tunis, Algeria, Morocco) before the *Byzantine* period. I have collected much evidence on the subject, both literary and monumental, in a paper entitled "Africain sur son chameau: terre cuite trouvée à Hadrumète," which I published in the "Collections du Musée Alaoui" (Paris, 1890, p. 33). Allow me to refer your reviewer to that exposé of the problem, to which I have nothing essential to add.—Truly yours, Salomon Reinach.

St. Germain-en-Laye, November 17, 1896.

SLAVIC STUDIES AT HARVARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Through the efforts of the lamented Prof. F. J. Child and Dr. A.C. Coolidge, provision has been made for the study of Slavic languages at Harvard University. Probably no better proof can be given of the necessity for such a chair than is furnished by the fact that it was found advisable the very first year to offer three courses, in Russian, Polish, and Old Church-Slavic, all of which are now actually taught. There have also come assurances that advanced courses will be asked for next year. In reply to the several inquiries as to the facilities offered here for the study of Russian, etc., a short statement of what is to be found in the University Library will, therefore, not be out of place.

Prof. Child created for the Library a folklore collection such as exists, probably, nowhere else in the world. This collection contains about seven hundred volumes of popular songs in every language and dialect of the Slavic family. These offer an inexhaustible source for linguistic and literary studies. The publications of the Historical and Archæographical Societies of Russia, Poland, Servia, Bohemia, of which the Library has complete sets, subserve the same purpose. Similar matter will be found in the publications of the Academies of St. Petersburg, Vienna, Cracow, Agram.

For philological purposes there are complete sets of the leading philological Slavic journals published in Germany, Russia, Poland, as well as the large collections of acta and monumenta of the several Slavic universities and academies. Through the munificent gift of Dr. A. C. Coolidge of nearly 3,000 Slavic volumes, we now possess all the most important philological and historical publications of all Slavic countries. This collection is especially rich in Polish literature. In all, not less than 6,000 volumes, which are now being placed compactly together as a Slavic collection, are available for historical, philological, and literary studies. The Russian literary material is rather weak, but we expect this year an addition of 300 volumes, and further gifts will not fail to come with the growing interest for Slavic studies at Harvard. The Boston Public Library has lately added 300 Croatian works to its Slavic books, and the trustees have passed an order for the purchase of some 600 volumes of Russian and Polish classics. It is a noteworthy fact that a former Harvard student sent last year to the Harvard Library a rich collection of Nihilistic literature; this will shortly be made complete by another gift of all such works as are not contained in the first, so that we shall have here a unique source for the study of Nihilism in Russia. Leo Wiener,

Instructor in the Slavic Languages.

Harvard University, November 28, 1896.

HIGH SCHOOL AND GRAMMAR SCHOOL

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a schoolman I have been deeply interested in the whole subject of Elementary English in the Schools, both as presented in your paper and as discussed in the community at large. Personally I am one of those who acknowledge that there is fault in our teaching, and I also believe that the fault in this particular line of work is due to our colleges.

Prof. Dillard's charge, throwing the responsibility back upon the grammar schools, might be answered by teachers, as indeed it is answered by many, by pushing the responsibility back still farther, and placing it upon the primary schools, and yet again upon the homes. In truth, much of the fault does lie at the parents' door; but that by no means relieves the teacher, for his work is to overcome bad home training in this matter as in many others. My own observation (corroborated by others competent to judge) is that the language work in the grammar schools

is of a higher character and the results relatively more satisfactory than in the high schools. The number of subjects, of which he complains, does not interfere with the language work, or good work in any subject, provided the school has a good teacher. In fact, it is well known that those schools that neglect the so-called enrichment branches are doing the poorest work all along the line.

The reasons why this is so are simple. The lower schools can correlate their studies as the high schools cannot. The lower schools do not have the "college requirements" standing before them as a bar to good, honest teaching; and consequently they direct their efforts to child development rather than to stuff so much of this, that, and the other into the pupil in a given time that he may *pass an absurd examination*, that seldom reveals power and not always acquirements. The lower schools are looking for teachers who not only possess scholarship, but who also have a *special training* for their work; while the high schools have in the past certainly looked for scholarship only. The lower schools have responded to the needs of the time, and have adapted themselves to the social and economic changes, while the high schools are still under the bondage of an educational system centuries old—a system, by the way, that the colleges perpetuate and force upon all schools sending pupils to them.

ELMER L. CURTISS,
Superintendent of Schools.

HINGHAM, MASS., November 23, 1896.

CITIZENSHIP IN THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your columns have of late teemed with complaints about the inability of the American youth to write good English in his examination papers in applying for admission to college. The complaint is doubtless just, and the root of the evil lies probably in the inefficient teaching of English in the high and grammar schools. But, bad as this is, there is a still greater crime that must be laid at the doors of our elementary schools, and that is the utterly inefficient teaching of citizenship for American youth.

Speaking for the Middle West, it may be said without fear of contradiction that the average citizen, the ordinary voter, the "plain man," never enters a high school, and he gets all his training from the grammar school. In his youthful, plastic period he learns reading, writing, spelling, grammar, some geography, a little history, and much (useless) arithmetic. We are of late perhaps getting away from the old style of learning in geography the names of capes and mountains and bays and rivers exclusively, but there is much to be learnt in the way of routes of commerce and the achievements of man on the face of the earth. In history there is a visible tendency to break away from date-memorizing, campaign-following, and statistics of battles, but in many quarters there is a grievous tendency to teach only American history—and Jingo history at that. It is not, perhaps, too much to say that probably there is not one school in fifty where the true history of the war of 1812 or the Mexican war is honestly taught. In some of our schools an attempt is made to teach English history in the last year of the grammar school, but in too many cases the most stress and energy is devoted to the mediæval and mythical periods of English history. That leaves almost no time for the great democratizing movements of later years. However, any history of England at all is better than none to awaken in the American youth's consciousness the idea that there are other nations on earth besides ours. A better course would undoubtedly be to take in something of the recent movements in Germany, France, and Italy. The history of Europe for the last hundred years would be extremely fruitful to the average child in counteracting the narrow, exclusive ideas of Americanism indigenous in a community so isolated and so far removed from the centres of culture as is the West of America.

Still, on the whole, there is a manifest improvement in the common schools in the line of history and geography teaching, and one ought to be thankful for half a loaf under certain conditions. But the one thing needful, the *sine qua non* of American citizenship, without which a republic constituted as is ours is hopeless, is not taught at all; and that is political science, science of government, or political economy, or whatever you choose to call it. What I mean is our understanding of the purpose, functions, and duties existing reciprocally between the citizen and his government, and between his government and other governments, together with a knowledge of the elementary laws of the production, exchange, and distribution of commodities among men. It is true that, in a scientifically arranged course of study for a candidate for the degree of bachelor of arts, such topics could be more adequately discussed in college; but I must repeat that the average man with us, the man who shapes our nation's policy, does not go to the high school even, and it is a question again of half a loaf or no bread; and, while a youth of fifteen might not discuss so broadly as he could at twenty the following topics (which, at the risk of seeming schoolmasterish, I will suggest), I cannot but believe that the habit of thought, once formed, would make him a less willing prey to the wily demagogue that he is sure to meet later in life:

"Why do we delegate part of our rights and powers as citizens to men whom we select for that purpose? Why must we have a government, and what is the purpose of that government? If we were stockholders in a street railway, for instance, on what principle should we select officers? Why not attend to all their duties ourselves? In choosing a board of directors what qualifications should we insist on? If we knew a 'real good fellow,' who was, say, a fairly good oiler in the engine-room, who could take a drink with the boys, tell a good story and belonged to our neighborhood, why not put him in charge of the entire electric plant because he was such a good-natured man and a friend of ours? Or if we had in our employ a motorman who attended strictly to business, never ran over people, was always on time, was exemplary in conduct, did our work faithfully, and never cost us money for careless accidents—if he had held the job for a couple of years, why not lay him off and put in a new, untried man off the farm, because the job was a well-paying one and he needed work, and the other fellow ought not to keep a good thing all the time?

"Or, again, if our railway stock was quoted on the market at 95, could our board of directors vote it worth 150? If they did, what effect would such a proceeding have on the market value of that stock? Or suppose that, being in financial straits, our company should pay their bills with written promises to pay, and suppose that, in course of time, their creditors and the men's creditors should refuse to accept these promises at their face value—would the fact that our board of directors voted never so solemnly that the promises were worth a hundred cents on the dollar make them so in the markets of trade? If not, why not?

"Now, then, institute a comparison between a small corporation (explaining what a corporation is), like a street railway, and a large corporation, like the United States."

Similar questions could be asked and answers discussed on such subjects as money, currency, the doctrine of demand and supply of wheat, for instance, and the elementary principles of international law, even in the grammar school. The elementary principles of these large-sounding subjects are, as Langdell said of the common law, few and simple. Once mastered, only common sense and common honesty are required to put them in operation. It is perhaps hopeless to expect to do anything with the adult population of the Southern and extreme Western States that voted for national repudiation and dishonor in the last election, but there is hope for the rising generation if the common schools do their duty. Kansas, with its large percentage of voters who have attended American schools and do attend American churches, is probably not vicious at heart, not more dishonest than other parts of the country. The unfortunate political condition of Kansas is the direct result of the kind of teaching that the adult generation of Americans got from the public school twenty years ago. Jingoish ideas of America's past and future, ignorance of the experience and possibilities of foreign countries, ignorance of modern methods of commerce and finance, combined with isolation from the centres of culture and aloofness from the large affairs of life, will produce in any community the bad preëminence which at present distinguishes Kansas.

E. L. C. M.

CHICAGO, November 25, 1896.

Notes.

A. C. McCLURG & Co., Chicago, will speedily publish 'Eating and Drinking,' by Dr. Albert H. Hoyt.

Additional announcements by D. Appleton & Co. are 'Prehistoric Man and Beast,' by the Rev. H. N. Hutchinson; 'The Struggle of the Nations: Egypt, Syria and Assyria,' by Prof. G. Maspero; 'The Story of Extinct Civilizations in the East,' by Robert E. Anderson; 'Ancient Greek Literature,' by Prof. Gilbert G. A. Murray; 'The Aurora Borealis,' by Alfred Angot; and 'Some Masters of Lithography,' by Atherton Curtis, illustrated by twenty-two photogravures.

Lemcke & Buechner will shortly publish a new novel, 'Barbara Blomberg,' by Georg Ebers.

R. H. Russell & Son send us two collections of drawings, republished from *Life* and other periodicals, 'In Vanity Fair,' by A. B. Wenzell, and 'Pictures of People,' by Charles Dana Gibson. Both sets are very familiar to us all, but the cleverness of the one artist with the brush and the other with pen-and-ink is often made more conspicuous by the increased size of the present reproductions, which must closely approach that of the originals. Sometimes, indeed, there is an apparent loss of delicacy from the same source,

the drawings being too large and seemingly coarse for the near inspection their place in a book invites. Seen upon a wall, as pictures, there would be nothing but gain.

The same firm publish 'Posters in Miniature,' a book with almost as little text as those just mentioned, having only a very brief "Introduction" by Edward Penfield, the well-known designer of posters for Harper & Brothers. It has the advantage, for Americans, of containing a larger selection of American examples than any book on the subject we have seen, but not all these are of very high class, while the reproductions are, as a whole, rather indifferent. Only the pure black and-white pieces come out really well.

Macmillan Co. publish two books on artistic anatomy, 'Anatomy [Human] for Art Students,' by Prof. Arthur Thomson, and 'Studies in the Art Anatomy of Animals,' by Ernest E. Thompson. The latter is rather an atlas of plates than a book in the ordinary sense, the text being confined to a minimum of comment and explanation. The plates should prove valuable, especially to sculptors of animal life. A new feature, so far as we know, and an interesting one, is the introduction of plans of hair-growth. The dog, the wolf, the fox, the cats (great and small), the horse, the ox and buffalo, the sheep, the dromedary and camel, and several types of bird, are fully treated, most space being given to the dog and horse, while several other animals are briefly treated of in the text, but without plates.

Prof. Thomson's book is, on the contrary, though profusely illustrated, an elaborate treatise on human anatomy as it affects external form. Prof. Thomson is lecturer on Anatomy at South Kensington, and his experience has taught him to understand the requirements of art students. We have been able to give the volume only a cursory examination, but that has convinced us that his method is, in the main, the right one. There is perhaps too much of detail for the average art student, but the point of view is constantly that of the student of form, not that of the student of function. Until the ideal book for students of drawing shall be written (when it is, it will be written by a painter), this may be recommended as an approximation to it. The illustrations from photographs from nature are perhaps better than anything could be but expressly prepared drawings by a master of the human figure. One wonders, however, if the greatest works of painting and sculpture might not be drawn upon with advantage for this purpose.

A welcome should be sure for 'Jean François Millet, his Life and Letters,' by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady), of which the London publishers are Swan Sonnenschein & Co., and the New York publishers the Macmillan Co. Mrs. Ady has thoroughly assimilated all the material at her disposal, and has produced a sound and painstaking piece of work, which corrects in some particulars the impression given by Sensier. Her own critical remarks are fairly good, but the criticism given in extracts from Millet's own letters is all that is essential, and is of the grave and splendid kind we know so well. The nine illustrations are beautifully rendered in photogravure, and paper and print leave little to be desired. The book is emphatically one to be desired by admirers (and who is not one?) of the great peasant-painter of Barbizon.

Mr. Cecil Torr's recent volume, 'Memphis and Mycenæ' (Cambridge [Eng.] University Press; New York: Macmillan), is addressed to the refutation of the assertion that "the Mycenæan age in Greece can definitely be fixed at 1500 B. C., or thereabouts, on the strength of evidence from Egyptian sources." An examination of this evidence leads to the discovery that the proof consists of two propositions: one, that the Mycenæan age was contemporary with a portion of the eighteenth Egyptian dynasty, and the other, that the date of certain kings of the dynasty approximated 1500 B. C. The discussions that follow are highly detailed and quite technical, so that they are of particular interest only to specialists, but the off-hand judgment of any one acquainted with the uncertainties of Egyptian chronology will be that, if the second proposition is an essential part of the proof of the view here sought to be controverted, the view has small chance of ultimate acceptance. The author's contribution to "an examination of Egyptian chronology and its application to the early history of Greece" would be more valuable if he had examined with care the sources whence his material was derived; but just this he admits that he has not done.

It is a great pity that Augustus Le Plongeon, M.D., who enjoyed great advantages for the exploration of the Maya country of Yucatan, did not confine himself to the task of adding to the world's stock of real knowledge when he sat down to write 'Queen Móo and the Egyptian Sphinx.' He starts with the assertion, "In this book I offer no theory," but his statements of fact with regard to the Mayas are so mixed up with fanciful and absurd assertions with regard to things Egyptian, not to mention China, India, Babylonia, and the four quarters of the earth, that one can with difficulty extract from them any real contribution to Maya history or archæology. His pictures are good, valuable as far as they go, and no doubt there is more or less of sound material to be found in the book if one had the time to search for it, but life is short, and the book is an octavo of nearly three hundred and fifty pages. We have stumbled upon some delicious bits of information about Egyptian archæology, and may be permitted to mention two of them. The claim is put forward, apparently with all seriousness, that the Egyptians learned the use of determinatives in their pictorial writing from the Mayas. The real fact is, that in this particular we are able to follow, more clearly than in any other, the internal development of the hieroglyphic system. At another place we are told that the Maya word "*Canob* signifies the 'Four,' the 'strong,' the 'mighty,'" and are then soberly informed that "From the Maya *Canob* the Egyptians no doubt called *Canopi* the four vases in which were deposited the entrails of the dead." The author does not seem to be aware that the word was not so used till the opening of the present century, and then only as the result of a misunderstanding. Even if this were not the case, the absurdity of the "theory" would not have to be pointed out to any one with even a rudimentary knowledge of Greek mythology or Egyptian antiquities. The list of the authorities cited by the author is a veritable curiosity. It ranges from the Book of Genesis, the Acts of the Apostles, and the 'Rig-Veda,' to "Dr." Paley and Ralph Waldo Emerson. But the names of Maspero and Petrie, not to mention a host of others, are conspicuous by their absence. The book is published in this city by the author.

Zittel's well-known 'Handbuch der Palaeontologie' is now appearing in English from the Macmillan press (Vol. I., Part 1, 352 pages, 593 woodcuts). Dr. Charles R. Eastman, of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Cambridge, a former pupil of Professor von Zittel, is the editor and translator. He is assisted by a number of American specialists, as well as by the author himself, who is thoroughly revising the original. The work, which fills five large volumes, is one of the invaluable monuments of German intelligence and industry, and to say that the English translation is worthy of the original text is in itself high praise. It is a labor of love upon the part of the translator, both towards an old teacher and towards this great subject. This revised text will undoubtedly reach a still wider circle of readers than the original German edition, and probably its chief service will be to coördinate, and thus render more effective, researches which are going on independently in widely scattered centres of palæontological and geological study.

'The Earth and Its Story,' a first book of geology, by Angelo Heilprin, Professor of Geology in the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia (Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.), is an excellent book of its kind—that is, it presents well-selected examples of appropriate facts, generally well illustrated, in pleasant and effective form for school use, and thus is sure to attract and interest the scholar; but the disciplinary element of instruction is not a prominent feature—perhaps intentionally so. A reference to the sections on water-gaps and terraces will illustrate our meaning. A praiseworthy quality of the book, for a beginning in geology, is the strict subordination of historical to dynamical geology, as illustrated in the forms and processes of to-day, namely, in physical geography; but in the thirty-odd pages devoted more or less directly to historical geology, the young student will be left with little idea of the real nature of the geological problems there touched upon. Fact, rather than principle and method of reaching the principle, is here presented to him.

The 'Allgemeine Erdkunde' of Hann, Hochstetter, and Pokorny is now appearing in a fifth much enlarged edition. Part i., by Hann, is just issued (Vienna: Tempsky), and treats of the earth as a whole, its atmosphere and hydrosphere. Part ii., by Brückner, on the earth's crust and its forms, and part iii., by Kirchhoff, on the distribution of animals and plants, are to be issued shortly. The first part is a thorough treatise from a competent hand. Its important chapters are: The earth as "Weltkörper"; terrestrial magnetism, with full discussion of the aurora borealis; the temperature, pressure, winds, rain, etc., of the atmosphere; the oceans, with an elaborate account of temperatures, and a good discussion of currents and tides. We know of no general work that is so complete and generally satisfactory as this; but, from its very fulness of detail, the relation of the parts to the whole is hardly impressed on the student with sufficient emphasis. The discussion of rainfall before the section on cyclones is an inverted order, inherited from a time when the importance of cyclones as a cause of rainfall was not understood; and among the few non-explanatory statements we have noticed is one concerning the diurnal inequality of the tides, from which the reader is not led to perceive an inequality in low as well as high water.

In spite of the reputation enjoyed by H. Habenicht as a cartographer in Perthes's geographical establishment at Gotha, his collection of essays entitled 'Grundriss einer exacten Schöpfungsgeschichte' (Vienna: Hartleben)

can be recommended only to the collectors of paradoxical literature. It is a fantastically gratuitous series of assumptions concerning the origin of continents, ocean basins, and everything else, by the explosive outbursting of gases contained within the earth, and the collapsing of the great craters of eruption, followed by a whole series of changes to order. The devastating outbursts destroy all life; hence Darwinism is declared to be out of the question. The alternate shrinking and expansion of the oceans, as the continents slide about, control the succession of glacial periods. The plates are nicely prepared, but they are highly imaginative, to say the least.

The thirty-seventh and latest number of the 'Geographische Charakter-Bilder' (Vienna: Hölzel) is an admirable view of the Gorge of the Rhine, looking south past the Lorelei from the upland back of St. Goarshausen. It is a reproduction in colors of a painting by Fischer, showing the broad fields and quiet villages of the uplands, above which the ridge of the Bingenwald rises faintly in the distance and beneath which the deep, steep-sided gorge is sharply incised—the gorge, an international highway, full of life and movement; the uplands, a region of rural byways, unseen by the thousands who pass beneath. A descriptive and explanatory text by Penck adds greatly to the educational value of the view, which, like the rest of the series, is intended "for school and home."

Calendars for 1897 begin to make their appearance, and we have before us (*place aux dames*) "A very seasonable Kalendar . . . designed to bee vsed by y^e^ manie louers of . . . Master William Shakespeare" (Boston: Louella C. Poole & Andrèa Jonsson, 457 Shawmut Ave.). The illustrations are by Maria Danforth Page, and the arabesque title-page is the fancy of Josephine Wright Chapman. This is altogether a very pretty and well-reasoned performance. Each sheet is rubricated, has its illustration—always sufficient and often pleasingly decorative—and is linked to its fellows by a hinge of silk cord. Drollery furnishes the motive of "A California Bear Calendar," illustrated by James Swinnerton and published in San Francisco by the Dodge Book and Stationery Co.; but we fear the Eastern mind will discover as little humor in it as art. "The Pursuit of Happiness Calendar, selected from the writings of Dr. Daniel G. Brinton, by Martha Allston Potts, with drawings by Wm. Sherman Potts" (Philadelphia: Geo. W. Jacobs & Co.) tells its own story. Dr. Brinton's genial face shows through the oval opening of the cover, as if in sympathy with the sentiment set down for January 6: "Sunshine within more than compensates for its absence without." The scheme and the ornamentation of this calendar are well contrived.

The German fashion is something solider and more instructive. "Meyer's Historisch-Geographischer Kalender" (Lemcke & Buechner), for example, is in effect an octavo book of 365 pages, printed on as many leaves. One can read it through with interest before tearing off the daily leaf. One or more historical events associated with the date, the festivals, a proverb or two, a bit of sentiment or of humor, fill out the sheet, which is headed with a picture. The majority of these are views of German cities after Merian's precious series of etchings (1645), with now and again a recent cut after a photograph of the same place, as in the case of Graz, Prag, and Lindau; and one could wish that this comparison had been more extensively carried out. Other pictures are portraits, old and new, or represent notable buildings, or scenery, or curious geologic formations. The scope, both historical and geographical and pictorial, is German in the broad sense. This calendar is, we conclude, too good to be destroyed by peeling from the pad.

We extract two items of interest from the November Bulletin of the Providence Public Library: (1.) Hereafter this publication will include all the accessions to the Providence Athenæum (a subscription library) and to the Brown University Library. (2.) The Boston Public Library maintains a public stenographer and typewriter, who is prepared to make investigations into material in that collection in behalf of persons or institutions at a distance. There is also a photograph-room for the copying of MSS., plates, etc.

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for October contains a report of Dr. Bliss on his recent excavations at Jerusalem. In it he announces the discovery of a flight of thirty-four steps, with alternate wide and narrow treads, in the Tyropœon Valley, of what age it is now impossible to decide. A street was also uncovered in this same valley, with paving-stones of great size laid on a concrete bed made of chips and lime. These excavations, it should be added, are prosecuted with great difficulty, on account of the depth of the rubbish, which at places exceeds one hundred feet. It is very remarkable that no architectural or archæological remains of importance dating from Jewish times have yet been found. The veteran explorer Herr von Schick contributes an elaborate account, with ground plans, of the Church of the Ascension and the neighboring buildings.

The figure of Heinrich von Treitschke, as drawn by Paul Bailleu in the pages of the *Rundschau* for October and November, is impressive in its unstudied dramatic effect. Treitschke's ideas took early in life a turn sharply at variance with the traditions of his family and his native Saxony. Like Lessing, he was German to the core, and particularism and patriotism were to both of them mutually exclusive ideas. Germany's unity and greatness, through the influence and power of Prussia, was the single aim to which Treitschke devoted his life-work, whether as publicist or academical teacher, as historian, statesman, or representative in the Reichstag. An attack of the measles in his childhood left him partially deaf. His father was an officer of high rank in the Saxon army, and his brother fought against Prussia at Königgrätz; but neither physical infirmity nor the deeper affliction caused by strained family relations could make him swerve from his course. His character, his stalwartness and sincerity, also remind us of Lessing; but he had not, like the latter, a dislike for professorial chairs, and, great though the effect of his many publications has been, his influence upon the academic youth at Leipzig, Freiburg, Kiel, Heidelberg, and Berlin was ever felt by him as a powerful stimulus to patriotic activity. Between thirty and forty letters of Treitschke to Gustav Freytag, to Bismarck, and others are also published in this connection. Several of them are of historical interest, and recall vividly the political events of the periods to which they belong.

Volume i., No. 8 of the *Far East* (the monthly English edition of the Japanese *Kokumin-no-tomo*, or The Nation's Friend) contains articles on the downfall of the Ito cabinet, with pictures of the new Minister-President of State, Count Matsukata, and of Okuma, Minister of Foreign Affairs. Japan is now reaping the evil aftermath of a successful war, in the shape of deficits in revenue, increased taxation to support the swollen military and naval establishments, and the payment in gold for foreign war material. She finds a sea of troubles, too, in the form of a depressed silk market and enormous losses of life and property from destructive natural elements. Very few critics of either party expect the new cabinet to continue very long, or to be able to face with full success the new and complex problems entailed by the war. In "A Word to Americans," Mr. Shimada Saburo, scholar, historian, and vice-president of the lower house of the Diet, protests against those obstacles to trade between Japan and the United States which an American high tariff will set up. He turns upon us the text which Perry and Harris preached so loudly with warships and diplomacy forty years ago, "To maintain communication between the races is the will of God." Dr. W. F. Eastlake, resident in Japan for more than fifteen years, who has just finished his 'Heroic Japan,' a history of the Chino-Japanese war of 1894–'5, in an acute paper on the Europeanization of Japan, declares that "European nations will never admit as their equal a land in which Buddhism is the national or favorite creed." With news and notes there is a detailed account of the chanoyu (hot-water tea) ceremony.

—To the expert eye the London *Academy* had for a long time been showing signs of financial pinch and loosening hold on existence when it was bruited that a change of management was impending. This change took place with the issue for November 14 (No. 1280). Mr. Lewis Hind succeeds Mr. James S. Cotton as editor, being the fourth in descent from the founder, Dr. Charles Edward Appleton. What most marks the new broom is not the improved paper and typography, nor the rearrangement of parts, nor the "portrait supplement," but the explicit abandonment of the signed review. The open proclamation of the critic was the chief excuse for a rival to the *Athenæum* in the year 1869, so far as the reading public was concerned. At the same time, the creation of the *Academy* was a satisfaction to those who smarted under the elder journal's anonymous criticism, or regarded the *Athenæum* as dominated by a clique, or for other reasons found themselves out with it and its editorial control; and of course the more critical reviews, the more chances for budding reviewers. Experience has fully justified those who held to the conservative ground which has made English criticism of books the best in the world. At no period did the *Academy* reach the level of the *Athenæum*, or deliver its message with the same independence and directness and with equal weight. This is not, of course, to deny its scholarly direction and support, and its essential utility as an organ of learning. The change will dishearten those who, in this country, occasionally lift up their voices against anonymity, in the face of some very striking examples of literary reputations lowered by signed criticism. It ought not to be overlooked that a large body of minor criticism, none the less conclusive or possibly offensive for being brief—much of it in the nature of hack-work, and therefore superficial and careless—regularly went unsigned in the *Academy*.

—Two books just published by John Wiley & Sons, 'American Theatres,' by William H. Birkmire, and 'Theatre Fires and Panics,' by

William Paul Gerhard, C.E., contain much information concerning modern play-houses and their construction, most of which, however, is too technical to be of interest to the general reader. The former is devoted chiefly to detailed descriptions, with abundant photographic illustrations, of the many fine theatres erected during the last few years in New York, Boston, and Chicago. All of them are highly decorated, more or less commodious, and nominally, if not actually, fireproof. The latter discusses fires and panics and the various precautions which ought to be taken against them. It appears that, since 1751, nearly 750 theatres have been burned in different parts of the world (there is some little discrepancy in the figures quoted from different authorities), with a loss of nearly 7,000 lives. This proves the importance of the subject. Mr. Gerhard, evidently, has studied it carefully, and his conclusions, so far as they go, are perfectly sound. All that he says about the necessity of fireproof materials in building, abundant and easy modes of exit, open spaces around the theatre, a copious water supply, frequent inspection, disciplined attendants, etc., is indisputably true, but in no sense original or novel. The list which he furnishes of patent appliances of all kinds for the prompt extinction of flames once started seems to be very complete, and many of them, no doubt, are essential, but the vital question is not how to put a fire out, but how to prevent the possibility of its occurrence. On this point he is not so clear and definite as he might be. As a matter of fact, there is no excuse for having the present amount of combustible material in a theatre, or, practically, any combustible material at all. Everything on or about the stage, including scenery, ropes, draperies, even the lightest costumes of the players, can be made absolutely fire-proof. Moreover, with separate structures for lighting and heating apparatus, it is not necessary to have flame of any sort within the building. So much assurance of precaution would do away with the chief provoking cause of a theatrical panic, more dangerous to life than fire itself.

—Volume iv. of the Grimm Library (London: David Nutt), entitled 'The Voyage of Bran, edited with translation, by Kuno Meyer, with an Essay upon the Irish Vision of the Happy Otherworld, etc.,' by Alfred Nutt, is a valuable gift both to the philologist and to the folklorist. The Voyage of Bran has been much discussed of late, notably by Zimmer. The significance of the text for Irish grammar may best be learned from Meyer's words, p. xvi: "The Voyage of Bran was originally written down in the *seventh century*. From this original, some time in the tenth century, a copy was made, in which the language of the *poetry*, protected by the laws of metre and assonance, was *left almost intact*, while the prose was subjected to a process of partial modernization, which most affected the verbal forms. From this tenth-century copy all our MSS. are derived." We have italicized the significant words. They imply that pratically we have a poetical text in Irish as that language existed in the seventh century. The quatrains in the Voyage of Bran, then, take rank with, if they do not antedate, our earliest literature in Anglo-Saxon and German, and are contemporary with the celebrated Würzburg Gloss to the Pauline Epistles (see Zimmer, 'Glossæ Hibernicæ,' and Whitley Stokes, 'The Old-Irish Glosses'). These quatrains (60 in number, or 240 lines in the present edition), accordingly, may be used to complement the phonology and lexicography of the Würzburg gloss. Of Professor Meyer's part as editor and commentator we can speak only in terms of the highest praise; evidently he has spared no pains to make his work both lucid and exhaustive. The same praise should be extended to Mr. Nutt's disquisitions upon the general conceptions underlying the Irish story. Though still incomplete (the present volume contains only Part I.), the Essay proves the author to be a master of his complicated theme. He indicates the relations and interdependence of Irish, Classical, Jewish, and Early Christian conceptions of an Other-World and a Happy Land. As a specimen we may refer to chapter x., which treats of the Phœnix story, familiar to students of Anglo-Saxon, of the Apocryphal Apocalypses (especially of Peter), the Visio Pauli, the Second Sibylline Oracle, etc. Under Mr. Nutt's cautious guidance one cannot help becoming initiated in the marvellous complexity of mediæval literature.

—From the Clarendon Press we have the first part of a 'Compendious Syriac Dictionary,' by J. Payne Smith, a daughter of the late R. Payne Smith, D.D. The work is substantially an abridgment of her father's 'Thesaurus Syriacus.' Proper names and a multitude of the foreign words with which Syriac writers embellished their style are omitted, as well as all references to authors and native lexicons. The arrangement is alphabetical instead of etymological, even *Afel's* of verbs with a weak initial consonant being entered under A, with a reference to the verbs from which they are formed. Derivative and cognate words are registered under the roots to which they belong. In various ways considerable space is given to matters for which it would have been better simply to refer to a grammar, as, for example, in the article on the letter Âlaf. So it is surely superfluous to give—as is done throughout—the plural of nouns and the feminine of adjectives which are entirely regular; those who use such a dictionary must be presumed to have at least learned their paradigms. On the other hand, the distinction between the explosive and spirant sounds of the mutes in words like *abhâ*, 'father,' *ebâ* or *ebbâ*, 'fruit,' which can be learned only from the dictionary, is neglected. The definitions, in English, are concise and clear. The author has generally followed the 'Thesaurus' closely, even where criticism or subsequent research has proved it wrong; the name of the month Adar, for example, is still said to be derived from the Persian, though it is now certainly known to be of Babylonian origin. In some cases the work of abridgment seems to have been rather hastily done. Thus, the 'Thesaurus' tells us that *aubâurâun* (the pronunciation is dubious) is interpreted by some 'wild chicory,' by others 'dandelion'; the 'Dictionary' sets these down, under *a* and *b*, as the two meanings of the word. Löw's discussion of the word is not noticed, and the true form of the name is entirely omitted. In the rare instances in which the author departs in any way from the larger work she has not always improved upon it. The reintroduction (from Castell) of "a mason's trowel" as one of the meanings of *abhâthâ* is certainly a mistake. In general, however, the work seems to have been well done, and the Dictionary will doubtless be warmly welcomed by English and American students. When completed it will, as we estimate, fill not far from 600 pages in quarto, and thus be considerably longer than the recent Lexicon of Brockelmann. The typography is fully up to the standard of the Clarendon Press; higher praise cannot be given.

—With the exception of our cities, local government in the United States has not of late years been the subject of many experiments, though time has brought about some changes in administrative detail. More than ordinary importance, therefore, attaches to the proposed remodelling of its form of government which the town of Melrose, Mass., had for some months under consideration, even cast into definite form for submission to the Legislature, and then, unfortunately for the curious, rejected. The plan provides for a representative body of fifty members, to be known as the Town Council, and exercising the powers vested by law in the town as a municipal corporation, but heretofore exercised by the town meeting. The duties now performed by the selectmen, water, sewer, and road commissioners, surveyors of highways, and overseers of the poor are to devolve upon an executive board of nine members, to be known as the Board of Public Works. For election purposes the town is to be divided into five precincts, each of which is to elect eight members of the Town Council, the remaining ten to be chosen at large. The members of the Board of Public Works will regularly be elected for three years, three retiring annually. The Board will have the appointment and removal of a number of town officials, but the town will continue to elect annually its Clerk, Assessors, School Committee, Treasurer, Auditor, and Board of Health. The Board is to meet as often as occasion requires; the Town Council is to meet in January, March, and October of each year, and at other times on the request of ten or more legal voters, or as they themselves may deem necessary. It will be seen that by this plan the Town Council will be legislative in its character, with control, apparently, of taxation and finance, while the Board of Public Works is intended to be purely executive. The town meeting disappears. The outcome of such an experiment would be awaited with widespread interest.

—Since the meeting of the International Woman's Congress at Berlin, in September last, the tone of the German public press has undergone a complete change as far as discussions of questions pertaining to the woman movement are concerned. While these were formerly quite generally characterized by flippancy or lack of sympathy, they are now marked by a serious and friendly spirit. If the recent event itself attracted the attention of thoughtful men and women in the country, the calmness and dignity with which all the meetings of the congress were conducted seem to have won universal respect for its members. Even the exchange of views between the *Socialdemokratinnen* and the more conservative majority of the participants in the congress did not lead to intemperance of language or exhibitions of violent antagonism—a circumstance with which foreign delegates have been favorably impressed. English and French delegates have expressed their surprise at the remarkable self-control and matter-of-fact ways of the German women. The latter, in their turn, are deriving from occurrences at the congress encouragement for the future reconciliation of the classes through the mediation of woman. One of their special objects of agitation just now is the revision, by the new Reichstag two years hence, of certain sec-

tions of the new civil code of the Empire which will not take effect till the year 1900.

LANG'S LOCKHART.

The Life and Letters of John Gibson Lockhart. By Andrew Lang. From Abbotsford and Milton Lockhart MSS. and other original sources. With fifteen illustrations. 2 vols. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

THESE two showy and costly volumes deserve a wider circulation than it is to be feared their size and price will allow. It was eminently right that the Life of Lockhart should be written; and perhaps, all things considered, Mr. Andrew Lang was the best person to write it. He is a Scotchman; he is a man of fine taste and a practised writer; and he honestly and heartily admires Sir Walter in these days which affect to call Scott's poems "verse" and his novels antiquated. Perhaps no one else could have been found combining these three necessary qualifications; and certainly his book is one not laid down in a hurry after it is once taken up. Yet there is, all through, an effort in reading it which is never experienced by those who love its subject. Mr. Lang's constant writing in modern periodicals has given him something of their smart, jerky style, not wholly out of tune, perhaps, with Lockhart's own earlier production, but one which he would have assuredly made to feel his correcting pen if offered to the *Quarterly*.

John Gibson Lockhart, whose life extended from 1794 to 1854, was a man of exceptional attractiveness in person, talents, and character. His means were small enough to stimulate him to hard work; his education at Oxford and his social position in Scotland were perfectly adapted to introduce him to the circles where his talents could be turned to the best account. Yet, as we read his life, we get the impression of ill-success, and there is an air of sadness over it which does not surround others of his contemporaries—Southey, for instance—who worked harder and scarcely achieved more. Two causes contributed to make Lockhart get less out of life than he might have hoped. First was his intense love of satire, even to the extent in his youth of making mischief; his keen, trained mind detected the follies and weaknesses of his contemporaries instantly, and when the ludicrous vision once arose, an almost irresistible propensity led him to make them the subject of provoking, too often of absolutely insulting, fun. He carried this so far in his early literary life that when, by the advice of Scott, and probably by his own advice to himself, he was ready to drop it, and did do so, the reputation of a merciless satirist was gained and was not to be shaken off. The place where this evil temper found vent was in *Blackwood's Magazine*, where, in conjunction with John Wilson, who really behaved sometimes more like a malicious schoolboy than a grown man, and deserved the like punishment, he filled number after number with jests on all and sundry which no possible coolness or good nature could laugh at or forgive. Mr. Lang endeavors to throw off the blame of this wanton abuse on Blackwood the editor, whom he makes out to have been as fond of a "slashing article" as the immortal Bungay. But it does not appear that Lockhart or Wilson ever objected to write the "slashing articles," and, considering that they really were "Maga," the idea that she was a kind of siren who seduced them into reckless bad manners is fanciful.

In all his account of Lockhart's connection with *Blackwood*, with the *Quarterly*, and with John Wilson Croker, Mr. Lang admits that he had not full access to original documents and was obliged in many parts of his subject to feel his way. Certain it is that he writes rather as defending Lockhart against charges which everybody knows than as telling the story which every one does not know, and letting us form our own opinion. In discussing the terrible duel between Christie and John Scott, which is of itself enough to stamp the whole breed of duels as wicked and absurd, he is determined to clear Lockhart from any imputation against his honor. Technically, according to the wretched code of the duello, he succeeds, by the simple process of throwing much of the blame on Horace Smith, who was Scott's second—and certainly no duellist ever had worse seconds than poor Scott; but the fact remains that if Lockhart had not sought to maintain his honor by the formal absurdity of "posting" Scott, there need never have been any duel at all. The idea, however, that mischief, and quarrels, and duels, and deaths might come of his fighting temper does not seem to have troubled Lockhart much.

The second obstacle to Lockhart's success, which superficial people might fancy was a blessing, was his being Sir Walter's son-in-law. It overshadowed him, it hampered him, and one might almost say it crushed him. It enabled him to write one of the most delightful books ever written; but the position he was in during Scott's life, and the cares in which this relation involved him after his death, were altogether too much for his shy, sensitive, sad nature. Contact with the cheery, robust, insouciant character of Sir Walter seemed the very thing to correct his faults, especially when we consider how tenderly and delicately the task was taken in hand; but the constant comparison of two such characters by the world inevitably drove the younger and secondary soul in upon itself and aggravated its melancholy. The world criticised him for not being like his great connection, as it would have criticised him still worse for trying to imitate him.

The whole story of this alliance, this marriage with a child of the immortals which was almost as fatal as those of Tithonus and Anchises, is most of it very well told by Mr. Lang, who has had unreserved access to the Abbotsford papers; but there is one serious exception. Scott's Life, as written by Lockhart, gave great offence to the representatives of the Ballantynes, his printer and publisher. A war of pamphlets took place, in which the Ballantynes had the last word, and in which Lockhart's contribution, whether correct or not in facts, is certainly, as Mr. Lang has to admit, sufficiently flippant in tone. In fact, Lockhart appears so one-sided in the correspondence that his biographer is obliged to speak of him as holding a brief, and to throw all blame for misrepresentation of facts, if blame there be, upon Cadell, the last of Scott's publishers. But any one who has read all three pamphlets—not, perhaps, easy to collect now—and Mr. Lang's apology, will be almost forced into the belief that Sir Walter, in following the will-o'-the-wisp of a baronial estate, with its castle, not only ruined himself, but ruined the printing-house which, without his insane purchases and constructions, might have given both him and his printers a noble income; and that the failure was by his fault and not that of the Ballantynes. In this, as in so many cases, the old tale recurs: Lockhart may be acquitted of sober malignity, but he could hardly tell even an honest story without resorting to reckless satire against any antagonist, high or low; and such hornet's stings hurt worse than deadlier poison.

In fact, as has been already noticed by some English reviewers, Mr. Lang injures his hero by the very ardor of his defence. He is so anxious to defend Lockhart against charges of being a fiend that he hardly recognizes how much suffering Lockhart caused by a boyish love of mischief. He has brought out, with loving care, the genius, the industry, the truly tender heart, and the sorrow which seemed almost to pursue Lockhart like an avenging deity; and for this labor of love he deserves warm thanks. He deserves, perhaps, even greater thanks for adding another brilliant and polished gem to the cairn of Lockhart's illustrious friend and connection, whose fame is beginning again to assert itself against a series of attacks as deficient in artistic sense as they are in generous emotion, and which in due time will all be consigned to the same limbo with Jeffrey's original review of 'Marmion'—worth studying only to see to what absurdities a critic can come who writes from a valley and not from a hill.

PINE FORESTRY.

The Timber Pines of the Southern States. By Charles Mohr, Ph.D. Together with a Discussion of the Structure of their Wood, by Fillibert Roth. Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1896.

The White Pine. With Tables of Volume and Yield. By Gifford Pinchot and H. S. Graves. The Century Company. 1896.

FEW subjects are considered of greater practical importance by thoughtful people than the proper treatment of forests; there are few subjects more neglected. In a half hearted way we delegate to State and national commissions on forestry such powers as we think will not conflict with the prejudices of our voting lumbermen; we encourage frantic newspaper appeals to the wood-pulp manufacturer and to the owners of the lumber railroads; and then, having done our duty, we calmly suffer the work of forest destruction to proceed. We treat the whole matter as if it were some sort of charity, readily transferable to a set of officers, instead of needing constant and earnest consideration at home and at our own doors. In truth, the whole matter presents a very discouraging side. For instance, if a practical lumberman in New Hampshire should be told that leaving the rubbishy tops and large branches of his trees in the woods where his logs are cut increases immensely the terrible risk of his greatest peril, fire, he would tell you truly that he admits what you say, but that he cannot apply foreign rules to his operations. In Europe, the poor would gather gladly the smallest of the twigs for faggots, but here nobody in his senses would take as a gift even the large branches for fuel. The lumberman would rightly say that whoever wants the waste for fuel or for wood-pulp is welcome to it, but that he himself will not use up his narrow margin of profit by removing the hazardous tangle of fallen limbs. Moreover, he will be very likely to add, also, some expression of his views as to making clean work of trees, large and small, instead of cutting only the larger and leaving the smaller to grow and be cut in their turn. He may go even so far as to show that he dares not incur the risk of keeping the smaller trees standing in the midst of his rubbish, for he may lose them by

fire. And when you come to the question of replanting as you go along, as is the custom in some of the forest operations abroad, he shows its impracticability or absurdity under conditions which prevail in our Northeast. Admitting everything you claim, confessing that he is pursuing a destructive policy, he goes right ahead, and leaves behind him a mass of timber and scrub through which, from lightning or huntsman's match, wildfire will run, and this in turn will leave the hillsides to be robbed of soil at all seasons of the year.

Perhaps the lumberman is right; perhaps he cannot afford to aid in protecting his own property and that of his neighbors down in the valleys. If so, the question of keeping our mountains and hill tops covered with forest will have to be taken in hand, not by sagacious lumbermen skilled in forestry, and treating the woodland as a permanent investment, but by the manufacturers on the rivers which come from the strength of the hills. In these days of steam the perils from scanty supply of water are by no means so great as the dangers from sudden freshets. These twin but unequal dangers are now assuming their proper magnitude in the reports of directors of manufacturing companies. All recognize the importance of the matter, and all feel helpless. It is generally recognized that, in order to effect adequate protection, large districts must be held under single management. Hence follows the conclusion that the State should promptly do something, even if it be rather arbitrary and in invasion of private rights. In other parts of the country there is likewise a feeling that our imperilled forests must somehow or other be taken in hand by Government and held for the good of all. Our Government has taken the consideration, but not the forests, in hand.

The Division of Forestry in the Department of Agriculture (like its predecessors under other names) has been for many years engaged in the collection and diffusion of information regarding sound methods of procedure in forest operations, but it has not felt called upon to propose extreme measures. It has rather endeavored to apply established principles of European forestry to our conditions, and in this it has not always commanded a respectful hearing. When, however, it has attempted to describe exhaustively our forests or their constituent parts, it has generally succeeded in a happy manner. This is well illustrated by the admirable monographs by Dr. Mohr and Mr. Roth, published under the auspices of the Division. To Dr. Mohr was intrusted the task of describing the four principal pines of the Southern States, which have economic interest, namely, *Pinus palustris*, Long leaf Pine, *Pinus echinata*, Short-leaf Pine, *Pinus Tæda*, Loblolly Pine, and *Pinus heterophylla*, Cuban Pine. The first two are generally known as Southern or Yellow Pine, the two latter are frequently called Slash Pine. The botanical characters of the species, their rate of growth, and their products are dealt with in a systematic and thorough manner. The structure of the wood has been well worked out, and the results are embodied in the same report. The whole treatise is designed to "enable the owners of the Southern pineries, who are now engaged in exploiting them, so to modify their treatment of the same as to insure continued reproduction instead of complete exhaustion, which is threatened under present methods." It is a scientific and honest attempt to present sound advice on the subject.

If, now, we try to place ourselves in the position of the small owners of timber lots within the limits mentioned in the monographs, we should simply despair of accomplishing anything in a practical way. It would be out of the question to manage our little wood-lots after the methods here suggested; and we should give up discouraged, and with bitter feelings towards the unpractical doctrinaires who had tried to make us work after their theoretical fashion. But, on the other hand, suppose we were in charge of a territory belonging to a syndicate willing to make fair trial of promising methods, we should unhesitatingly welcome the present monographs as of high value in our practical work. And this is just what the chief of the Division of Foresty has here aimed at. He says:

"The owners of timber land and the operators of mills are the only people who can improve these conditions, and this by a more rational treatment of their property. If they can be made to realize now that what they own and hold as a temporary speculation will, in a short time, when supplies have visibly decreased, become a first class investment, and, by its revenues, become a greater source of wealth under competent management with a view to reproduction than that which they have derived from it by the mere robbing of the old timber, they might take steps at least against the unnecessary damage done to it by fire and cattle. Permanency and continuity of ownership appear to be the first conditior to insure such results, and therefore corporations which are not of an ephemeral character and men of large wealth are most desirable forest owners."

It appears as if, under existing conditions, the best way to secure the advantages of forestry, both North and South, is to secure the formation of corporations made up of people interested in the development of forest culture and willing to take small profits on their investments. Such corporations can find intelligent superintendents trained in practical forestry, under whose judicious management forestry, especially at the South, would become safe and reasonably profitable.

Where the question is one of protection against freshets, and not a matter of profit from lumber, it would be perhaps possible for our larger manufacturing establishments on our Eastern rivers to secure large tracts of timber on our more exposed elevated lands, which could be managed solely with the design of preserving the integrity of the watershed. All such problems of tree preservation at the North and East could be safely left to our foresters. But we should not look with confidence to them for any profitable logging. All profits would be solely the indirect ones arising from governing water-supply and water-release. In the South, however, as we have intimated, the case is different. Here we should expect safe albeit small profits in the direct way. The monographs by Dr. Mohr are a valuable contribution looking towards this end.

As indicating the drift of scientific forestry, we commend to the attention of our readers the little book by Mr. Pinchot and Dr. Graves, on the White Pine. It shows how the study of trees differs nowadays from the study of even a quarter of a century ago, and gives substantial ground for the belief that better times are in store. With Prof. Sargent's 'Silva' and its remarkable illustrations by Mr. Faxon, those who are interested in our forest trees possess all requisite appliances for the recognition and comparison of the species. The excellent works referred to in this notice prove that the study of the species from a botanical point of view can be satisfactorily supplemented in all their economic aspects. Hence it is an auspicious time to convert some of the neglect which we deplore into active enterprise in conservative forestry. In our opinion Prof. Fernow of the Division at Washington deserves a great deal of credit for his services in enlisting in the cause of sound forestry the many who are now coöperating with him throughout the country.

Chapters from a Life. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

MRS. WARD begins the story of her life in the high-pitched voice with which all those who have read her much are too painfully familiar, and this note recurs at times throughout the book, especially in the didactic, or rather hortatory, parts. The narrative parts are written more quietly, yet with an excess of animal spirits, and a proneness to that kind of humor which consists in using sesquipedalian words to express simple ideas. Even where no humor is intended, we have such laborious clumsiness of phrase as suggests the local editorial rather than good literature. For example, speaking of Emerson's behavior among the Andover theologians, she says:

"His clear-cut, sarcastic lips sought to assume the well-bred curves of conformity to the environment of entertainers who valued him so highly as to demand a series of his own lectures; but the cynic [cynicism?] of his temperamental revolt from us, or, to be exact, from the thing which he supposed us to be, lurked in every line of his memorable face."

Few of those who knew Emerson much better than Mrs. Ward ever knew him will recognize him in her school-girl picture, which evidently has been a good deal "restored" by her maturer hand.

As Benedick, when he said he would die single, did not think he should live till he was married, so Mrs. Ward, when she fancied that autobiography was of all things most objectionable to her, little imagined that she would live to write her own. She gives no reasons for so radical a change of mind. She is very modest in crediting all her literary ability to her ancestors, but apparently less just. If heredity counts for anything, one would certainly expect ability from the granddaughter of Moses Stuart, but not of Mrs. Ward's particular kind. The face of Moses Stuart contrasts violently with that of her paternal grandfather, whose great distinction was long acquaintance with a haunted house. Mrs. Ward has in her possession his MS. record of this experience, but has solemnly bound herself to defraud the societies for psychical research of their right and title to examine it. Of her father she says little, having dealt with him elsewhere. Her mother had a distinct literary gift, and her 'Sunnyside,' a picture of a New England minister's domestic life, reached a circulation of 100,000 copies before her early death. If we remember rightly, it was written very quietly, but she had a passion for high colors in dress goods, and this seems to have passed over into the daughter's style of writing, which has many passages corresponding to the red broadcloth and the canary yellow in which the mother arrayed her little boy and girl.

"Andover Life and People" is the most delightful chapter in the book. There are airs from Cranford blowing through it—these more in the provincial traits suggested than in the author's habitually restless manner of depicting the amenities and humors of the

frugal academic town. As a mere girl Miss Phelps got $2.50 for a story, but her literary ambition seemed to catch with its success surcease. The war came home to the Andover Academy and Theological School very seriously, and from its emotional quickening came Miss Phelps's real start on her literary career, a war story for *Harper's Magazine*. She is quite confident that, had this story been rejected, or the next, or the next, she would have written no more; but we permit ourselves to entertain a doubt of this. She has good advice for young writers, telling them how little "influence" can do for them; that the editors and publishers are much more anxious to get really good things than the young authors are to sell their wares. But they do not always know a good thing when they see it. The catalogue is long of admirable things which have been rejected by distinguished editors and publishers. A big story is told of her substantially rewriting a child's book of 350 pp. that came back to her, between suppertime and the next morning, but in general Mrs. Ward professes to have been a very careful writer, surprising us with the fact that her 'Gates Ajar,' which yields such an impression of spontaneity, was some years in the making, and hung fire in the publisher's office for two more. This book was her great success, so far as wide popular admiration is concerned. It was a strong emotional cry for immortality, contending that the cry was the sufficient evidence of the thing so much desired. It was much translated, much answered, much supplemented, travestied, economized. There were "Gates Ajar" tippets, collars, funeral-pieces, songs, cigars, and patent medicines. A Westerner in Boston inquired furtively of a bartender if there was a new drink called "Gates Ajar." One must remember the average quality of the preaching of a future life in the early sixties in order to appreciate the appeal which the book made to persons of emotional temperament and hungry heart.

Mrs. Ward's reminiscences of Mrs. Stowe, James T. Fields, Celia Thaxter, Whittier, Lucy Larcom, Phillips Brooks, and others are not elaborate, but they are interesting contributions to a fund which cannot be too large. "Andover was a heavy, masculine place," and for this reason Mrs. Stowe was regarded with suspicion, rumors of certain Episcopalian leanings coöperating with her undeniable sex. 'The Minister's Wooing' was written there, the outcome of a bitter personal experience. There are pleasing stories of Mr. Fields's kindness to unfortunate authors and lecture agents. One of Miss Phelps's best titles, 'Men, Women, and Ghosts,' was of his devising. Longfellow she had the honor of introducing in his old age to the reef of Norman's Woe on which he had wrecked the *Hesperus* in his youth. We find Whittier half repenting his scorching "Ichabod," but his impulses were always wiser than his calculations. One of the best stories brackets him and Lucy Larcom in the happiest manner. They were driving together, the hill was steep, the horse lively and threatening to break. Miss Larcom's subject was presumably the life to come. "Lucy," cried the poet, "if thee doesn't stop talking till I get this horse in hand, thee will be in heaven before thee wants to."

A chapter on Mrs. Ward's life at Gloucester is braided of many colors, light and dark; the darkest the misery entailed by the drinking habit on the fishermen and their families, out of which came her terrible story of 'Jack the Fisherman,' and more recently 'A Singular Life,' which has so deeply stirred a multitude of the most earnest people. Another cloud upon the Gloucester life was sickness with insomnia, and Mrs. Ward is passionate in her advice against the use of anodynes to conjure sleep. Upon the other side of the account was her happy marriage with Mr. Ward. Something of the personal equation lurks in her estimate of the books they wrote together, 'The Master of the Magicians' and 'Come Forth.' Of her short stories she tells us that her favorites are 'The Madonna of the Tubs,' 'Jack the Fisherman,' 'The Supply at Saint Agatha's,' and 'The Bell of Saint Basil's.' She argues earnestly for "art for truth's sake" as a wiser motto than "art for art's sake." "In a word," she says, "the province of the artist is to portray life as it is; and life *is* moral reponsibility." If her own art has suffered from her moral insistence, the fault is one than which there is no greener leaf among the laurels she has fairly won.

Lectures on Justice, Police, Revenue, and Arms delivered in the University of Glasgow by Adam Smith, reported by a student in 1763, and edited, with introduction and notes, by Edwin Cannan. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896. xxxix, 293 pp.

A MOOT question in the history of economic thought has long been the degree of originality possessed by its great classic, Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations.' Opinion has varied from Dupont de Nemours's dictum, "Everything that is true in this respectable but tedious work in two fat quarto volumes is to be found in Turgot's 'Reflections on the Formation and Distribution of Riches'; everything added by Adam Smith is inaccurate, not to say incorrect"—to McCulloch's familiar estimate, "The 'Wealth of Nations' was the first work in which the science was treated to its fullest extent," and "gives Adam Smith an undoubted claim to be regarded as the founder of the modern system of political economy." French writers have in general inclined to the first opinion; English economists have as naturally pinned their faith to the second.

The facts of the case are these: Adam Smith occupied the chair of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow from 1752 to 1764. In this capacity he delivered regular courses of lectures on jurisprudence and politics, some part of which had indeed been given at Edinburgh as early as 1750. The concluding paragraph of 'The Theory of Moral Sentiments,' published in 1759, explicitly promised a comprehensive treatise by the same author upon the general principles of law and government. Smith resigned his professorship in 1764 to accept a travelling tutorship to the young Duke of Buccleugh, and began the actual composition of the 'Wealth of Nations' in the same year. The greater part of 1766 was spent in Paris, in intimate association with the brilliant coterie of French economists of which Quesnay was the recognized leader, and of which Turgot, Dupont de Nemours, Mercier de la Rivière and Mirabeau were distinguished disciples. Smith returned to England in the latter part of 1766, and remained in retirement, steadily engaged upon the 'Wealth of Nations,' until its publication in March, 1776.

The issue is then clear. Is the 'Wealth of Nations' in the main an independent development of Smith's earlier thought as represented in the Glasgow lectures, or does it merely reflect in its essential doctrines the general influence of the physiocratic writers? The method of verification which naturally suggests itself—comparison of the treatise with the lecture-notes—is made impossible by Smith's zealous care to destroy all his manuscripts before his death. In lieu thereof, biographers and critics have had to content themselves with John Millar's brief outline of the lectures, obtained and inserted by Dugald Stewart in his memoir of Adam Smith, and containing the explicit statement that "what he [*i. e.*, Smith] delivered on these subjects contained the substance of the work he afterwards published under the title of 'An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations.'" This testimony of a person who actually heard the lectures has been supplemented by Mr. John Rae, in his recent admirable 'Life of Adam Smith,' with certain other details pointing in the same direction. Yet, as Mr. Cannan remarks, myths of this kind die hard, and under ordinary circumstances we must have been prepared for periodic repetition of Dupont de Nemours's assertion of a large physiocratic indebtedness.

The matter has now been definitively settled by a remarkable literary find. This consists in the accidental discovery of Adam Smith's Glasgow lectures on "Justice, Police, Revenue, and Arms," as reported by a student in 1763. Mr. Edwin Cannan, well known by his acute study of the doctrines of the English classical economists, has edited the MS. for the Clarendon Press, with a concise account of the history and value of the Report, a striking table of parallel passages in the Lectures and in the 'Wealth of Nations,' and with scholarly explanatory and historical notes.

The Report, while lacking, of course, the absolute certainty of Adam Smith's original lecture-notes, bears such incontestable evidence of authenticity and accuracy as to satisfy every ordinary doubt with respect to the questions heretofore in debate. Three categoric statements are warranted by an examination of the Report, and to these the economic world will doubtless give prompt assent: (1.) Adam Smith's Glasgow lectures contained not only the general principles but also the detailed expositions of the 'Wealth of Nations,' so that those whom Mr. Cannan calls "enthusiasts of plagiarism" must henceforth endeavor to convict Turgot instead of Smith of unacknowledged indebtedness. (2.) The idea of the necessity of a theory of distribution in an economic treatise was derived by Adam Smith from the French economists; but, instead of adopting the intricate physiocratic theory, Smith simply "tacked his own scheme (very different from theirs) on to his already existing theory of prices." (3.) Smith's projected work on jurisprudence, often referred to but never completed, dealt with the subjects included in Part I. ("Of Justice"), and possibly in Part V. ("Of the Law of Nations") of the Report, and constituted the third part of the lecture course on moral philosophy, as described by Millar; Parts II., III., and IV. ("Of Police, Revenue, and Arms") of the Report contain a well-rounded draft of the 'Wealth of Nations,' and correspond to the fourth part of Millar's outline.

This fortunately recovered memorial of Adam Smith's academic activity is thus not only of unique literary interest, but of vital importance to the historian of economic thought. It is here reproduced in worthy garb, and under editorial supervision that leaves nothing to be desired.

Modern Political Orations. Edited by Leopold Wagner. Henry Holt & Co. 1896. Pp. xv, 344.

THIS volume is, in the preface, declared to be a "modest attempt to collect some of the most notable examples of the political oratory of the present reign [of Victoria]." We are given twenty-four speeches by as many orators. The book is interesting and instructive, but in a certain sense wanting in balance. Some of the best speakers of the period named are omitted—we have neither Sir Robert Peel nor Lord Palmerston, Lord Stanley ("the Rupert of debate") nor Dr. Magee. A desire to forward the cause of home rule is perhaps the motive of the work Not only are seven of the speeches more or less concerned with that subject, but we have an appendix dealing with the *Times* on "Parnellism and Crime" and with the Pigott forgeries.

It is interesting to remark that most of the subjects treated of in the speeches have dropped out of sight or been finally laid at rest. The Don Pacifico case no longer troubles us. Fears regarding negro emancipation, the admission of Jews to Parliament, the extension of the franchise, the Disestablishment of the Irish Church, the adoption of the ballot, no longer disturb British statesmen. The Irish question remains unsettled. Much of O'Connell's speech at Tara, delivered fifty-three years ago, might have been taken *en bloc* from an Irish newspaper of the present day. We are struck by the absence in the speeches before us of wide generalization and of lofty, all-embracing thought. They are essentially businesslike and to the point, but wanting in fire. Bright and Bradlaugh perhaps reach the highest levels in this respect. We find much to illustrate doctrines concerning the vanity of human wishes, much to cause the cynic to smile—O'Connell in 1843 all but promising Repeal within a year, Lord Ellenborough in 1863 encouraging the Poles to persevere in insurrection, Joseph Cowen posing as a "life-long radical," Mr. Chamberlain still, so lately as 1885, expatiating on the necessity laid upon England "to conciliate the national sentiment of Ireland." Bulwer-Lytton on the Crimean War, Lord Beaconsfield on the Berlin Congress, Gladstone on the Beaconsfield Ministry are, in the light of present events, painful or suggestive reading. A speech by Cobden on free trade is opportune even fifty-four years after delivery. We must, if not regarding Great Britain, at least regarding the rest of the world, add the free-trade question to that of the Irish as still, after the lapse of half a century, unsettled. We trust Mr. Wagner's volume is not a clumsy effort by the Cobden Club to disseminate its opinions!

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Round Table of the Representative American Catholic Novelists. Benziger Bros. $1.50.
Boutmy, Émile. Le Parthénon et le Génie Grec. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
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Duryea, Anna S. P. Sir Knight of the Golden Pathway. Putnams. $1.25.
Edwards, H. S. Sons and Fathers. Rand, McNally & Co.
Fletcher, J. S. Mistress Spitfire. London: J. M. Dent & Co; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Gréard, Valléry C. O. Meissonier: His Life and His Art. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Hobbs, C. A. The Elements of Plane Geometry. A. Lovell & Co. 75c.
Jex-Blake, K. The Elder Pliny's Chapters on the History of Art. Macmillan. $3.50.
Keller, Prof. I. First Year in German. American Book Co. $1.
Lee, G. S. The Shadow Christ: An Introduction to Christ Himself. Century Co. $1.25.
Malcolm, Louis. Impressions d'Egypte. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Ollivier, Émile. Marie-Madeleine: Récit de Jeunesse. Paris: Garnier Frères; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Peck, Prof. H. T. Harper's Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities. Harpers.
Querdec, Yves le. Letters of a Country Vicar. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Reed, Edwin. Bacon vs. Shakspere. Brief for the Plaintiff. 7th ed. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $2.50.
Richards, Mrs. Laura E. "Some Say." Neighbours in Cyrus. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 50c.
Stuart, Mrs. Ruth McE. Sonny. Century Co. $1.

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CONCLUSION OF THE TWELFTH VOLUME AND SIXTH YEAR.

DECEMBER

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—The University of Virginia, by William Baird; Attempted Improvements in the Course of Study, by Paul H. Hanus; Some Characteristics of Prussian Schools, by Edward J. Goodwin; The National Educational Association, by Aaron Gove; Should Preparatory and non-Preparatory Pupils Receive Identical Treatment in the High School? by W. R. Butler; History of English Grammar Teaching, by F. A. Barbour.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 10, 1896.

The Week.

ONE passage in the President's message practically extinguishes what little hope there was of tariff legislation this winter. It is the part in which he asserts, with truth, that the Wilson bill has not yet had a chance to show what it can do in the way of producing revenue, and intimates that he proposes to give it a chance. This is tantamount to a warning that he would veto the Dingley bill or any other patchwork tariff measure. At any rate, it will doubtless be so interpreted by the Republicans who do not want to fool with the tariff at all. There would not be much fun in racking all the party joints to pass a bill, only to see it vetoed. To do it just to put Mr. Cleveland "in a hole" is no longer a sufficient motive. He is nearly out of his last hole, and the turn of the Republicans to fall into the ones they have themselves dug is coming on apace. Speaker Reed perceives the President's drift, and knows that it means no tariff or revenue legislation this winter. The President's policy is very tame, but it is announced by a man who has full power to carry it out up to March 4. It is, in a word, Leave off extravagant appropriations, give the business world a rest from tariff agitation, and let the Wilson bill have a chance.

The Indianapolis movement presents the most hopeful solution of the problems brought up by the President's message; not that any specific solution has been evolved or even outlined as yet, but because it stirs the commercial classes to their duty. They have been heretofore torpid while less intelligent groups of the community have been stirring. We have had conventions of silver men and of workingmen, we have had Ocala platforms and Omaha platforms, we have had Debs and Bryan and A. J. Warner and "Coin" Harvey in the lecture field long before the Chicago convention met, but we have had no counteracting force from the real business interests of the nation. The latter have depended on the press to speak for them and do their fighting. Now, however, they seem moved to speak for themselves. It is time to do so. We agree with Congressman Walker; we are of the opinion that if another national contest takes place with this question unsettled, the Republican party will have to face the gravest danger in its history, the danger of disintegration. Therefore we adjure them and all others who coöperated with them in the recent election to help make the Indianapolis convention a success in point of numbers and intelligence, not only for its effect upon Congress, but still more for its effect upon those who make and unmake Congresses.

Speaker Reed repeats at Washington what he said in his speech at Duluth—that it is the duty of Congress in this session to provide more revenue for the Government by tariff legislation. This may cause the Dingley bill to lift up its drooping head for a time, though we still believe the influences which openly or secretly are against that measure will be too much for it. Chief among them, of course, is the lack of time in a crowded short session. We should be glad to hear Mr. Reed's voice on the subject of keeping down expenditures as well as of increasing the revenue. All politicians that we ever heard of are in favor of more revenue—the greater it is, the greater the spendings; the greater the spendings, the fatter their pickings. Chairman Cannon of the appropriations committee is out for severe economy; he is going to use the knife relentlessly. But so he was a year ago, with the result only of seeing himself ridden down again and again by the raiders and log-rollers, and the total outlay voted rising $52,000,000 above the Government estimates. The truth is, that centralized and responsible financial control is rapidly breaking down and disappearing in Congress. Yet no Speaker or party leader mentions this, or refers to the need of retrenchment except in a general and perfunctory way; all the talk is of getting more money, whether to spend wisely or to waste recklessly is nowhere said.

We presume that our protectionist friends will draw their usual moral from the November Treasury returns. During that month the Government's revenue fell $7,050,024 short of the expenditure, contrasting with a deficit of only $1,212,780 in November, 1895. What better proof could anybody ask of the immediate necessity for new tariff legislation, framed, of course, "with due regard for the protection of American industry"? But, as it happens, there are other striking comparisons than this in the November figures. The decrease in receipts, as compared with 1895, was wholly occasioned, it is true, by diminished customs revenue. The cause for this shrinkage in customs dues, however, is pretty plain in the minds of people who have watched this season's slackening import movement. The November importations were not increased in any enormous quantity over the record of October; even the execution of orders left conditional on results of the election has not yet restored our foreign import trade to normal volume. Had the November imports this year been as large as they were in 1895, the Treasury's revenue for the month would have exceeded last year's by nearly $800,000. It will probably surprise some people to learn that, whatever current deficits may be, the November Government receipts this year were above the average of the last six years—a period covering both the McKinley and the Wilson tariffs.

But a glance at the record of expenditure tells a very different story. In November, 1891, the Government's total disbursements under appropriation bills were $26,156,000; last month they had advanced to $33,260,720—in other words, there has been a pretty steady increase in expenditures, even during the period of hard times. In the face of such comparisons as this, the talk of curing all the evils of our situation by an increased revenue is simple rubbish. If our current Government expenses were as light as they were ten years ago, the Treasury would be paying its way, and leaving a surplus over, even with the temporarily decreased customs revenue. Suppose the revenue were to be suddenly and heavily increased; does any one suppose that the log-rollers of Congress would rest idle? Despatches from Washington last week represented the committee on appropriations as getting already into consultation to discuss how they can possibly mete out justice to the horde of applicants for special Government expenditure. And who can be sure that revenue will be adjusted cleverly to meet such new demands?

A sudden shyness has fallen upon Mr. Platt in regard to the senatorship, due primarily to the appearance of Mr. Choate as an alternative candidate. He is not quite sure now whether he will consent to be a candidate, and he has had the valuable information made public through his State committee, that he has not authorized anybody to say that he would accept the place if it were offered to him. It is also announced that the great banquet at Albany, which enthusiastic Platt men have been arranging for him when he shall be elected Senator, is really not a Platt banquet, but a Senatorial banquet, and that the man who is chosen Senator will be the guest of honor, no matter who he is. All the Platt men wink at one another when they say this, and the committee of arrangements go on "flooring over" the hall as if nothing had happened to disturb the prospect. The possibility that they may be arranging a feast in honor of Mr. Choate does not seem to them to be alarming. They know the "old man" too well to have any doubts about his intentions and his methods. What he is seeking to avoid now is too sharp an examination into his record and qualifications, and, if possible, all publication of his political operations either in

the somewhat remote or the recent past. A quiet entry upon the scene as United States Senator is what he, like the truly modest man he is, desires above all things. Invidious comparisons and impertinent discussion of qualifications give him such pain that he would almost rather forego public office than submit to them.

The Baltimore *News* advocates the election of the Senators by the people as a remedy for Platt, but we must point out that, though it might be an improvement in some ways, it would not rid us of Platt. Platt's art lies in "getting the delegates" to the nominating conventions, and the conventions would still nominate men of the Platt, Hill, and Murphy sort, unless there were some change in the moral judgment of the electors. We cannot get rid of Plattism by any legal or constitutional process. Nothing will rid us of it but an improvement in the standards of voters and an increase of State pride. Platt committed, or caused to be committed, enormous frauds in "getting the delegates" last year. These frauds were exposed by a committee of twenty-five of the best class of Republicans, who pronounced his convention "rotten." But he "got the delegates" just the same. It was "the Presidential year," and one has to wink a little at crimes in the Presidential year.

It will occasion no surprise to learn from the interviews and talks with the members and leaders of the Hill machine in various parts of this State that most of them have no definite ideas about the future. They are determined to stand by free silver and the Chicago platform till they receive "orders" to abandon that policy. Like their boss, Senator Hill, they are "waiting for something to turn up, and in the meantime are keeping very quiet." That he or they should have any convictions or principles, or any other conception of party policy than to get possession of the offices at whatever cost, could not be expected by anybody who has followed their course during the past ten years. The National Democrats, who are talking about forming an organization for future work, will make a great mistake if they count at all upon any coöperation from or any change for the better in the old Hill machine. It was suggested at their meeting in this city a few evenings ago that many of the members of that machine did not seriously believe in the principles of the Chicago platform, and would be glad to get away from them into an organization which stood for better things. This view is a delusion. They are a hopeless lot, and until the National Democrats adopt this view of them and act upon it, they will make no progress towards the restoration of their party in New York to public confidence. Mr. Wheeler H. Peckham remarked, the other evening, that "there is not a great deal for a political party to do now, but there is a lot for one to oppose"; and that is the best line for the anti-Hill Democrats to work on.

Senator Peffer is naturally both puzzled and pained at the efforts to defeat his reelection by the Populist Legislature of Kansas. He has sent out a circular letter to all the members whom he regards as his "logical supporters," in which he sets forth the arguments for his reëlection with a lucidity and force which we do not see how any supporter with a grain of logic in him can withstand. He takes his stand, to begin with, on the impregnable position that "a Senator, just like a man in any other calling, must learn his business, and that takes time." Peffer has been "studious and diligent," and has learned the business. Why turn him off just as he is ready to "attain the highest standard of usefulness"? Nor will his modesty prevent him from pointing out his solid achievements even while learning the business. Just look at this condensed but eloquent account of his efforts, as compiled from the *Congressional Record:*

Whole number petitions presented	306
Bills and joint resolutions introduced	202
Reports submitted	87
Senate and concurrent motions and resolutions	62
Amendments proposed	94
Speeches, long and short	437

There is, from the Kansas point of view, a certain logical weakness in Senator Peffer's position. He has not lived up to the prophecies made on his behalf six years ago. Then there was no talk about his requiring time to learn the Senatorial business. He was prepared at once to make the money power quake. Laws to enable every borrower in Kansas to get money out of the sub-treasury at 2 per cent., and no questions asked about security, were to be written by him in the statute-books without delay. Thus he is in the unlucky situation of having deferred a promised millennium. If it had to go six years overdue, who knows but it may still be delayed another of Peffer's terms? On the other hand, any one of his rivals before the Legislature would, we have no manner of doubt, engage to begin the chaining of the devil the very day after taking his seat. If Peffer is beaten, it will be due to the overpowering desire of Kansas to get her millennium red-hot.

In both the Georgia and the Alabama Legislatures, bills have been introduced forbidding gold contracts. The Alabama proposition was that "it shall be unlawful to make any note, bond, bill of exchange, mortgage, or any other contract or agreement of any description, payable specifically in either gold, silver, or any other particular money, other than the general legal-tender money of the United States"; and that all contracts or agreements of any description hereafter made in violation of this prohibition shall be absolutely void. In each State it has been necessary to make opposition to this scheme, intelligent people recognizing that there was danger of its endorsement if it should be voted on without discussion. The Montgomery *Advertiser*, for example, has felt constrained to argue the matter seriously, and to show why, if such a bill were to become a law, "men with means would flee from the State as a family would flee from smallpox or yellow fever." The Georgia bill was defeated in the Senate on Thursday, and the Alabama proposition promptly met the same fate.

Happily for the sound-money men in Alabama, the effect of the proposed policy was clearly illustrated while the measure was pending in the Legislature. Negotiations for the purchase of the Montgomery, Tuscaloosa and Memphis Railroad by the Mobile and Ohio have been under way for some time, and were on the point of conclusion when the bill prohibiting gold contracts was introduced. Proceedings were suspended until action should be taken on the measure, for the reason that, to secure this property, the Mobile and Ohio Company would have to endorse the bonds of the Montgomery Company, which specify in what kind of legal-tender money of the United States they are payable, while it was proposed by the Populists that the State should declare such a contract illegal. The Mobile *Register* estimated that the consummation of this purchase would result in the permanent investment of some $7,000,000 of outside capital in the State, which would give employment to many people and create values to be the subject of State taxation. The really surprising thing about such schemes as these is that the Alabama bill should have been supported by as many as nine out of twenty-nine Senators, and that in Georgia the division was so close as twenty-one for sustaining the adverse report of the judiciary committee and sixteen against.

Gov. Morton has an opportunity to do this city a service of incalculable value in selecting a successor to Col. Fellows. The District Attorney's office is the key to the machinery of justice in New York. It has been used as often to protect criminals as to prosecute them, provided there were political reasons for so doing. An honest, able, fearless man at the head of it, who used it in the interest, not of Democratic justice, or Republican justice, or Tammany justice, or liquor justice, but of plain, simple justice, could accomplish even in a single year veritable wonders for the cause of good government in the city. Such a District Attorney during the next few months would help us enormously in keeping the city from falling back into Tammany clutches next year, for he would be the most powerful ally possible for all the forces which make for good government,

and which have so often had their efforts blocked and defeated by the passive or active opposition encountered in the District Attorney's office. Gov. Morton can break up all the combinations, some of them of many years' standing, which have been responsible for these defeats, by appointing a man who is not a political "dealer," but is simply honest and capable. It is all the more important that he should do this because it is so evident now that we have nothing to hope for in this direction from the new Governor, who is apparently willing to allow Platt to dictate all his acts. A Platt man in the District Attorney's office would be merely a Tammany man under another name. The old alliance between the two machines, which was disclosed when Col. Fellows made Lauterbach's son one of his assistants, would be continued, and the old methods of administering justice would be continued, with the difference only of a diversion of most of the patronage and other perquisites to the Platt machine.

The *Sun* thinks that "the appointing authorities as a rule would endeavor in good faith to do their duty under the civil-service clauses of the Constitution" if the work of examining candidates were turned over to them, as is proposed. The answer to this is that the plan is not new, that the system of examination by the appointing officer has been tried at Washington and failed miserably, and that the whole system of competitive examinations was originally devised in order to protect the public offices against the weakness or dishonesty of appointing officers. In fact, it is this weakness and dishonesty of appointing officers which caused the agitation for civil-service reform and led to its success. The system of examinations was instituted because it was found, after fifty years' experience, that appointing officers seldom or never appointed for fitness, or through a regard for the public service. They appointed for political reasons, either to oblige an "influence" or to reward for political services. If they had ever done what the *Sun* says they would do now, no constitutional amendment providing for examinations would have been necessary, nor would legal examinations have been necessary at all. The officers would have held them on their own account. Their unwillingness to do anything of the sort constituted what is called the "spoils system"—that is, the system under which offices were treated as booty won at the polls.

It is not surprising that Michael Kelly, representing District Assembly 49 of the Knights of Labor, should the other day have sent a petition to the Commissioners of Grand Jurors, setting forth that "it is well understood and clearly contemplated that the grand jury should be a representative body," and that if it is not "it lacks the requirements and expectations of the body politic," and that the panel of the grand jurors, as formed for many years past, "is not of the representative character within the meaning of the law of that term." The law is simply that persons selected for the grand-jury panel shall be "intelligent citizens of good character," and possessed of the qualifications required of petty jurors. A petty juror has to be twenty-one years of age, a citizen of the United States, a resident of the county, the owner of $250 worth of property, in possession of his faculties, neither infirm nor decrepit, intelligent, of good character, and able to read and write. That is all; so who it is who "well understood and clearly comtemplated" that it must be a representative body, "within the meaning of the law of that term," unless it be Michael Kelly himself, we cannot guess. Nor can we imagine anybody but Kelly himself being "the body politic" whose "requirements and expectations" the present panel "lacks." He wants it to be of a "broadly representative character," and to contain "a due proportion of mechanics, artisans, laborers, and clerks and small store-keepers." Were it legally a representative body, Kelly would be within his right, but the duties of the grand jury are distinctly executive and judicial. They have to shield people from vexatious and improper persecution, and to present criminals and nuisances and malfeasance in office. To discharge such duties requires a considerable degree of intelligence and education and acquaintance with business, and if the Commissioners were to select people for the grand jury for any other reasons, they would be false to their oaths and inflict a great wrong on the community.

We comment on this case because it furnishes an excellent illustration of the shape in which false ideas about government, originated and nursed by the more intelligent classes, work down among the more ignorant; the discontent they spread, and the revolutionary hopes which they nourish when men like the Knights of Labor get hold of them. The conversion of executive into representative officers began among politicians for their own purposes—that is, in order to make places, from the cabinet down, created for the public interest, rewards of electioneering work, so that at last we have the most ignorant classes of the population claiming judicial functions as "representatives." The silver craze followed nearly the same course. It was started by wily men of the upper order of intelligence, in order to help the sale of their commodities, and in ten or fifteen years became a new religion, which was to secure the happiness of mankind by universal poverty and humbug.

Mr. Arthur Balfour is rapidly getting rid of the financial authority which our bimetallists used to ascribe to him (no one ever knew why) as a "brainy man." The odd position he holds as the bimetallic First Lord of the Treasury in a monometallic government has long excited jeering remark. But he every now and then makes speeches which render his position all the odder. At Sheffield in England the other day, he apparently tried to discredit English free trade by calling attention to the fact that no other nation except Turkey had adopted it, which was rather an astonishing remark for the author of the 'Foundations of Belief,' let alone a Lord of the Treasury, to make. The logical way to criticise free trade is to ask, Has England prospered under it? If she has, the failure of other nations to adopt it simply tends to prove that other nations are foolish. As an argument it resembles the failure of a number of drunkards to imitate a man who had taken the pledge. "You see," they might say, "nobody but you has done it. What do you think of your temperance now?" That Mr. Balfour had but slight comprehension of his subject soon appeared when he calmly went to work to show that you cannot export without importing, that all imports are paid for, not in money, but in exports; which is the free-traders' capital argument, the very foundation of their system. So that if Mr. Balfour was right, the nations which had not followed England's example had failed to understand the essential facts of the case. Things like these make the Tory need of Mr. Chamberlain more and more manifest. He never attacks things he does not understand. He simply propounds a grand plan. He develops the colonies, or crushes the Irish, or pensions the old. If people do not like his proposal, they need not adopt it.

The judgment against Great Britain in the Egyptian Court of Appeals, by which she is compelled to refund the cost of the Sudan campaign to the Egyptian treasury, has all the air of being "a put-up job," though, of course, such a thing is not to be suspected. It really makes idle the French opposition to the continuance of the British occupation, for it allows England, at her own expense, to extend her frontier and to deliver Egypt from the most serious of all her difficulties, the presence of the Dervishes on her borders, where they constituted a standing menace to her government. England may, in fact, now be said to hold Egypt by purchase, and the French rejoicings over the judgment become somewhat ludicrous. This is the one success of Lord Salisbury's foreign policy, and it will be very useful in covering up his Turkish failure. He has, by the by, repudiated as "superstitious" the opposition to Russia, which he encouraged in 1877 under Disraeli; and this with much cheerfulness, as if he had not served under that amusing adventurer in the Berlin Conference.

THE MESSAGE.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S message, after a few introductory sentences, begins with a reference to the Armenian massacres and the attitude of our Government with reference to them. He says that no Americans have been killed or wounded in these disturbances, although often in the midst of dangers. Claims have been made on the Turkish Government for missionary property pillaged or destroyed at Harput and Marash during uprisings at those places, and they will be insisted upon, although the Turkish Government does not acknowledge responsibility. The President deprecates the demand for impossible things on the part of those who sympathize with the Armenians, believing that any step taken by us in the way of intervention in the domestic concerns of Turkey not only would be ineffectual, but would increase the fury and fanaticism of the Turks and offend those European nations which have the exclusive right to interfere.

The war in Cuba fills a considerable space in the message, as was expected. The President says that there has not been much change in the situation since his last message on the subject. The Spanish authorities occupy Havana and all the large towns, while the insurgents hold two-thirds of the rural districts. The former have not succeeded in suppressing the rebellion, but, on the other hand, the rebels "have not made good their title to be regarded as an independent state." A government exists in the towns, but anarchy exists everywhere else. In fact, "the putative Cuban Government has now given up all attempt to exercise its functions, leaving that Government confessedly (what there is the best reason for supposing it always to have been in fact) a government merely on paper."

This is a very important statement as affecting the matter of belligerent rights, and it seems to settle the question so far as this Government is concerned, for if there is no rebel Government, but only roving bands, there is nothing to recognize and nobody to communicate with. Meanwhile the country itself is going to ruin. Both sides are destroying property lest it fall into the hands of the other, and the outlook is most gloomy. Natives of Cuba residing in the United States are doing all in their power to bring about intervention by the United States, and many of our own citizens, excited by the spectacle of people striving after better and freer government, are urging steps which would lead to such a policy even at the cost of a war with Spain, which they think would not amount to much anyway. Upon this point the President's remarks are most admirable. He says that whether a war with Spain would be long or short, easy or difficult, the United States has its own character to maintain and its own duties to perform in the family of nations. Although peace is not a necessity to us, it is always a desideratum. Our own territory is sufficient to satisfy all of our longings, to preclude all thought of conquest, and to stifle all desire for seizing what belongs to others. Our uniform policy in former insurrections has been that of non-intervention, and, so far as can be now seen, it should so continue. At the same time he suggests that by the autonomy of Cuba, voluntarily granted by Spain, and consistent with her sovereignty, the pacification of the island might still be effected. Such a course, he thinks, would stop the conflict and save some measure of prosperity for the island.

After giving his reasons for thinking that peace might be restored in this w y, the President comes to the most weighty and interesting part of his reference to Cuban affairs, which is this:

"It was intimated by this Government to the Government of Spain some months ago that if a satisfactory measure of home rule were tendered the Cuban insurgents, and would be accepted by them upon a guarantee of its execution, the United States would endeavor to find a way not objectionable to Spain of furnishing such guarantee. While no definite response to this intimation has yet been received from the Spanish Government, it is believed to be not altogether unwelcome, while, as already suggested, no reason is perceived why it should not be approved by the insurgents. Neither party can fail to see the importance of early action, and both must realize that to prolong the present state of things for even a short period will add enormously to the time and labor and expenditure necessary to bring about the industrial recuperation of the island. It is therefore fervently hoped on all grounds that earnest efforts for healing the breach between Spain and the insurgent Cubans, upon the lines above indicated, may be at once inaugurated and pushed to an immediate and successful issue. The friendly offices of the United States, either in the manner above outlined or in any other way consistent with our Constitution and laws, will always be at the disposal of either party."

At the same time the President says that we can neither allow interference with or the control of Cuba by any other Power, nor can we wait for ever for Spain to reëstablish her own control. Without attempting to pass judgment upon future events, he thinks that a time may come when we can no longer remain mere spectators of a scene of desolation; but "until we face the contingencies suggested, or the situation is by other incidents imperatively changed, we should continue in the line of conduct heretofore pursued, thus in all circumstances exhibiting our obedience to the requirements of public law, and our regard for the duty enjoined upon us by the position we occupy in the family of nations."

It is most gratifying to find the Venezuelan boundary question dispatched in a paragraph of ten lines, which tells us that all differences between this country and Great Britain on that subject have vanished, and that the assent of Venezuela to the arbitration agreed upon between the two countries may be confidently anticipated. Still more gratifying is the assurance which the message conveys on the wider subject of general arbitration with Great Britain. Negotiations for such a treaty, it says, "are far advanced, and promise to reach a successful consummation at an early date."

The President's recommendations touching financial reform embrace nothing new, nothing which he has not presented to Congress with equal force in former communications, special and general, yet they will receive more respectful attention now than they did one year ago. The change of attitude on the part of the Republicans is due, of course, to the fact that Mr. Cleveland is the head of the sound-money Democrats, without whose coöperation in the recent campaign Mr. McKinley could not have been elected. What he says, therefore, on any subject will receive very respectful consideration from them, and especially on the subject which constituted the chief issue of the campaign. They may not adopt any specific legislation at the present session, but the minds of members will be open to suggestions coming from that quarter, and this receptiveness will extend to their constituents also. This is at least an important aid to future action.

The President refers first to the greenback as an incident of the war period to be classed among other evils of a temporary kind, such as the wounds of soldiers and the bereavement of families—evils which wisdom will tolerate no longer than necessary. The wounds have been healed so far as possible, the bereavement has been soothed as much as possible, but the greenback remains "a disturbing menace to business security and an ever-present agent of monetary distress." Then he adds: "Because we are enjoying a temporary relief from its depressing influence, this should not lull us into a false security, nor lead us to forget the suddenness of past visitations." These past visitations are so recent that it is hardly necessary to recount them. There have been four different occasions in three years when an issue of bonds was absolutely necessary to save the Government from bankruptcy. The last one was when the President sent the Venezuelan message to Congress. What happened then is sufficient warning of what might happen at any time if any serious foreign complication should arise. We should not like to underwrite the Treasury, for example, in the event of a war with Spain, for although that might not be much of a war in itself, it would begin, as all wars do, by the hoarding of gold by those who have the means and the power to command gold. Such persons always "take time by the forelock," and put themselves in a condition for every emergency. Foreign complications are likely to rise at any time. They generally come when they are not expected, as the Chilian complication came in Harrison's time and the Venezuelan one last year. And let not the grim spectre of Bryanism be forgotten.

Mr. Cleveland's recommendations are the same that he has advanced before. They include the retirement of the greenbacks and such changes of the national

banking-law as will give us an elastic as well as a safe currency. These suggestions may be called stereotyped. They are certainly familiar, but they have become so by their ever-pressing and increasing necessity. As the chairman of the Indianapolis conference said the other day: "The time has now arrived when the Government must either discontinue the banking business or go into it on a broader, better defined, and more comprehensive scale." There is no way to pursue the latter course except by making the Treasury a bank of discount as well as a bank of issue; and when it becomes a bank of discount, it will end with the sub-treasury system of the Populists and general chaos.

ACCOUNTABILITY.

As has been recognized by all thoughtful men both here and in England, one of the great scandals and shames of our democracies is the large sums of money spent in various forms of corruption at elections. Successful efforts have been made in England to put a check on it by specifying the amounts which may be lawfully spent, and the ways in which they may be spent, and compelling the candidates and their committees to declare how much they have spent and on what. There are a few States in the Union which have begun to copy this legislation, including New York, but we have copied it only very partially. We in this State oblige every candidate to say how much he has spent on his election, but he gets rid of all trouble in the matter by saying how much he has given to the committee, and from the committee we get no account whatever. When a judge, for instance, purchases his nomination from the committee for $10,000, say, the committee never tells what it does with the money.

On the political evils of this we do not propose to comment to-day. They are patent enough. The thing to which we wish to call attention is the very demoralizing effect on the whole community, and especially on the young men, of this public practice of handling large sums of money belonging to other people without rendering any account. This has in "politics" been carried to an astounding extent. The sum Mr. Hanna and his committee have passed through their hands in the last election is said to amount to millions; no one outside the committee knows how much it was, or what was done with it. In this State the two bosses Croker and Platt have collected hundreds of thousands of dollars during the last ten years, and no one knows what became of it. But the necessity of accounting to some one for all money given to you by other people except as a gift to yourself personally, lies at the very foundation of social morality. Ever since the establishment of the right of property, of the recognition of a difference between *meum* and *tuum*, and ever since the invention of writing and arithmetic, accounting for what you have done with things belonging to others, and especially with money, has been held to be one of the first duties of men. Failure to keep accounts raises in law a presumption of dishonesty, no matter in whom. The destruction of books of account raises a presumption that there was something to conceal. All executors, and administrators, and guardians, and trustees, and agents are bound to account in writing by the courts. So are all treasurers of corporations of every kind, charitable as well as others. Every one to whom a friend gives money for any purpose considers himself bound in honor to say what disposition he has made of it down to the last cent. In fact, accounting forms the larger part of the business of mankind every day. The duty of accounting is among the very foremost of social duties, and the one which needs most earnestly to be impressed on every child from his infancy.

Well, we have, in spite of all this, established among us the practice of giving large sums of money to an individual, or a small knot of individuals, nominally to assist in carrying on our government, without ever asking them either how much they have received or what they do with it. A committee, however, furnishes a slight guarantee of honesty, because the members are possibly a check on each other; but in this State we substitute for a committee a single man, called a "boss," and we hand over to him all the funds he asks for, without inquiry, without accounts, vouchers, or any description of bookkeeping. The lower the opinion we have of his character, the more money we give him. No charity, or college, or hospital, or library, or museum could in this city get one-hundredth part of the money given to Croker and Platt in a single year by men fully persuaded of the bad character of both, yet given without receipt, or examination, or account. Neither of these ever says what he does with the money.

In the case of Croker the presumption is raised that he appropriated a large part of it to his own use by the fact that he became suddenly rich, acquired large possessions, and took to horse-racing in England. But Platt lives plainly, manages an express business, resides in a hotel, and has a pew in church. This leads many people to say they feel sure that he keeps none of the money himself, that it all goes in paying election expenses, subsidizing editors, and generally "supporting the party." But they have no right to exempt Platt from the ancient presumption, justified by ten thousand years of human experience, and adopted in all our law and business, that the man who does not account is dishonest, and does use for his own profit the money he receives as a trustee. As long as Platt refuses to say what he did with the money, the theory that he keeps some of it for himself is too strong to be upset by any feeling or opinion of people who confess they know no more about the matter than any one else. Under these circumstances the plainness of his house or dress, or his pew in church, or his own declaration counts for nothing. He may not care for gaudy attire or a sumptuous abode. He may be putting his gains into investments for his children. He may have a pew in church, as hundreds have it, as a means of helping his business. The one question to put to him is a question which in every age has made the guilty tremble —"Where are the books?" Nothing can meet this but the books—no surmises, no old clothes, no cheap board, no sanctimonious expression of countenance, no length of hair, no pew in church, no readiness to go to war with England.

MR. RAINES AND HIS LAW.

It required only three days of inquiry to convince Senator Raines that the responsibility for the unsatisfactory operation of his liquor law rests, not with the police of this or any other city, but in the defective provisions of the law itself. This might have been inferred from the authorship of the statute. Mr. Raines has been active in the politics of this State for nearly or quite twenty years, and during that time has done nothing which gave evidence that he was interested in anything except political trickery. Nobody has ever accused him of taking "theoretical" views of public questions, and he has seldom been found on the side of a genuine reform measure. Taken as a whole, his political reputation is as well rounded as that of any thoroughly practical politician in the State. When he took hold of the liquor question, and bent his mind to the preparation of a general law for the State, everybody who knew him knew that the law would be stuffed as full as it could hold with "politics" of the Platt machine variety.

His investigation proves that this was the case. All the evils which it has caused—and they are very great and very demoralizing—are shown to be the outcome of those provisions of the law which Raines put in for the purpose of making the law useful to politics. He would not accept the Ohio law as it stood, because that does not provide for the building up of a huge political machine. He would not accept the principle of a tax on liquor, and leave the business of collecting it, as the Ohio law does, to the regular tax-collecting machinery of the State. That would put the liquor-traffic outside of politics, as the Ohio statute has done, and Raines was not seeking any such end as that. His object was to take the traffic out of Democratic politics and put it into Republican politics. Accordingly, he created a State bureau for the collection of the tax and the enforcement of the law, with about 200 employees and a salary list aggregating fully $250,000 a

year. He gave so much thought to this part of the statute that the other parts got little attention, and were thrown in with small regard to their meaning or scope.

When the law failed to work with entire satisfaction in this city, Raines declared that the fault lay with the police, and he came down here for the special purpose of proving his charge. A great mass of cumulative testimony poured upon him to the effect that what he charged as violations of the law, committed because of police incompetence or dishonesty, was really vile public nuisances made possible and actually protected by his law. These so-called "fake" or "Raines" hotels are pronounced by the most competent authorities to be far worse dens of iniquity and drunkenness on Sundays than the old liquor-saloons were when they were all "wide open." The police are powerless to close them because of the provisions of Raines's law, which are so vague and lax as to make any intelligent interpretation of them difficult, and to make the most reasonable interpretation of them favorable to the dens.

When he could no longer refuse to confess that the law itself was responsible for these evils, Raines is quoted as declaring with virtuous fury: "We will close these fake hotels and clubs on Sunday, even if we have to close every hotel and club in the city to do it. It would be a hardship for the bona-fide places to close, but it would result in the greatest good to the greatest number. Public opinion will not permit the fake establishments to remain open, and the newspapers are paving the way to closing them by their outcry." By "we" Raines of course means himself and the other rural statesmen who regulate our municipal affairs for us each winter. He does not intend to allow the people of this city to have any voice as to the way in which the Sunday-selling question shall be solved. The newspapers which call attention to the abominable effects of his law are making an "outcry," and are warned that they are in danger of bringing about the complete closing of all hotels and clubs on Sunday if they do not stop. This is the regulation Raines method of solving a great public question.

Raines closed his inquiry in very bad humor, and the chances are that the city will suffer for it when he gets down to "work" in the Senate this winter. The net result of his week of investigation was a unanimous condemnation of his liquor law as a loosely drawn measure, which has greatly stimulated drunkenness and added perceptibly to the vice and crime of the city. Not only the witnesses whom Raines examined agreed in this view, but the grand jury added to his wrath and misery presently by saying, in an entirely unexpected and gratuitous manner, that, in their opinion, the law was so drawn "as to invite evasion and make its strict enforcement impossible," thereby bringing the "administration of criminal justice into disrepute and contempt." Raines had hardly become calm under this assault when he received a letter from Dr. Parkhurst which was so extremely disagreeable to himself as a statesman and lawmaker that he refused to give it out to the press, and declared that if anybody else gave it out, he would "compel Dr. Parkhurst to come to Albany and back up his statements there." As he might have expected, after this threat, the Doctor gave out the letter at once. It simply stated, in the Doctor's forcible style, the main facts about the law which Raines himself had established at his inquiry, and which the grand jury has emphasized.

We must be meek and take what Raines and his associates will give us. As Mr. Roosevelt said in his testimony the other day, there are some admirable provisions of the law which go far to offset its defects. One of these is the requirement that all shades and shutters shall be open or raised on Sundays, and another is the higher tax. Still another is the abolition of the local Boards of Excise. These changes give us a condition of affairs which is a great improvement upon the old. Whatever defects exist are due entirely to the "politics" and ignorance which flow inevitably from lawmakers of the Raines variety. They are not making laws for the public good, but for the benefit of the political machine; and so long as the people of the State are content to leave this most important business to them, just so long must we expect results which make our claim to civilization a huge joke, and government in our cities so often little less than legalized crime.

CODFISH AND CURRENCY.

How did we get our dollar—our recent apple of discord? The measures which American colonists brought from England we for the most part still retain. Our terms for length and area—as foot, acre, and all through the scale—are English. So are our words for capacity, from least to greatest. Our weights, too, from grains to tons, are English. Neither the old French arpent nor the new French metre has prevailed among us. We remain English in regard to all measures except those of value. Cleaving to English heirlooms of weight and bulk, why have we discarded English monetary measures—ignoring the pound sterling while abiding by the pound troy and the pound avoirdupois? "Thanks to codfish!" is the shortest answer, and it is not far from the exact truth. No colonies save our own are known to have rejected the monetary standards of their mother countries. But for colonial fisheries, there is small reason to think that we should not to this day reckon in English pounds of value as we do in English pounds of weight.

The genesis, however, of the federal currency in fisheries, and its growth out of them, form a by way of history which has been seldom explored. The truth is, that, from the earliest settlement of New England, fish exported elsewhere than to the mother country brought home to us the bulk of the specie in colonial circulation. This money was for the most part dollars, a coin long known as pieces-of-eight, having the value of eight reals. Wherever dollars became the predominant coin in circulation, they naturally became the real unit of value, while the word pound sterling, hardly entering into actual transactions, was retained in keeping accounts. Dollar as a coin came into the American colonies, directly or indirectly, chiefly from Spaniards. The name dollar, unknown in Spanish even now, was derived from the German tongue, and probably came into American use from the Dutch founders of New York.

The word dollar has a curious history. Ten miles from Carlsbad, so well known to American invalids, there was a mediæval Bohemian mine rich in silver. The place was called Joachimsthal, or the dale of Joachim. In the year 1518 the richness of the mine led to a coinage, with little alloy, which thus gained high repute and wide circulation. The name Joachimsthaler, contracted, as all long words must be if much used, became *thaler*—*i. e.*, valley-piece—and a synonym of good money. Hence its good name was given to many similar coins. As Joachimsthal was in the German Empire, or *Reich*, the pieces minted there were called *Reichsthäler*—that is, in English, Rix or Rigs-dollars. One of the earliest appearances of the word in English was in 1606. Shakspere, in "Macbeth" (i., 2, 62), then spoke of slain Norsemen denied burial till their king had disbursed ten thousand dollars. But the word was doubtless already known. It occurs often in the travels of Sandys, begun in 1610, and shows the thing to have already gone up and down in three continents. Sandys hired a boat in Egypt for twelve dollars (p. 117). He tells us that Dutch dollers (*sic*) throughout Jewry and Phœnicia were "equivalent with royals of eight—elsewhere less by ten aspers" (p. 205). He adds that Constantinople was "well stored with pieces of eight, which in no place lose [aught] of their value." He found the monastery on Mount Sinai to be "receiving an annual revenue of 60,000 dollars from Christian princes" (p. 124).

On the Western continent the name came into use not much more slowly than the coin. In 1642 it was ordained by Massachusetts authorities, "considering the often occasions we have of trading with the Hollanders of the Dutch plantation and otherwise, that the Holland ducatour [*sic*] shall be current at six shillings, and the Rix dollar and Royall-of-eight shall be five shillings" (Mass. Col. Rec., ii., p. 29). The next year a similar enactment in Connecticut said that "good Ryalls-of-eight and Rix dollars should pass at five shillings." From the tendency of words to contraction, and because the syllable Rix, though significant of empire to Germans, means nothing to foreign ears, that prefix was dropped in common parlance, while the word dollar survived.

The name dollar, however derived by our colonists, could not fail to be extended to the Spanish *peso*, or pound, a word from the same root with *pois*, the final syllable in avoirdupois. The alternative Spanish name, piece-of-eight, was a circumlocution which could not fail to be supplanted by the single word dollar. Pieces-of-eight flowed into New England from southern Europe and the West Indies, partly in return for fish and partly from half-piratical buccaneers who made booty on Spanish commerce. In Plymouth, Gov. Bradford describes one Capt. Cromwell, who, in 1646, having made prizes, "scattered a great deal of silver among the pilgrims, and, as was feared, a great deal more sin than silver." In 1740 Capt. Hull of Newport made such a

capture that the share of every man on his ship was proclaimed in the Boston *News-Letter* to amount to more than a thousand pieces-of-eight. In 1687 the Yankee skipper Phips, with his divers, brought up a million and a half of such pieces from the sunken wreck of a single Spanish galleon. But these spasmodic windfalls were trifles compared with the steady stream which gushed forth from the perennial fishery fountains.

The connection of cod and currency was close. Money was never so scarce in New England as during its early decades. That colony had been planted by the aid of English capital. The exports from the new country were needed for paying debts in the old, or for procuring new supplies. No import of money from England could be hoped for, nor could the colonists keep the pittance they had brought with them. Within ten years after his arrival, Winthrop writes sadly, "Our money was now [1640] gone" (Journal, ii., p. 24). In this emergency attempts were made to keep money in the country by a law which forbade carrying it out on pain of forfeiture, and by a fiat money act for coining ninepences and ordaining that they should pass current as shillings. Hence originated the pine-tree shillings of the Old Bay State, now prized so highly by numismatists. Puritans eschewed Shakspere, but they knew as well as his *Jack Cade* to order that "seven ha'penny loaves should be sold for a penny."

Necessity fortunately soon invented a more excellent way to make money plenty in every man's pocket. A new and better fish market than the English was discovered and utilized to the utmost. The Navigation Act, indeed, forced all vessels to steer for England, but, once there, they could push on to Spain and further. This act, however, laid on American necks a yoke too heavy to be borne. It was thrown off at every opportunity, without any twinge of Puritan conscience, especially as to the carriage of fish to the West Indies. It was soon relaxed so as to permit voyages direct to all points south of the most northern cape in Spain. Thanks to fasts, which had been abolished in England, fish in rigidly Catholic countries was indispensable. The demand was great and unceasing, prices high, and paid in pieces-of-eight. No wonder the fish trade, mainly in cod, expanded and was differentiated. Refuse culls, or poor John, became in sugar islands the only luxury of Sambo; the medium grades contented his creole master, while the selectest variety, the duncod, enabled European grandees of the straitest sect to keep the most rigorous fasts without much mortification of the flesh.

It is safe to say that none of these varieties of cod tasted so sweet to hunger-bitten fasters as the profits from them tasted to the Yankees when they had secured free course through Southern markets. Their ciphering was of this sort: A vessel of 100 tons with twenty men fishing on the Banks and voyaging to Portugal, Spain, or Italy, perhaps selling half her cargo in the West Indies, will expend £1,000. At the year's end her receipts may be expected to show a gain of 200 per cent. It is no wonder that as early as 1709 the fishing navy was chronicled as already amounting to 30,000 tons. In 1741 the total export trade to southern islands equalled that to England itself; each was reckoned at £100,000. The birth of a codfish aristocracy could not be long deferred.

The codfish dollar as a coin could not fail to become early the real unit of value, though the pound so continued in name till near the close of the eighteenth century. The Spanish fractions of the dollar, as well as the dollar itself, predominated in American circulation, while English names were given to the pieces. Thus, the ryall (rial, real, royal) was called a nine-pence, and its half a four pence-ha'penny. These Spanish subdivisions formed most of the change current in the United States during the first half of the present century. This fact appears in the rates of postage, which were fixed in conformity to the size of those bits. We see on old letters postage marked 6¼ cents, because the smallest Spanish silverling passed at that value. But for this coin, postage could never be fully paid, as no quarter of a cent was ever minted. Economical men used to pay in copper, and thus saved four per cent. on their outlays. For twenty-three years previous to 1828, not one half dime was stamped in the United States mint, and the total number which had been before stamped was little over a quarter of a million (265,543). Other American coins were struck off on a similarly scanty scale.

We thus owe the federal currency formally adopted by Congress in 1786, but used in business long before, to codfish. It brought us the dollar as our monetary unit—the dollar both name and thing, with all early subdivisions and some that still survive—as really as though every codfish had been caught with a silverling in his mouth, like the fish in which St. Peter found the stater for paying his tribute and his master's.

Correspondence.

THE COLLEGE MAN IN THE CIVIL SERVICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In support of your statements and statistics in this week's *Nation*, illustrating the chance of monopoly of the public service by college graduates under civil-service rules, I beg to contribute the following figures, just compiled by me from the records of the Massachusetts Civil-Service Commission, showing the number of college men applying or examined since the organization of this commission in 1884. In this table I have included as college men all applicants claiming to have attended college, without regard to the length of time, or whether they received a degree:

PERSONS EXAMINED.

Year	School education.	College education
1885	1,267	25
1886	1,016	19
1887	919	19
1888	1,009	6
1889	989	27
1890	1,031	13
1891	1,055	29
1892	883	20
1893	1,854	19
1894	1,568	14
1895	2,578	35
1896	2,767	37
Total	16,935	263

Percentage of college men, 1.53.

It is probable that there are in Massachusetts more college graduates in proportion to the male population than in any other State. I add that the average age of applicants for the classified civil service in Massachusetts is a little over thirty-five years. It has varied but little from year to year. The lowest average age was in the year 1890, 33.47; the highest in 1891, 37.28.

Chas. Theo Russell, Chairman.

Massachusetts Civil-Service Commission,
Boston, December 4, 1896.

THE PROVIDENCE ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Providence municipal election, which this year was held for the first time on the same day as the Presidential election, presented some very instructive features. In the voting for the Presidential ticket, the Republican candidate evidently received nearly the entire sound-money vote, giving a Republican plurality of 7,211; while in the voting for the municipal ticket the plurality was a Democratic one of 9,366. In other words, the Democratic candidate for Mayor, who one year ago received only 7,904 votes, was this year re-elected by a vote of 14,506. To obtain this, he apparently must have received more Republican votes than the Republican candidate of this year, who had only 5,140 votes.

If the comparison be made with the total vote cast this year in the municipal and Presidential ballotings respectively, the result is almost equally interesting. Out of a total of 20,056 votes cast for the Presidential tickets, the McKinley ticket received 13,124. Out of a total of 21,889 votes cast for the municipal tickets, the Democratic ticket received 14,506. In each case the successful candidates received more than two-thirds of the whole, and outnumbered their opponents more than two to one.

While it is true that the reëlected Mayor of Providence is emphatically worthy of the non-partisan support which he received, there is yet another feature of interest to be taken into account. In the face of every principle of local self-government, and in the face of the direct remonstrances of the municipalities concerned, the Republican majority in the last State Legislature succeeded in enacting the law whereby, in each of the five cities of the State, the municipal election should this year fall on the day of the Presidential election. The obvious expectation was that a successful Republican ticket in national matters would perforce sweep along with it the Republican candidates on the local municipal tickets. It is at once ludicrous and reassuring to notice that in only one of these five cities (Woonsocket) was a Republican mayor elected, while every one of them (and, in fact, every one of the thirty-seven towns and cities in the State) voted against the Bryan ticket.

We are sometimes inclined to ask despairingly whether voters can be induced to think for themselves. On this occasion it is very evident that they did think for themselves.

F.

Providence, R. I., December 5, 1896.

DUELLING IN THE BRITISH ARMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Nation* of November 26, in a paragraph relating to duelling in the German Army, says that duelling in the British Army was abolished about fifty years ago. This is not correct. Duelling has in fact been discountenanced in the British Army since much earlier times. Our articles of war against duelling were copied from the British articles in 1775, and the prohibition of the practice may be traced back through different British codes to the beginning of the seventeenth century. In James the Second's articles (1686) and Prince Rupert's (1673), the articles relating to duelling are almost in the language of the American articles now in force. In the ordinances published by the Earl of Northumberland in 1640 it was prescribed that "whosoever shall receive an injurie, and shall

take his own satisfaction, shall be punished by imprisonment, and as it shall be thought fit by the marshall court." In the ordinances put forth by the Earl of Essex in 1639 the corresponding article was:

"No man shall challenge or defye another, in campe or garrison, nor shall accept of the challenge, upon paine of imprisonment and publike disarming before his companie; nor shall any, by words or injuries, provoke another to the fight or duell, or shall revenge his own injuries or provocations, upon the like penalties."

In the Articles of War of Gustavus Adolphus the article relating to duelling is in language which seems to indicate that it was followed in the British codes:

"No Duell or Combat shall be permitted to bee fought either in the Leaguer or place of Strength; if any offereth to wrong others, it shall bee decided by the Officers of the Regiment; he that challengeth the field of another shall answer it before the Marshal's Court. If any Captain, Lieutenant, Ancient, or other inferiour officer, shall either give leave or permission unto any under their command, to enter combat, and doth not rather hinder them, shall be presently cashiered from their charges, and serve afterwards as a Reformado or common souldier; but if any harm be done he shall answer it as deeply as he that did it."

And even in the military code of Henry VIII. it was prescribed "that noe man make debate, striffe, or contention for anie hatred or malice of tyme passed, ne for tyme to come, whereby anie man bee slayne, upon payne of him or them that be causers, or partners of ye murder, to be hanged therefore."

G. Norman Lieber.

Washington, December 2, 1896.

[We did not say "discountenanced"; we said "abolished," which is correct. Duels were fought by army officers in England down to 1843. The late Lord Cardigan fought one with another officer in 1840, and the last duel in England was in 1843 between Lieutenant Monro and Colonel Fawcett, his brother-in-law, when Colonel Fawcett was killed. This led, in 1844, to an amendment to the Articles of War, which visited failure to try to prevent a duel even, let alone "to fight or promote a duel," with cashiering, and made the reception or offer of an apology suitable to the character of honorable men. Before this, duelling was not punished unless it had fatal results, and to refuse a challenge led to retirement from the regiment. Consequently, while Mr. Lieber is correct in saying that duelling in England was "discountenanced" centuries ago, he is incorrect in saying that we are "not correct" in saying that it was abolished only fifty years ago. The exact number is fifty-two.—Ed. Nation.]

INJUNCTION AND ANARCHY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 5 you denounce Senate Bill No. 2984 authorizing trial by jury in contempt cases in the federal courts, under the heading "The Bill to Authorize Anarchy." Permit me to inquire how you reconcile your views therein with those of date September 13, 1894, entitled "The Debs Case," wherein you condemn the action of the federal court at Chicago in trying without a jury the contempt charges against Debs and others for violating an "omnibus" injunction theretofore issued. When a journal so independent and generally sane on public questions changes front so completely as the *Nation* has done in this instance, it is due to its readers that the reasons therefor be given.

Very truly yours, Henry Z. Johnson.

Boise, Idaho, November 18, 1896.

[We do not seem to have been inconsistent. In the editorial of 1894 we conceded that "there is no doubt of the power of a court to punish summarily those who disobey its orders; . . . the person charged with contempt . . . cannot demand a jury"; and our theme was, "It may be doubted whether the injunctions [in the Debs case] were not wholly superfluous"; and we contended that it was improper to resort to the civil injunction, with its possibilities of contempt proceedings, when the situation really involved a crime, and therefore should have been left, for preventive purposes, to the federal troops as peace officers. Since that time popular feeling, aroused by the impropriety noted by us, has come to confound in its haste the injunction itself with the casual abuse of it; and our aim in the editorial of November 5 was to warn against this terrible error, which, if carried into effect by Senate Bill No. 2984, would wholly destroy the very vitality of the injunction in all cases, however legitimately used—a consequence disastrous to civil rights. In short, it is one thing to criticise the propriety of using the injunction in a given case (which we did in 1894), but it is a wholly different thing to wish to abolish it as a civil remedy (which we now and ever shall oppose).—Ed. Nation.]

MARY LYON AND OBERLIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The recent gift of $450 by the professors and students at Oberlin to Mt. Holyoke College, in return for a similar sum sent to Oberlin by Miss Lyon and her pupils (then at Ipswich, Mass.), furnishes a proper occasion to fix in the public mind some facts concerning the movement for the higher education of women which are not generally known. This large gift (for the time) of Miss Lyon and her associates was sent to Oberlin in 1834 in token of their interest in the determination of Oberlin's founders to open all departments of the College to women on equal terms with men. It was three or four years after this that Miss Lyon established the Seminary at Mt. Holyoke, which has only lately become a college with a full curriculum.

The interest in the higher education of women was, at that time, also manifested by the number of young women who flocked to Oberlin for the advantages there offered to them, entering the very first classes, and in due time finishing the classical course (then on a par with that of the New England colleges), and receiving the bachelor's degree twelve or fifteen years before it was granted to women by any other college. This is a fact to be remembered by the presidents of some of our women's colleges, who seem to be under the impression that the movement for the higher education of women began with them.

G. Frederick Wright.

Notes.

The Caxton Club of Chicago has nearly ready Joutel's 'Journal of La Salle's Last Voyage,' a page-for-page and line-for-line reprint of the first English translation (1714), with a facsimile of the folding-map of the first French edition (1713), and numerous notes by Melville B. Anderson. Two hundred and three copies will be printed from type on American handmade paper and three on Japanese vellum. Subscriptions at six dollars to the paper set will not be received after December 16. The treasurer of the club is Charles L. Hutchinson.

The Southern History Association will begin with the new year to issue its publications in the form of a quarterly, subscription to which is included in the annual membership fee of three dollars. The Secretary is Colyer Meriwether, 325 East Capitol Street, Washington.

Miss Alice C. Baker of Cambridge and Deerfield, Mass., has made it a pious duty to trace the fortunes of New England's captives carried to Canada during the French and Indian wars. She has done this, not alone in books, but by laborious travels in the St. Lawrence Valley, and her 'Stories of the Captives,' embracing thirteen narratives, will be published during the present season.

Fresh announcements by the Macmillan Company are 'A First Book in Writing English,' by Edwin Herbert Lewis, Ph.D., of Chicago University; 'Bird Life for Beginners,' by Mrs. Mabel Osgood Wright and Dr. Elliott Coues; 'The National Movement in the Reign of Henry III.,' by Prof. Oliver H. Richardson of Drury College; and 'Faith the Beginning, Self-Surrender the Fulfilment, of the Spiritual Life,' by Dr. James Martineau.

Copeland & Day, Boston, who have transferred their list of works issued in connection with John Lane of London to his New York house, The Bodley Head, 140 Fifth Avenue, announce 'In Childhood's Country,' by Louise Chandler Moulton, pictured by Ethel Reed; 'Martina,' poems by Francis Sherman, and 'Gold Stories of '49,' by a Californian.

Ginn & Co. will bring out this winter 'Method in History,' by Prof. Wm. H. Mace of Syracuse University.

'Pennsylvania Colony and Commonwealth,' by Sidney George Fisher, is in the press of Henry T. Coates & Co.

We reserve for future notice the long-expected work by Dr. Dörpfeld on the Greek Theatre, which has at last appeared and is for sale by Lemcke & Buechner, New York. The title is 'Das Griechische Theater; Beiträge zur Geschichte des Dionysos Theaters in Athen, und anderer Griechischer Theater, von Wilhelm Dörpfeld und Emil Reisch' (Leipzig: Carl Fr. Fleischer).

The pains bestowed by Dodd, Mead & Co. on their holiday edition of Lord Lytton's 'Richelieu' have met with least success in what was presumably the main motive for the edition—we mean the illustrations. They are the work of one hand, but untastefully (and untypographically) contrasted in the medium of expression; part being in pen-and-ink line, part in wash, and all feeble and anything but dramatic.

There is little to say of 'My Village' (Scribners). Life in a French village is described in

it with pen and pencil by E. Boyd Smith, and text and illustrations are much on a level of pretty slightness. The little book may serve to pass a pleasant hour if one is content not to ask too much of it.

The 'Jane Eyre' just issued in London by Service & Paton and in New York by the Putnams deserves consideration by admirers of that work. The letter-press is distinct and tasteful, the binding in corresponding taste. Mr. F. H. Townsend's illustrations are clever and individual, if slight.

Henry T. Coates & Co., Philadelphia, have provided a companion to Amicis's 'Constantinople' in Charles Yriarte's 'Venice,' similarly adorned with excellent and pertinent photogravures, a good map, and an index. Colleoni's statue does duty a second time upon the cover, and gives distinction to the binding. Yriarte is more historical and artistic than his Italian brother man of letters, but he has his moments of tourist description and impression, and is anything but heavy reading.

"A Selection of Songs of Good Courage" is the sub-title, and perhaps the better title, of 'Through Love to Light,' made by John White Chadwick and Annie Hathaway Chadwick—a pretty volume in white and gold (Boston: Joseph Knight Co.). It must not, however, as the compilers give warning, be too rigidly interpreted, as witness Alfred Lyall's 'Theology in Extremis' and (considering how large a part the hereafter plays in keeping up our spirits) Matthew Arnold's "Is it so small a thing?" Arnold has, by the way, been more largely drawn upon than any other poet, with nine pieces; Emerson with eight; Lowell and Tennyson with seven; Browning, Clough, Symonds, and E. R. Sill with six, etc. Lowell is ingeniously made to furnish an antistrophe to Shakspere. Whittier lends but two, and Wordsworth but four, pieces. Mr. Chadwick contributes liberally of his own store, and there is otherwise a fair representation of the Unitarian connection, especially of the younger men. The names of Carman, Roberts, Tabb, Riley, Arlo Bates, and W. R. Thayer show that our newest singers have not been overlooked. Many of the titles are supplied, for fragments, by the compilers. One of these, "Cosmic Emotion," is as exact as it is un-Tennysonian. The collection cannot fail to find acceptance.

Mr. Clifton Johnson has made New England his province in one or more works which he has used his camera to adorn and illustrate to the life. He returns to the subject in 'A Book of Country Clouds and Sunshine' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), with chapters on winter life, town-meeting, financiering on a small farm, a hill-town Sabbath, the minister, deserted homes, etc. Mr. Johnson does not rank with the more practised, graphic, or philosophic writers who have preceded him, but his matter is interesting and based on knowledge. His pictures are well-chosen for character and scenic effect, and, if they do not always fit the adjacent text, they harmonize with the atmosphere of the book. The volume is handsomely manufactured.

The latest of the Scribners' musical publications is 'Songs of Childhood: Verses by Eugene Field, Music by Reginald de Koven and Others.' It contains musical settings of twenty of Field's poems, the composers represented besides De Koven being Arthur Foote, G. W. Chadwick, W. W. Gilchrist, Clayton Johns, Gerrit Smith, C. B. Hawley, Hubbard T. Smith, and Edgar S. Kelley. Mr. De Koven contributes nine of the songs, and one of them is marked opus 117 No. 2—a rather startling number for a composer of his age (thirty-seven). The collection as a whole may be commended, the music being usually on a level with the verse.

'Small Songs for Small Singers,' by W. H. Neidlinger (Schirmer), is a collection of unpretentious ditties, with marginal colored pictures that will probably interest the little ones more than the music.

The '"Thumb" Pilgrim's Progress,' contrived for the vest-pocket by Henry Frowde, is singularly legible. The inch-and-a-half-square page amasses 418 without producing a thickness of more than half an inch, including the morocco binding. There are illustrations to boot. This is the sort of vade-mecum which would admirably befit a poetic anthology of shorter poems.

Some years ago the 'Journal of Emily Shore' was noticed in our columns. She died in 1839. We have now a volume of the poems of a sister, Louisa, who survived her fifty-six years (London and New York: John Lane). To the Memoir by her sister Arabella Mr. Frederic Harrison adds an appreciation. Miss Louisa Shore was a lady who lived a secluded life, taking, however, a deep and intelligent interest in the outer world—a type of the best class of English Liberal, Nonconforming womanhood. It is to be regretted that her self-appreciation was so low that she cared to finish but few of her more ambitious attempts. The fragments here given cause us to wish for more. Mr. Harrison's estimate of her is high. (Some of her elegies have been much used in Positivist services.) He says of her that of all the men and women with whom in his literary life he had been thrown, "she, I think, lived the most continuously alone with her own creations." Upon the whole, this little book of high and tender memories is more likely to take its place upon the book-shelves of friends among privately printed memoirs than with the general public. Though a record of advanced achievement and of a matured and finished life, it has not the same general interest as the 'Journal' of the sister Emily.

The editors of the *Philosophical Review* reprint as a supplement the translation of Dr. Adickes's Bibliography of German writings by and on Kant. It is a work of immense size and learning, which, we suppose, no self-respecting philosophical library can afford to be without. Its usefulness is greatly increased by the fact that it contains not merely a list of the various books in their chronological order, but also a brief account and estimate of their contents, which becomes fuller and very serviceable in the case of the most important writings. To give an idea of the magnitude of this monument of German industry, it suffices to state that it extends over 623 closely printed pages (including the index), and mentions 2,882 publications, whose subjects range from the sublime to the ridiculous, from the application of Kantian principles to the Deity to their application to cookery. And yet the bibliography extends at present only to 1804, the year of Kant's death, and the accumulations of another century's pondering on the sage of Königsberg remain to be recorded!

Two youthful, hitherto unpublished poems of Emerson's are the most curious feature of Duprat & Co.'s *Booklover's Almanac* for 1897. Mr. S. P. Avery contributes in facsimile an autograph letter of Disraeli's complaining to his binder that his books would not lie open; together with a sketch of the late William Matthews, our foremost New York binder, whose work is shown in two colored specimens.

In the *New England Magazine* for December Mr. F. B. Sanborn discourses of the various portraits of Emerson. Accompanying his paper is a large number of examples, of the best and of the poorest. The editor desires to return to the subject, and begs to be favored with fresh material for copying.

An entertaining account, by George Kolb, of two hunting trips made by him in 1894-96 in British East Africa is contained in the last number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. Large game was found in abundance on the eastern slope of Mt. Kenia, where he killed forty-four rhinoceroses in nineteen days, and a companion shot twelve elephants in one morning. A lake was discovered, at an elevation of six thousand feet, in which were numerous hippopotamuses. There are many interesting sketches of the natives, whose confidence Mr. Kolb was singularly successful in winning. He has a good word even for the Masai, the North American Indian of Africa, out of whom the British officials are making efficient soldiers. Among some of the tribes a custom prevails of permitting only the circumcised males to marry. But before a youth can be circumcised he must have killed a man; hence there is constant warfare between tribes, and an overplus of women. A considerable part of the region traversed is very fertile, and the climate is no more dangerous to the health and life of the European than that of Germany—provided that he avoid the use of alcohol.

The latest report of the Missouri Geological Survey contains an essay by C. F. Marbut on the physical features of that State, in which due importance is at last attached to the escarpments by which the lowlands and uplands are separated in various districts. The escarpments are formed by the retreating edges of the more resistant strata, all of which stand at a very gentle inclination. Their front bluff or escarpment is very ragged and uneven, under the long weathering of the atmosphere; beneath the bluffs, weaker underlying strata are worn down to relatively even lower lands; back of the bluffs, the surface of the upland gradually descends with the dip of the controlling stratum to another lowland in the rear. A map illustrates the distribution of these important features, of which the chief are the Bethany escarpment, crossing the northwest corner of the State; the Burlington escarpment, in the southwest corner; and several others near the middle of the eastern border. Special attention is given also to the peculiarly irregular or meandering courses of a number of rivers, concerning which, especially the Osage, there has been some discussion in recent years. The report is well illustrated with photographs and maps.

The Dutch missionary settlement in Formosa in the seventeenth century (1624-1661) was the first enterprise of Protestant missions on a large scale. Within a few years past the English Presbyterians have begun operations in the same region. In addition, they have recovered, both from libraries in the Netherlands and the natives in Formosa, not a few literary relics of the good work which was, in 1661, swept away by the Chino-Japanese pirate, Koxinga. To his handsome publication of Gravius's version of St. Matthew in the Sinkang dialect, with parallel versions in Dutch and English, the Rev. William Campbell now adds a companion volume in like excellent typography, proceeding from the press of Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., London. It has an introduction of xix

and text of 199 pages. Mr. Campbell seems to look hopefully upon the Japanese possession of this populous island, while making a plea also for Gospel work among the mountain savages who are likewise head-hunters. The work contains the "Articles of Christian Instruction" with which people in the Reformed Dutch church in America and on other continents are familiar. The text is in the Favorlang dialect, with Dutch and English parallel versions. There are also five sermons, questions on the Creed and the Lord's Prayer, a catechism for those to receive baptism, and a specimen of the dialect of the aborigines at Toa-sia. In reproducing George Psalmanazar's "Dialogue between a Japanese and a Formosan," Mr. Campbell takes occasion to show that the late Professor de Lacouperie's surmise that there existed a native Formosan script of neither Chinese nor European origin is baseless. Psalmanazar's reputation is not improved, though the interest in reading this rare tract is heightened as we see the Japanese of 1896 face to face with these mountain tribes, finding it no easy task to tame them. The vocabulary of the Favorlang dialect is very rich, and, unless we greatly mistake, is of great value not only to intending missionaries but to students of pre-Buddhistic Japanese.

The General Theological Library whose home is at 53 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston, seeks a further endowment of $400,000 for its undenominational collection, now more than thirty years in the gathering, and amounting to 14,000 volumes. Perpetual membership by a church enables the pastors for ever to use the library and to draw books without charge. The present rate for this is $100, and there are various rates for founders, associate founders, patrons, etc. The Secretary is L. Farnham.

The death is announced from Copenhagen of Prof. Karl Adolph Verner, the discoverer of the so-called Verner's Law. Prof. Verner was born in Aarhus, Denmark, March 7, 1846. After graduating from the Latin school of his native place, he began the study of the Slavic languages, visiting at different times Germany and Russia. In July, 1875, he made the discovery that was destined to give him an international reputation on its publication two years later in Kuhn's *Zeitschrift*. By this he showed that the apparently exceptional change of Indo-European k, t, p to g, d, b respectively was the result of the position of the accent in the original forms. In recognition of the value of this discovery the Berlin Academy granted him the Bopp prize, and the University of Heidelberg gave him the degree of Ph.D. *honoris causa*. For a number of years he was custodian of the University Library at Halle. In 1883 he was appointed Docent in the Slavic Languages at the University of Copenhagen, and five years later he was made Professor Extraordinarius. During the last years of his life Prof. Verner published practically nothing, but devoted himself to his university duties and to the construction of an original apparatus for registering speech sounds with greater accuracy than has hitherto been possible. This instrument is said to be so nearly completed as already to be of great value to investigators.

The two articles on Australasian Government Populistic land experiments in Nos. 1628, 1629 of the *Nation*, based on M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu's exposition of the subject in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, evoked some criticism and denials which we forwarded to M. Leroy-Beaulieu. In his reply, just received, he adheres to the correctness of his own statements, and to our own abstract of them, with one unfortunate exception, where we substituted "New Zealand" for "South Australia" in the leading illustration in the first of the above articles.

—"Light in Dark Places" is the title of Jacob A. Riis's contribution to the December *Century*. Only the varied bands of workers in Tenement House Commission, Health Department, or Associated Charity, who through weary years have wrestled with landlord and legislator to clear out New York's human rookeries, clean its streets, and bring within sight the day when, among other reforms, "every child who asks shall find a seat provided for him in the public school, and when that scandal of the age, the mixing of truants and thieves in a jail, shall have finally ceased," can read between the lines of this noble showing of results. But it bears on its face a contradiction of the disgraceful arguments which the negligent citizen is not ashamed to employ, in his own defence, that public work must always be in incompetent or corrupt hands, or that it is of no use to struggle with the politicians. And since, for good or ill, women have determined to have a hand in the vitally important work Mr. Riis describes, it is necessary to reckon with the point of view ably set forth in the "Open Letter" department by Mrs. Christine Ladd Franklin, who avers that "there can be no doubt that that nation which first adds the well-trained mental powers of its women to the sum total of its intelligence, will add vastly to its power for dealing with all those difficult questions which are pressing for solution." On the literary side of this number Thomas A. Janvier's gracefully written Christmas "Kalends of Provence" is supported by two carols, translated from the Provençal of Roumanille by Mrs. Janvier, and turned again into verse by Edith Thomas and by Margaret Vandegrift.

—Besides E. L. Godkin's "Social Classes in the Republic," the December *Atlantic* contains several papers upon which time may be profitably spent. "Josiah Flynt," in particular, while describing his personal experience of a week in one of the German colonies for the unemployed (started in 1882), touches upon two of the most pregnant sources of perplexity to those who have to deal, from any point of view, with the problems of the unemployed. One is the passion for town life, exemplified by the swarms of Germans who will neither ask for work in the villages they pass through on their tramp from city to city, nor take it from the farmers, who "often bid high for laborers." The other is the total absence of any sense of personal responsibility in men of the class who frequent the colonies, though they know exactly what ails the world and what is needed for its regeneration, repeating in this respect the trait common to tramps, who will "talk for hours at the hang-out camp fire about what ought to be done to make the world better, and at times with a clearness of perception and earnestness of argument that are unexcelled; but let a little personal introspection or criticism be suggested, and a silence comes over them like that of the graveyard." In the latter observation lies the gist of the ultimate question which the philanthropist who endeavors to work on scientific lines is forced to put to himself: "What shall be done with the man in whom no sense of personal responsibility can be aroused?" Spasmodic and sentimental charity insists upon putting off any reasonable answer; but its finding will be hastened by plain statement of facts such as "Josiah Flynt" hits upon in his voyages of discovery among the human dregs. It is refreshing to find side by side with a study like this last a paper so charming in style and genially ripe in scholarship as Prof. Gildersleeve's "Classical Studies in America," which passes on to the reader part of the pleasure of the writer's recent visit to Greece.

—There is cause for congratulation that in the round half-dozen short stories in *Scribner's* this month not more than a single one has its pages disfigured by the debased jargon which is made to do duty as dialect in so much of the current story-telling, and by means of which the magazines add their quota to the advancing demoralization of the mother-tongue. *Scribner's*, moreover, introduces to its readers, or to such as have not already made his acquaintance through the "Yellow Book" or otherwise, a writer new to magazines on this side of the water, Kenneth Grahame. Mr. Grahame's English, undefiled by New-World associations, forms always part of the charm of his writing, and this sketch of childhood, "The Magic Ring," like those in a former volume, "The Golden Age," is quite subtle and suggestive enough to engage the undivided mind of the adult reader, who will discover under the more academic guise of Miss Repplier's essay, "Little Pharisees in Fiction," a kindred spirit of revolt against accepted methods of bending the twig. Unwholesome Sunday-school literature fares hardly here, and deservedly so, at Miss Repplier's hands. Cosmo Monkhouse's account of the late Sir John Millais suffices, with its excellent illustrations, to give an agreeable all-round view of the work of a very agreeable painter, the best achievement of whose pre-Raphaelite period, the "Lorenzo and Isabella," invites, as here reproduced from the original in the Liverpool Art Gallery, a close study.

—The Texas Ranger, arms and the man, is the subject, in *Harper's*, of Frederic Remington's "How the Law got into the Chaparral." A territory where, in the thirties, Texans, Comanches, and Mexicans "chased one another over the plains, and shot and stabbed to find who should inherit the land," afforded a fair field for the stirring escapades which have found here, in one and the same hand, a wide-awake chronicler and spirited illustrator. Mr. Howells, in his turn, proves, as might have been expected, an attractive chronicler of some of the personal traits of Oliver Wendell Holmes. But just which those "fences" were that this genial celebrity, accessible to both friend and stranger, might with advantage have dispensed with, "because God has made enough differences between men" and "we need not trouble ourselves to multiply them," curiosity is piqued to understand. Some of his visitors were unfortunately left unprovided with a capacity to perceive any "fences" whatsoever, so that Dr. Holmes was forced to adopt, when "now and then an insensitive began to trespass," a sliding-scale of dismissal that, as Mr. Howells appreciatively notices, "never failed of its work, and that really saved the author from the effect of intrusion." An illustrated Christmas feature of the number is an abstract, by John Corbin, under the title of "A Middle-English Nativity," of the verse of a Yorkshire mystery-play, with interesting introduction and explanatory notes.

—The Joint Committee of Congress on the Library have been sitting during the recess, with a view to the adoption of well-settled plans for the removal of the library to its magnificent new building, and its proper development and administration in the new era upon which it will now enter. Last week the committee invited several prominent librarians to appear before them and give expert advice on these matters. Messrs. Brett of Cleveland (President of the American Library Association), Dewey of the New York State Library, Putnam of Boston, Baker of Columbia University, Hayes of Columbus, Ohio (son of the late ex-President Hayes), and Fletcher of Amherst College were examined at length. With some diversities of opinion on minor points, they appear by the reports in the Washington papers to have been in substantial agreement as to the main issues. They urged the importance and necessity of a great enlargement of the official staff of the library, of new and accurate classification and catalogue systems, and of a policy of coöperation with other libraries both in Washington and elsewhere. One point especially dwelt upon was that this library, which must henceforth be rather a great national library than merely the Library of Congress, should be a great bibliographic centre, where inquirers, either in person or by letter, can learn what literature exists on a given subject, and, so far as possible, where the works indicated can be found. It was also urged that every facility should be furnished for the copying, at the expense of inquirers at a distance, of desired chapters or portions from books not easily obtained in the local libraries, and that, under proper restrictions, books from the National Library should be loaned to libraries throughout the country for the use of special students. The committee showed themselves very hospitable to the suggestions of the librarians, and their report, which will be presented to Congress early in the present session, cannot fail to exhibit a more intelligent grasp of the situation, present and future, for this consultation with practical and experienced librarians.

—The country was very fortunate in the appointment of Mr. Crandall to the new office of Superintendent of Documents in the Government Printing-office. He organized his bureau skilfully, he has conducted it usefully, so far as the law allows him to be useful, and he has drafted an act which will very much increase the chance of the country receiving from public documents a return of service somewhat commensurate with their great cost. But perhaps nothing that he has done is so important in its consequences as his commencing in the right form the comprehensive index to the documents which Congress ordered to be issued at the close of each regular session. There are so many ways in which it ought not to be made and in which it was very likely to be made, and the chances were so great that, from the inertia prevalent in public offices, it would, when once started wrong, have gone on wrong for ever, causing us a fresh regret and a fresh sensation of disgust with every new volume, that his choice of the dictionary form and of this particular style of dictionary might well have been mentioned on our late holiday as one of the fit causes of thanksgiving. Mr. Crandall's decision was made, not by chance, but as the result of inquiry and a conviction which shows clearly in his preface. "Any man," he says, "who knows his alphabet and has intelligence enough to find words in a dictionary, can find what he looks for in this book. No table of contents, no index, no side columns, no classification, no chronological or numerical order, no attempts to originate some new and unfamiliar form of catalogue, will here be found to add to the confusion in which the public documents are already enveloped in the public mind."

—The entries are under author and subject, occasionally under title. Special attention appears to have been paid to making the needful cross-references. Mr. Crandall prefers to call this a catalogue rather than a "comprehensive index," as it was termed in the act ordering its publication, because it is a catalogue—that is, a list of papers, not a collection of references to parts of papers. But it is an analytical catalogue—that is, each separate paper in collections like the Proceedings of the National Museum, the Bulletin of the Geological Survey, the Report of the Smithsonian Institution, is duly entered. We hope the superintendent will consider the possibility of employing the linotype, or the monotype, or some similar machine, to make a cumulative index on the plan so successfully inaugurated this year at the Cleveland Public Library, so that the monthly list of documents shall always embrace under subjects as well as authors references to all that has been published up to date from the beginning of the session, and so that when the sessional catalogues become too numerous for ready consultation, they can be combined into one single-alphabet quinquesessional list. It would be a bulky volume. The amount of printing done by our Government is now so enormous that the present catalogue of the issues from March 3, 1893, to June 30, 1895, only two years and a third, has 630 large octavo double-columned pages. It is another instance of woman's advance in the library world that it was compiled under the direction of Miss Edith E. Clarke, to whose energy, skill, and executive ability, says Mr. Crandall, the credit for any favor it may gain will largely be due. It certainly will gain favor, for it is a most creditable piece of work.

—This country does not stand alone in its generally unfortunate attitude toward the destruction of forests. According to the Scandinavian specialist G. Wilhjelm, who published an article on this subject in a recent number of the *Tidsskrift for Skovvæsen*, all the Scandinavian countries except Denmark are confronted with very serious problems in forestry that call for immediate solution. Especially is this true of Norway, which, at the present rate of consumption, will be practically denuded of its forests in sixty or seventy years. The chief causes that threaten a tree famine in Norway are the enormous exports and the domestic use in mills, etc., combined with the lack of definite rules for preserving the old forests and providing for new ones. The Norwegians seem to be almost as extravagant in their use of wood for building and fuel as our own frontiersmen. Norway is one of the few European countries in which wood is largely used for building, in marked contrast to Denmark, where brick and stone are used almost exclusively for this purpose. Wooden fences, too, are frequent in the country districts. But far more serious than the use of wood is its waste. In Denmark even the twigs are gathered for fuel, while in Norway only the best parts of the tree are valued, the discarded parts being left to litter the ground and to interfere with new growth. The young shoots, furthermore, that do succeed in pushing their way through the earth, are too frequently left to the fastidious appetite of horses and sheep. Just as in our northwestern woods, great damage is caused in Norway by forest fires. In 1888 in one district of Norway alone the loss from this cause was estimated at 650,000 kroner ($180,000). Although many laws have been passed by the Norwegian Althing to protect the forests, but little improvement can be noted. These laws are unpopular, because, like so many protective measures passed by legislative bodies all the world over, they lack clearness and definiteness. More successful is the rather Populistic royal resolution authorizing the Norwegian Bank to issue loans on forest lands up to three-tenths of their assessed value. In all three of the northern Scandinavian countries there are regularly appointed forest engineers who give advice on scientific forestry to communes and landowners. Tree-planting by school-children is also encouraged, and, it is thought, with considerable educational results.

PHILIP GILBERT HAMERTON.

Philip Gilbert Hamerton: An Autobiography, 1834-1858, and a Memoir by his wife, 1858-1894. With a Portrait. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1896.

DISRAELI'S celebrated definition of the critics as "the failures in literature and art" was certainly intended to be ill-natured, but it is, perhaps, worth considering whether these "failures" are not, on the whole, the best possible material of which critics can be made. The first thing required of a critic is surely that he shall have an interest in and a knowledge of the art he is to criticise; and in proportion as his interest is deep will be the likelihood that he will have attempted the practice of this art, while the practice itself will vastly have increased his knowledge of the aims and methods and difficulties of it. If, however, he have the true critical breadth of mind and variety of interests, these very qualities may tend to prevent the concentration of aim and effort necessary to success in the practice of any art. Also, success, if attained, keeps the successful artist too busy to allow of his devoting much time to criticism, even if he were thoroughly fitted for it by nature. The ideal critic would possibly be a thoroughly successful artist who should have mastered his craft without narrowing his mind, and who should then give up its practice for the sake of formulating its theory; but such men are not to be found. The criticism of successful artists is often of the greatest value, but it is generally fragmentary. The best of all critics of painting, Fromentin, was greater as a writer than as a painter, though he cannot be called a failure in his art. He is almost a unique example, and in general the "failures" in art are the only persons possessing at once the necessary knowledge and the necessary leisure to write well and at length of it.

Such a man was Philip Gilbert Hamerton. It is true that he protests against such a classification, saying:

"I have been sometimes represented as an unsuccessful painter who took to writing because he had failed as an artist. It is, of course, easy to state the matter so, but the exact truth is that a very moderate success in either literature or art would have been equally acceptable to me, so that there has been no other failure in my life than the usual one of not being able to catch two hares at the

same time. Very few dogs have ever been able to do that."

The difference is, however, merely one of statement. His literary ambition was of equal date with his artistic, but the literature he then contemplated was not criticism, but poetry. The failure of his volume of poems turned him toward painting, and it was, avowedly, as a painter that he began to write art criticism—witness his essay, "That Certain Artists Should Write on Art." What was the exact measure of his failure in painting we have no means of judging. He published a few etchings, which are feeble and amateurish; but his pictures were uniformly refused at exhibitions, and are unknown and inaccessible. From the time he wrote 'A Painter's Camp' his books were almost uniformly successful, and literature became more and more the business of his life. He wrote two or three novels and some books of a literary and semi-philosophical nature; but his interest in painting and his struggles to master its technical difficulties made the criticism of art his natural field, and his permanent place in the literature of the world, as far as his place may be permanent, will be that of an art critic.

As a critic of painting and the other graphic arts his influence was great and undoubtedly salutary. He would have been the last man in the world to assume that the function of the critic is the instruction of the artist, and he never fell into the vein of Mr. Ruskin, who was fond of telling young painters what they should do. Neither had he Ruskin's dangerous eloquence, which often persuaded young artists, Mr. Hamerton himself among the number, to do as he told them. Hamerton confined himself to the critic's true rôle of interpreter of the artist to the public, and for this office he had many qualifications besides the essential one of considerable practical knowledge of art. Even his limitations and defects were in a manner part of his effectiveness. Take, for instance, his style. It is a model of simplicity and lucidity, and has a certain elegance and charm. So clear is it that its possessor complains somewhere that it prevented his having any reputation in England for profundity, it being an English idea that a clear writer is a shallow one. It is without passion, or warmth of coloring, or brilliancy of fancy, as cold as it is clear—the style of a well-educated, gentlemanly person, not that of a poet or a rhapsodist. It can hardly be doubted that this is the style best calculated to carry conviction to the people for whom he wrote. Its air of cool reasonableness and well-bred abstention from extremes was for the cultivated Englishman or American a guarantee that here was the utterance of a sensible person like himself, not of an æsthete or a crank; and such a reader was prepared to accept doctrines entirely new to him which, if given in a more colored manner, he might have taken for pernicious nonsense.

The style was a true reflection of the mind. It was the mind of a cultivated man, broadened by a deep interest in art and by long residence abroad and the study of foreign languages and customs, yet, in many respects, essentially the mind of an English country gentleman. The English love of the open air and wild country, and of some of the forms of sport, and the English love of antiquity and respectability and comfort, always remained with him. Indeed, the love of wild nature was much stronger in him than the love of art, and was the dominating factor in his choice of landscape-painting as a profession. He resented being told that he was not a genius, saying that he never pretended to be one. He was not a specially profound or original thinker, and had no horror of the commonplace, being willing to say over and over again those simple and true things which it is essential that people should know, but which it is very tiresome to teach them. He felt profoundly that two and two do make four, and was willing to reiterate the truth without bothering himself or his readers with supersubtle doubts as to the nature of two and of four. He had that great love for detail and processes and apparatus which is generally one of the marks of the amateur, but which was most useful in enabling him to estimate the effect of technical considerations on the substance of art. In a word, he was just enough of an artist to understand the artist's point of view, and just enough of an outsider to know what the outsider wants and needs to be told, and how to tell it him with the least shock to his feelings or trouble to his understanding. To the artist his placidly flowing prose seems often irritating in its abundance of platitude and truism; but the truism of the artist is for the Philistine sometimes a startling paradox, and it is fortunate for the popular comprehension of art in England and America that an interpreter should have been found with just that combination of qualities and limitations which Hamerton possessed. He probably did more than any other man to counteract the teaching of Ruskin, and to spread abroad that "knowledge of what art is" that Goethe considered a fortunate possession for youth; and this distinction he would have considered amply sufficient.

Mr. Hamerton believed that no one could so properly write his Life as he himself, as no one else could so well know the facts of it. This is certainly true of the earlier part of it, the account of his childhood and youth. He had carried the work only to the time of his marriage when he laid down the pen for ever, and it was taken up by his wife, who furnishes a memoir which completes the volume. The truth of his life from that time on is, naturally, almost as well known to her as to himself, and we have the advantage of a point of view a little removed from his own. By slight things vividly remembered — things which he would hardly have thought worthy of mention—we are given an insight into the habits and nature of the man. The combination produces as nearly as may be an ideal form of biography, though, of course, it excludes any critical estimate of the work and influence of the man commemorated.

The earliest chapters of the book are somewhat depressing. Philip Gilbert Hamerton was born on the 10th of September, 1834, at Laneside, near Shaw, in Lancashire. His family was a very old one, a fact which he never forgot, but his father was a lawyer of somewhat dissipated habits, who married, without the consent of her mother, a young woman who died a few weeks after the birth of their son. This calamity threw the father back upon the bad habits he had abandoned, and he slowly drank himself to death after rendering his son's life miserable for some years. For most of the time during his father's life, and altogether after his death, young Hamerton was under the tutelage of a maiden aunt, who seems to have been a most estimable and lovable person, but was perhaps not always the best guide for a boy. He led, however, much the life of other English boys of his class, and his school experiences furnished him with some of the material for 'Harry Blount'—a book, by the way, the writing of which is, singularly enough, nowhere mentioned. He had a passion for poetry and for outdoor life, and a decent property which was afterwards lost. His father had expressly forbidden his becoming a lawyer, and he was at first expected to go through Oxford and become a clergyman; but conscientious scruples, aided by reaction from the teaching of a narrow and bigoted clerical "coach," forbade this course. He had not, at this time, to consider the necessity of earning a living, and so drifted naturally into landscape-painting and literature. In 1855 he published, at his own expense, 'The Isles of Loch Awe, and Other Poems,' and the failure of this volume discouraged him so completely that for some time he deserted literature and devoted himself entirely to art. Even when he returned to literature again, in 'A Painter's Camp,' it was, at first, with the idea of contributing to his reputation as a painter.

It has often been said that every young painter should have a competence of his own, and it often seems that the poor man who attempts the career of art loses much valuable time in the mere struggle for existence. Yet it may be doubted if Hamerton's little fortune was an unmixed benefit to him as a painter, though it may have helped to make him a critic. In the first place, it prevented his being taken seriously by those to whom he applied for advice, and so prevented his having the right instruction at the right time. No artist who saw him "riding a good horse" would believe that he wanted more than the kind of lessons given to the usual wealthy amateur. In the second place, it enabled him to satisfy all his whims and to live without work, so that he spent endless time contriving camping outfits and boats and apparatus and systems of note-taking, when the practical work of scene-painting and book-illustrating of the young Turner would have been infinitely more to the purpose; and to live away from cities, which he hated, but which are the only places where the trade of painting can be learned.

Even more fatal to his hopes was the influence of John Ruskin, then at its height. Ruskin convinced him that the observation and strict imitation of nature in all its detail was the one thing needful, and that all artistic tradition was hurtful and wrong. No one told him that the study of the figure was the one initiation to all art; no one taught him to see or to paint. His master, an obscure but conscientious artist, only taught him to copy his own works and to draw contours with rigid truth to measurement. With no training but that of a topographical draughtsman, he went off and set himself face to face with the most difficult country in the world, the highlands of Scotland, and spent years trying to paint from nature where the effect is not constant for two minutes, and to combine pre-Raphaelite detail and literalness with a rendering of nature's most splendid and most fleeting moments. The effort was bound to end in failure. He confesses that his wife, a French lady whom he had met in Paris in 1855, and whom he married and brought to Scotland in 1859, had more real sympathy with and knowledge of art at that time than he, and she reports how he used to bring her the most painfully minute and labored studies, only to be met with the remark that, "if it were true, it did not look so to me, since it produced none of the sensations of the natural scene. 'You would like me to exaggerate, then?' he asked. 'Yes,' I answered, 'if that is the way to make it *look* true.'"

The labor of these years made the 'Painter's Camp' a successful book, but, as training in art, the only result was to convince him that Ruskin was wrong, and to teach him the difference between art and nature. As a critic the lesson was invaluable to him, but it came too late to make him a painter. He lost his property, and had to work for his support and that of his family. His book had made him a name as a writer, while his pictures would not sell, and a professional writer he became and remained, though he never gave up trying to paint. It was because he had first failed as an artist that he became a good critic.

Having dwelt on that part of Hamerton's life which had the greatest share in making him what he was, the rest may be passed in review more rapidly. In 1861 he went to reside in France, first at Sens and afterward near Autun. It will prove a surprise to many that his eminently sane and wholesome books were produced with such mental strain as to occasion a painful nervous disorder, which, until near the end of his life, was always brought on by railway travel, so that he was forced to live in partial seclusion and far from books and galleries—a great handicap in his work. In his last years he was able to stand travel and the life of cities better, and he removed to the outskirts of Paris. He died suddenly of heart disease on the 4th of November, 1894.

The book is well printed and contains a well-executed photogravure portrait, which shows a far stronger and finer head than the engraved portrait published with Hamerton's 'Portfolio Papers.'

RECENT POETRY.

PIERRE RONSARD, whom Mary Queen of Scots crowned as Apollo, and whom the French critics of his day ranked as the third poet of the universe, said that poetry, being the language of the gods, should not be lightly attempted by men, and that only the inspired should venture on it at all. This opinion is doubtless shared by all poets, and they vary mainly in their classification of the inspired; as when Southey ranked himself above all his contemporaries, and Matthew Arnold placed himself before Browning and Tennyson. Unfortunately this same variation extends to the judgment of critics; and all the effort of what is called scientific criticism has yet gone no farther than to lay down a few very simple rules, all of which, according to Thoreau, the poet straightway proceeds to violate with impunity. There are grades in poets, but what contemporary shall do the grading? Where, for instance, shall we class Rudyard Kipling? In taking up his new volume, 'The Seven Seas' (Appleton), the reader feels at first a thrill from the sonorous title; then recognizes that there is here a stronger claimant than Sir Edwin Arnold to the name once bestowed on the latter by an admirer, "The Poet of the Drum-beat of Empire." Never equalling Arnold in the felicity of some of his Indian ballads, Kipling incomparably surpasses him in vigor, in resonance, and (though this is harder) in the honest brag which is inseparable from the theme, and which Americans do not grudge to their elder brothers. Then, as a singer of sea marvels and mysteries, Kipling stands alone; and this is a more real power than lay in the questionable Anglo-Orientalism in which his muse had birth. He has also shown his power, as in "Danny Deever," to touch the universal human heart. It is of this last, however, that one feels the want in this volume, with all its superb quality. Kipling is always, of course, "virile," but there is no word of cant in the criticism of the day more perilous than this. We need to remind ourselves every day that mere strength is not enough; it is not the supreme quality to be virile alone—every hod-carrier is that, and is indeed very likely to surpass in brute force the architect whose plans he carries out. There are moments in reading the first half of this volume, and a great many more in turning over the second half, when we seem to be listening to a voice originally fine, but beginning to be broken and hoarsened by too much singing on board ship, for the delight of the forecastle, through wind and fog. We are tempted to ask ourselves whether Lablache can ship as a boatswain without spoiling his organ.

Then the book is half filled with the old barrack-room material, with odds and ends from Tommy Atkins's haversack. Even Mr. Atkins's dialect grows tiresome; one can have enough of "Gawd" and "bloomin'" and "poor beggars." We remember, too, that we are taking on trust the whole of this Anglo-Indian soldier-slang; and is it all quite genuine? It is well known that old Californians never admitted Bret Harte's local coloring to be authentic, and that Mr. Harte himself used to express a lively contempt for all that sort of thing as offered by Joaquin Miller. Mr. Kipling, it must be remembered, is now venturing perilously near us, and we cannot help testing his native dialect by his handling of our own. When we find him putting a Babel of mixed Americanisms into the mouth of Cape Ann fishermen, in his new story 'Captains Courageous'; when we find him making them say "a heap better" and "plumb distracted" and "twist round a piece"—phrases as unsuited to his heroes as would be palms and pomegranates on the East Gloucester downs—one is led to ask whether his Hindustani vernacular is any better. We have the testimony to the contrary of that exceedingly keen and cool Oriental, the Swami Vivekananda, who habitually shrugged his shoulders at the mention of Mr. Kipling's name. He pointed out that the very title of his spirited poem, "Gunga Din," was an utter misnomer, being, indeed, an impossible combination, the one word being Hindu and the other Mohammedan; and, moreover, that no Hindu would serve as a water-carrier to Christians. Mr. Kipling, at any rate, must be judged at last not merely by his vast vocabulary, but by his staying power, and of this he has given us as yet no final proof. For immediate and startling effects he stands unrivalled.

A similar question of grading arises in the case of another sea-loving poet, quite unlike Mr. Kipling, namely, Celia Thaxter, whose collected poems (Appledore Edition—Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) have the attraction which will always belong to the work of a person of rare and gifted nature, limited in both temperament and experience, and beset by the double disadvantage of alternate repression and flattery. It shows an innate strength of character that she rose above both of these, and extracted a really generous and beautiful life out of such drawbacks. Her poetry is like the flowers of the island she loved—a scanty yield, yet taking richer tints and deeper fragrance from the tonic neighborhood of the salt air. She knew all the New England literati of her time, yet it is not apparent that she was much influenced by any; certainly not by Lowell, whom she knew best. She showed rather more of the religious atmosphere of Whittier, whom she copied in the simple ballad measure which they both liked, and also in the strong inclination for a superfluous final verse conveying the moral. There is, indeed, in many of these verses a degree of dilution which brings them perilously near to the commonplace; and it is a curious fact that her first published poem, "Landlocked," printed by Lowell in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and here placed at the head of the volume, is incomparably the most artistic thing she ever achieved, and, as such, though no longer a novelty, is always worth quoting.

The poetical part of 'W. V., Her Book and Various Verses,' by William Canton (Stone & Kimball), is not, perhaps, so very much better than other people's poetry; or, if it is, it is so distinctly outshone by the prose part that it has no chance. The title, too, is enigmatical, but the delineation of the actual child known by the unexplained initials is simply the most charming portrayal of a child's life since 'Pet Marjorie.' Such a warm, delicious, original little bit of unspoiled existence would reach many hearts, were it but known; and her unflinching blunders cheer the heart of man. "Of course she wanted a story; I might have anticipated as much. Well, there was King Robert the Bruce, who was saved by a spider from his enemies when they were seeking his life. 'And if they had found him, would they have sworded off his head? Really, father? Like Oliver Crumball did Charles King's?' Her grammar was defective, but her surmises were beyond dispute: They would" (p. 7). Thus W. V. is followed through "Her Birthday," "Her Book," "Her Friend Littlejohn," and "Her Bedtime"; and though her loving papa is not without a touch of poetic fire, especially in his seaside ballads, yet he has chosen to celebrate a daughter who outshines him, and he must take the consequences.

It is a far cry from 'W. V.' to Mr. Riley, but the latter's 'Child-World' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill) is another venture in that direction where he has been so successful, having really struck out a path as new and fresh as was marked in Whittier's 'Snow Bound,' than which it is indeed much more daring. Whittier gives a prose idyl of old-time New England life; but Mr. Riley gives Hoosier child-life, and this in dialect—a series of what it is now the fashion to call "human documents"; the tales told by the children themselves, the stories narrated to them, and the varying personality of the narrators. The dialect is sometimes as puzzling to the uninitiated as that of Uncle Remus, but Mr. Riley gives us, like Uncle Remus, a perfectly delineated group with its surroundings; and the respective characters, such as Bud and Lauretty and the Hired Man, are as real as if we had seen them.

The issue of two volumes of 'Elizabethan Sonnet-cycles,' by Martha Foote Crowe (Chicago: McClurg), is a well-meant enterprise, and is, moreover, on its own plan, well executed, the accuracy of proof-reading being especially commendable. The trouble is, that the plan adopted is neither the one thing nor the other. Any such reprint of an old author must be either scholarly or popular. This series cannot be called scholarly, because all the spelling is modernized, a thing not now approved of by scholarship. Nor is it popularized, because for this there would be needed a whole apparatus of notes and elucidations, whereas the editor gives only one or two, thus conceding the necessity, but not answering the demand. This omission is the more noticeable as the material was in most cases ready for the editor's use in previous critical editions.

The four series of poems selected are Samuel Daniel's "Delia," Henry Constable's "Diana," Thomas Lodge's "Phillis," and Giles Fletcher's "Licia." Let us take the last for example. The work had been previously edited by the Rev. Alexander B. Grosart in his "Miscellanies of the Fuller Worthies Library" (vol. iii., 1871), a book doubtless easily accessible in the great Chicago libraries, though not cited by the editor. Grosart reproduces the original spelling, and adds notes to the peculiar or obsolete words. Now there happens to occur in "Licia" one of the most singular verbal whims to be found in an Elizabethan writer, and one which, glaring as it is, has been ignored by all the great lexicographers until Murray, and is left unexplained even by him. The poet twice uses the word "ebon" with reversed meaning, to signify white instead of black. In praising a beautiful woman he speaks of her "ebon hands" (p. 122) and her "ebon thighs" (p. 112). Neither the Century Dictionary nor Stormont's alludes to this strange usage, still less any of their predecessors; it is only in the latest volume of Murray that we find the fact even noted, and he offers no explanation. Nor has any been offered except by Prof. G. L. Kittredge of Harvard University, who suggests that the word may have been originally written "eburn" from *ebur*, ivory, as in Ovid's *eburnea brachia*. Now here was an instance of a required and even indispensable footnote. Grosart gives a note saying "ebon, ivory, not ebony (black): a noticeable occurrence of the word" (iii, 109), after which plain fingerpost any following editor should at least have pointed out the strange usage; yet the present editor does not even mention it. For the sonnet-series themselves, they will always be interesting to students, were it only from their extreme irregularities of form, making it only the more remarkable that Shakspere and Milton should have achieved the standards of regularity they had. To recur to the spelling, it is true that Arber, in his 'English Garner,' reprints with modernized spelling some of these very sequences as well as others, such as "Drilla," "Cœlia," and "Idea"; but the example is a poor one, and it is much better to follow that of Grosart and also of Pollard in his edition of Sidney's "Astrophel and Stella," the forerunner and exemplar of all this whimsical race of books.

'English Epithalamies,' edited by Robert H. Case (London: Lane; Chicago: McClurg), is a book which does in an extremely careful and scholarly manner a task which was perhaps hardly worth doing, the collecting of English marriage poems, largely Elizabethan. Most of these are simply Catullus hammered out into rhyme and a little coarsened; while some of them, as those of Spenser, Jonson, Chapman, and Donne, give us finer and more poetic touches. Many, however, are hardly more than the old time fescennine verses; and the thorough and discriminating historical preface of the editor is perhaps the best part of the book.

Another of the Bodley Head anthologies is 'Musa Piscatrix,' by John Buchan, including many well-known poems and others hardly worth knowing, with illustrations by E. Philip Pimlott; these last adding but little to the attractions—we might say the professional attractions—of the volume. A newer and fresher outdoor book is 'Haunts of Wild Game,' by Isaac McLellan (New York: C. B Bradford), a little collection of poems by that fine old veteran sportsman whose 'Poems of the Rod and Gun' has been heretofore reviewed in these columns, and who now, at the age of ninety, sends forth another volume of the same kind. He is a native of Portland, Me., a townsman and lifelong friend of Prof. Longfellow and N. P. Willis, and now resides at Greenport, Long Island. He is a cousin of the late James Freeman Clarke, and pictures of Mr. McLellan at sixty and at ninety show that he is a worthy compeer of that excellent man in the vigor of his old age. The outdoor quality of his poems is fresh and simple, while their poetic execution is fair.

Another well-edited English anthology is 'Book-Verse: An Anthology of Poems of Books and Bookmen, from the Earliest Times to Recent Years,' prepared by W. Roberts for the "Bookhunters' Library" (Armstrong). The introduction and notes are excellent. The crowning and admirable bit of work in this direction, however, must be sought in 'The Treasury of American Sacred Song,' with notes explanatory and biographical, selected and edited by W. Garrett Holder, and published in the beautiful typography of the Oxford University Press (London and New York: Frowde). American authors have grown so accustomed to "a younger brother's portion" in the way of English criticism that it must give them at once a sense of honor to receive such careful and appreciative recognition, and a sense of shame that the same thing has never been done nearly so well in this country. With a corps of friendly advisers and assistants on both sides of the ocean, and with the British Museum at his elbow, Mr. Holder has achieved a book not only of exquisite execution, but almost absolutely free from error. In all the details given, we note but two or three points of fact needing correction. Mr. Holder mentions with approval, on his very first page, "the remark of Colonel Higginson to Matthew Arnold," namely, the phrase which the latter disapproved, about the "one drop more of nervous fluid" in the American. This was not, however, a remark made to Mr. Arnold, but one which occurred in Col Higginson's essay called "The Murder of the Innocents" ('Out-Door Papers,' p. 101), where it appeared, curiously enough, as the basis of a physiological warning, though Mr. Arnold interpreted it as a piece of boasting. Again, it is not correctly stated (p. 354) that Emily Dickinson's manuscript poems were "written in continuous lines, like prose"; this having rarely, though occasionally, happened. The mistake perhaps grew out of the fact that she frequently, in her letters, passed abruptly from prose to verse, but always marking the distinction in the lines. Again, it is rather a pity to perpetuate (as on p. 355) the phrase "Helen Hunt Jackson," as no woman would have less liked to bear simultaneously the names of two husbands. Nor can we always agree with the editor's criticism, as where he speaks of the "Psalm of Life" as one of the "least worthy" poems of Longfellow. It was an early poem, of course, and one of the least ambitious, intellectually speaking; but its high moral purpose, its simplicity, and its wide influence must surely take it out of the category to which Mr. Holder assigns it. The criticism is more unexpected from the fact that more pages of this volume are naturally given to Whittier than to any one else. The editor's general tone is, however, modest and courteous. The book has the further merit of interpreting its title very widely, and recalls sometimes the liberal theory of those who hold that we should hear only sacred music on Sunday, but that all good music is sacred.

Another valuable book from England is the second volume of Mr. Arthur S. Way's translation of Euripides (Macmillan). We ventured, some time since, to criticise the first volume for what seemed a somewhat jaunty attempt to render the stately choruses into vivacious English verse, thus often suggesting a comparison with Swinburne's 'Atalanta in Calydon,' than which few things are really less Greek. We find the same fault now, but greatly diminished in degree, perhaps designedly, perhaps because we have grown used to it; and we still observe an occasional use of unusual Scotch and other unfamiliar words, as (on p. 41) "a scaur to ascend," whereas only those who remember their "Young Lochinvar" will know what a scaur is. But in all else the translation is really admirable; and better still is the preface on "Euripides and his Work," which for the first time vindicates the great man, of whom Professor Moulton has said that he has been "next to Shakspere the best abused poet in literature." Mr. Way shows that Euripides, instead of being inferior to his great rivals Æschylus and Sophocles, was really their superior in what most touches modern humanity, in uttering the sentiment of sympathy from man to man, and in assigning true dignity and worth to woman. It is strange, indeed, that because of phrases he has put into the mouths of cynics, he should pass for a misogynist, when he introduced into the dramatic literature of the world four such noble feminine types as Alcestis, Iphigeneia, Makaria, and Polyxena. Goethe always maintained that Aristophanes, with his wicked wit, had permanently impaired the fame of Euripides; but Mr. Way has done all that one man can do to reclaim it.

A less satisfactory book of English translations is one which looks at first glance most attractive, and which wins American regard by its dedication to that friend of scholars Professor Norton. It is entitled 'Dante, Petrarch, Camoens, CXXIV Sonnets, translated by Richard Garnett, LL.D.' (Copeland & Day). The translator has earned the gratitude of many of our students as librarian of the British Museum, and he has also published a volume of his own poems; so that this set of versions plainly represents the solace and amusement of his life. That is well; but all experience shows that a translator must be born rather than made, and in dealing with sonnets by the picked sonnetteers of the world there is needed a rare combination of gifts. Of these, especially in the case of Petrarch, the sense of beauty in execution must rank almost first; nothing since the gems of Greek literature has required it more. It is in this sense that Mr. Garnett does not seem to us sufficiently strong; nor do his versions keep closely enough to the literal to vindicate in that way—if that can be a vindication—the æsthetic defect. This criticism can be vindicated only by taking some well-known instance, and considering it rather in detail. The following sonnet, describing an imaginary interview with Laura in heaven, is among the most celebrated. It is a defect in Mr. Garnett's arrangement that he does not give, as is usual, the first line of the original, which is in this case *Levommi il mio pensier in parte ov' era*. This is his translation (p. 88):

Exalted by my thought to regions where
I found whom earthly quest hath never shown,
Where Love hath rule 'twixt fourth and second zone;
More beautiful I found her, less austere.
Clasping my hand, she said, "Behold the sphere
Where we shall dwell, if Wish hath truly known.
I am who wrung from thee such bitter moan;
Whose sun went down ere Evening did appear.
My bliss, too high for man to understand,
Yet needs thee, and the veil that so did please,
Now unto dust for briefest season given."
Why ceased she speaking? Why withdrew her hand?
For rapt to ecstasy by words like these,
Little I wanted to have stayed in Heaven.

Comparing this with the Italian, we note at once a cumbrous and mechanical substitution of "'twixt fourth and second zone" for the simple *terzo cerchio* of the original. The image "whose sun went down" and the phrase "rapt to ecstasy" are both additions, and trite ones. The participle "clasping" is far less simple and vigorous than the preterite *Per man mi prese*, as is the plural "we shall dwell" than the direct appeal, *Sarai ancor meco*, while the similar appeal *Te solo aspetto* would be far better left in the first person than linked to another subject: it is not merely her bliss which lacks him, but she who looks for him. "Wish hath truly known" is an awkward phrase; and "wish" really renders *desir* with no nearer accuracy than the word "hope" would have attained. We have taken this sonnet quite at random, but it illustrates the point with which we began, that Mr. Garnett is an honest and laborious but by no means heaven-born translator.

'Songs of Exile,' by Herbert Bates (Copeland & Day), is another of the pretty little "Oaten Stop" series, and speaks the longing for the shore and the seaside of one banished to the prairies; Mr. Bates being now, as we understand, a resident of Nebraska, but a Harvard graduate of 1890. There is a good deal of salt air in the poems, the best of which is perhaps this (p. 34):

SEA GULLS.

Whence come the white gulls that sail,
That flutter, and sink, and sail?
Their red beaks flash and glitter,
Their wide wings droop and trail.

They follow the sea-tide's call,
They troop, at the sea-tide's call,
Over the wide sea-spaces
And along the dark sea-wall.

Along the dark sea steep,
By the black cliffs, bare and steep,
They flutter, and fall, and scream,
They drift slow-winged in sleep.

They wander and brighten and gleam
As the wind-clouds shift and gleam—
Souls of sea-winds that wander
In a mist-encircled dream.

'Songs of the South' (Philadelphia: Lippincott) is a collection of Southern (United States) poets, from the colonial times until now, edited by Jennie Thornley Clarke of the Georgia Normal and Industrial College, and prefaced with a few judicious words by Joel Chandler Harris. There is not much of critical spirit in the selection, and the best of the poems are well known; Lanier's "Marshes of Glynn" and Ticknor's "Little Giffen" standing easily at the head. The net is thrown widely, as is usually the case in all local collections—including, for instance, Poe, who was born in Boston, was educated in Virginia, and resided everywhere; Pike and Prentice, who were born at the North, but spent their lives at the South; and Allston, who was born in Charleston, S. C. The editor's account of him is the only instance we notice that looks like straining the point for a favorable showing. Miss Clarke merely says that he was "educated at the North on account of his health, and spent much time abroad" (page 317). That he left South Carolina in early boyhood; that he dwelt most of his life in Massachusetts, being there twice a husband and twice a widower; that his studio was in Cambridgeport, and that he was buried by torchlight in Old Cambridge—these are rather important facts to overlook. Out of his sixty-four years of life Allston spent in all but fifteen in Europe. The general fairness of the book, however, indicates that this partial misrepresentation of the facts was unintentional.

There is a steady supply, from what may be called the Bryan region of the country, of poetic volumes which have a certain promise and a certain pathos. There is in them a genuine love of nature, with a fair amount of local coloring in that respect. There is a good deal of the romance of domestic antiquity; of The Old Farm, and The Clock that Father Used to Wind. There is also a good deal of James Whitcomb Riley. There is much of encouragement in them, however, to the patriotic and patient spirit, which is checked only when they occasionally strike a false note and indulge in rhapsodies about "dead Guénivere" and "a glove of mauve." One of the best of these books is 'Showers and Sunshine,' by Will T. Hale (Memphis, Tenn.: Gayoso; but printed and bound in Boston). Not so good, though more pretentious, is the latest work of the inexhaustible Mr. Cawein, 'The Garden of Dreams' (Louisville, Ky.: Morton). Mr. Cawein is a shade less imitative than in his earlier volumes, but neither time nor criticism has done much to prune down such amazing turgidity as this (pp. 80–81):

How good to kiss her throat and hair,
And say no word! Her throat was bare
As some moon-fungus white and fair.
. . . . . .

Had God or Fiend assigned this hour
That bloomed—where love had all of power—
The senses' aphrodisiac flower?

The dawn was far away. Nude night
Hung savage stars of sultry white
Around her bosom's Ethiop light;

and so on indefinitely. As a rule, the Atlantic States do not produce this sort of thing; their weak point is in an affectation of the boulevards, with French phrases and opera-box flirtations. 'Beaux and Belles,' by Arthur Griscom (Putnams), and 'Love and Laughter,' by the late James G. Burnett (Putnams)—the latter with a preface by William Winter,—are favorable examples, but the 'Poems' of the late H. C. Bunner (Scribners) of course stand at the head, though the best in this kind are but shadows. A single poem, "Shriven" (p. 240), remains as a solitary instance of what this last author might, perhaps, have accomplished had his career not come to a climax as editor of *Puck*. It is the meditations of a mediæval knight after he has been shriven and is left to die in peace; his vain efforts to lift his mind from the well-trodden paths of exceedingly secular memories, culminating at last with a sigh of regret that his dog is not with him for companionship. In terseness, vigor, and dramatic quality it could scarcely have been bettered by Browning.

'A Quiet Road,' by Lizette Woodworth Reese (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), has that calm, lily-scented atmosphere which always belongs to this lady's poems; she knows how to make the most of what we have that is colonial and picturesque; and this is done without straining or affectation. She even takes pains to explain in a footnote that the "Dorset levels" in the poem which follows are not transatlantic, but are only on the Eastern Shore of Maryland, and that she has therefore a full right to dwell on them and theirs (p. 57):

THE LAVENDER WOMAN—A MARKET SONG.

Crooked, like the bough the March wind bends wall-
ward across the sleet,
Stands she at her blackened stall in the loud market
street;
All about her in the sun, full-topped, exceeding sweet,
Lie bundles of gray lavender, a-shrivel in the heat.

What the Vision that is mine, coming over and o'er?
'Tis the Dorset levels, aye, behind me and before:
Creeks that slip without a sound from flaggy shore to
shore;
Orchards gnarled with springtimes and as gust-bound
as of yore.

Oh, the panes at sunset burning rich-red as the rose!
Oh, colonial chimneys that the punctual swallow
knows!
Land where like a memory the salt scent stays or
goes,
Where wealthy is the reaper and right glad is he that
sows

Dripe and d·ips the last June rain, but toward the even-
fall
Copper gleam the little pools behind the pear-trees
tall:
In a whirl of violet, and the fairest thing of all,
The lavender, the lavender sways by the sagging wall.
. . . . . .
Oh, my heart, why should you break at any thoughts
like these?
So sooth are they of the old time that they should
bring you ease;
Of Hester in the lavender and out among the bees,
Clipping the long s'alks one by one under the Dorset
trees.

'Heart Songs,' by Rachel B. McMullen (Worcester: The Author), is a modest little book, plaintive and affectionate rather than inspired. 'Bohemian Legends, and Other Poems,' by F. P. Kopta (Jenkins), has a grim and patriotic rather than a poetic and pleasurable interest; and that it should have reached a second edition within two years shows how varied our national ingredients are becoming. In the same way the translated 'Poems of Johanna Ambrosius' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) have an astonishing personal interest as the work of a German peasant woman, but are not in themselves eminently attractive. 'Ballads of New Jersey in the Revolution,' by Charles D. Platt (Morristown: The Jerseyman Print) belong in the historical rather than the poetic alcove. In the way of new charade-books there are 'A New Book of Charades,' by Katharine I. Sanford (White), and '96 Charades,' by Norman Gray (Lamson). These, like all the rest, travel in the path of Mr. Bellamy's well-known 'Century of Charades,' of which a second series also appears (Houghton); but, after all, it is one of those cases where Eclipse is first and the rest nowhere. 'Notes and Half-Notes,' by Frank E. Sawyer (Putnams), are largely poems of music, and not without merit as such. 'Echoes from the Mountains,' by C. E. D. Phelps (Putnams), has some good outdoor description, yet is at its best in the following (p. 45):

EPITHALAMIUM.

Here ends all art, all artificers end:
Come ye, look thro' our little golden loop;
Here is the best that heaven to earth did send,
Here is the bond of love, and joy, and hope;
The soldier's laurel, poet's bay, down fling,
Take up this tiny wreath, the marriage ring.

The double bow, which heralds sunny weather,
The shining halo of the rising day,
Th' equator smooth, which binds the world together,
The chaplet fair, that rounds the brow of May,
A diadem by meanest mortals owned,
Who rightly wears thee, sits a king enthroned.

Let but a slender finger swift pass thro' thee,
And all delights shall follow in its train.
Hold fast by this, and woe may not undo thee,
That brave ring-armor blunts the edge of pain.
Gentles, but hearken to the minstrel's voice,
And ye shall ne'er repent, but aye rejoice.

'A Book of Old English Ballads,' with an accompaniment of decorative drawing by George Wharton Edwards and an introduction by Hamilton W. Mabie (Macmillan), is a really charming gift-book of the very best of the old English and Scotch ballads, unaccountably omitting, however, the most tender and touching among them all, "Annie Lochroyan." The selection and introduction have the average excellence of Mr. Mabie's literary work; but the drawings, though always decorative and sometimes ingenious, exhibit in all the faces an indescribable modernness of expression which removes them by centuries from the period whose costumes they wear. Mr. John Todhunter, on the other side, transfers us to the domain of Irish legend, which he uses very effectively in 'Three Irish Bardic Tales,' being metrical versions of the tales known as the Three Sorrows of Story-Telling (London: Dent; Chicago: Way & Williams). Were it not that Aubrey de Vere had preceded him with "The Swans of Lir" and Dr. Joyce with "Deidré," these myths would be distinct additions to the poetic treasury o

the world; nor are they without merits and charms, even as it is.

'Under Quicken Boughs,' by Nora Hopper (New York: The Bodley Head), gives us another example of that Celtic strain which is adding so pure and delightful a freshness to recent English poetry; and the author constantly recalls Mr. Yeats—the prince of all this class of rhymers—in the utter freedom with which she handles all the picturesque properties and enigmatical names of Irish fairy mythology. The Shee and the Fomorah and Miscann Many and the Ceol-Sidhe are as familiar to this writer as if she had been cradled among them, as very likely she was; and the mystic dancers come and go through the air and call the living to join them as in Yeats's bewildering lays. So attractive does she make it all that the latter half of the book, with its Greek and Norse legends, seems comparatively remote and unattractive, and we wish to get back to the society of Fiachra and the Dinny Math. It is all very much like O'Brien's 'Diamond Lens,' or Goethe's 'Melusina,' where you peep through a keyhole and discern a semi-human world.

If one wishes to turn from the robust—one might perhaps use *Hamlet's* word "robustious"—muse of Kipling to a more profoundly imaginative and thoughtful strain, he will find it in Victor Plarr, whose 'In the Dorian Mood' (New York: The Bodley Head) is also before us. Mr. Plarr is well-known as one of the more thoughtful among the Rhymers' Club; he is apparently not English by descent, but essentially so in his handling, and more than English in his breadth. It would be hard to put before us a better example of the way in which a thoroughly poetic mind can use the materials that lie directly around him than in the fine feeling and shaping imagination of this London poem (p. 102):

THE DEER IN GREENWICH PARK.

Pathetic in their rags, from far and near,
The children of the slums o'erswarm the grass;
Pathetic in their grace the kinglike deer
Leap up to let them pass.

Where riot scares the gloom and fevers burn,
These wizened babes were pent till morning light;
Slim shadows moving 'mong the moonlit fern,
These shy deer strayed all night.

In the hot hours London's poor wastrels find
Their paradise in this brown London park;
The lordlier brutes, in the scant shade reclined,
Pant for the hours of dark

When some dim instinct of primeval years
Thrills on a sudden through each dappled breast,
And with untamable mysterious fears
The herd is repossessed.

Then the branched horns are toss'd; the nostrils fine
Respire the sleepy breath from London's heart,
And bucks, and does, and fawns, in spectral line,
Forth from their bracken start.

An antlered watchman stamps a shapely hoof—
Is that a tartaned Gael within the brake?
Did Luath bay below the heath-clad roof—
Doth Fingal's son awake?

. . . . . .

Who knows what stirs them? Nay, can any guess
That which their beautiful clear eyes import
When, at high noon, about the hand they press,
Begging in timid sort,

Save haply the exile's doom, which is the same
Whether 'tis buried in the tragic eyes
Of king discrowned, or wanderer without name,
Bondman, or brute that dies?

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

THE two-volume 'Historical Tales, Greek and Roman' (Lippincott) is a useful plan of Mr. Charles Morris's, judiciously, if not ideally, carried out. There is real need for such a book, and the stories are given in short flights, well adapted to youngsters who are just fledging their wings for the reading-book. The best of them follow closely Herodotus, Livy, and Plutarch—the closer the better, as a matter of course. Mr. Morris shows a praiseworthy desire to be careful in matters of history, but he has it on his conscience besides to set up sign-posts against the legends; yet we believe "the noble lies" of Livy and Herodotus are more precious to the childish soul than many a vulgar matter of fact. In these sceptical days, the infant scientist may be trusted to part with his faith quite early enough for his intellectual health; nor can we quite approve the principle which warns the innocent mind against the ring of Polycrates and the nursing wolf of Romulus and Remus, and on the next page endorses a false etymology of the word *celer*. But the selection is, in general, good and inspiring, the style is clear and simple, very rarely striking a false note or deviating into a slipshod sentence.

'The Long Walls' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is a handsome volume which describes a boy's adventures in Greece and his exploration of a ruined town near Missolonghi. What with Wallachian shepherds and earthquakes and thrilling discoveries, there is a high spice of legitimate excitement mingled with the lessons of archæology. Uncle Ned, who administers these, is a gentleman who may be trusted with children and is a safe and scholarly guide. "Van's" slang is probably not overdrawn, but is certainly overdone. Boys talk slang, it is true, but that is no reason why they should read it constantly. However, with this exception, the style is in good taste, and is always vivacious; the illustrations are excellent; the local color, and even the Greek quotations, are accurate. The story is just as attractive as if it contained no information, and yet it gives very correct impressions about art and antiquities as well as about modern Greek life and manners.

The late Col. Thomas W. Knox's 'The Land of the Kangaroo' (Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co.) is marked by the excellences as well as the defects of his previous works of the same character. Considerable information is given in this, his last volume, about the cities of Adelaide, Melbourne, and Sydney and the adjacent country, but in a manner not calculated to interest the young reader. Unnecessary stress also is laid upon the horror of convict life in the penal settlements and on the hulks in the early days of the colonies. The book is attractively provided with illustrations, but a map showing the boy travellers' route would have increased its value.

'The Boy Tramps,' by J. Macdonald Oxley (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), is a spirited and entertaining description of a journey across Canada. The account of life and scenery in the cities, on the plains, and in the mountains is enlivened by a series of blood-stirring adventures, in all of which the boy travellers play a prominent part. They are of the most varied kind, from encounters with highwaymen to shooting a timber slide and riding a half-wild buffalo. The two heroes are very attractive lads, and both amusement and instruction will be gained by accompanying them in their tramp from Quebec to Ottawa and through the passes of the Rocky Mountains on the track of the Canadian Pacific. The illustrations are very good.

'The Green Mountain Boys' is the title rather boldly appropriated by Eliza F. Pollard for a book published by Dodd, Mead & Co. No mention whatever is made of Thompson's well-known work bearing this title, although it is clear that it has furnished much of the material for the present volume. Some of the early incidents and battles of the Revolutionary period are woven together with a love story, the scene changing from Vermont to Massachusetts and back again. From the point of view of an adult there seems little to commend in the book; but we are obliged to testify that some youthful readers find it fascinating.

The new edition of Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge's well-approved and standard children's story, 'Hans Brinker' (Scribners), is furnished with an unusually full and harmonious set of illustrations and vignettes, which really illustrate, at once adorning the book and instructing the reader. The artist, Mr. Allen B. Doggett, made an especial trip to Holland for the purpose of having his work sound and consistent; and he has reason to be satisfied, for his pictures not only are correct and full of local spirit, but have an illuminating relation to the text too often wholly wanting in books of like character.

'What the Dragon-Fly Told the Children,' by Frances Bell Coursen (Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.), he quoted from our best poets, repeating simple melodious poems by Shakspere, Wordsworth, Tennyson, and others—even venturing one from Chaucer. Why these selections should be supposed to gain by a dragon-fly's recitation remains a puzzle, especially as the preface admits that "the poetry itself is the bait by which we hope to catch the children." We think in fairness the dragon-fly should have told the children that he was not quoting Kingsley verbatim when he repeated,

"Be good, dear children, let who will be clever."

It would be a pity to fix in a child's retentive mind even trifling inaccuracies.

This little verse, by the way, holds in a nutshell the kernel of 'Christine's Career,' by Pauline King (Appletons). Christine lived to outgrow her discontent that she lacked the brilliant talents of her father and mother, and to accept willingly as her "career" the work of making a home for her father. The soundness of this doctrine few will dispute, since most of us must do without a career and be content, as Clough once said, with "mere subsistence." Such errors in quotation as "wreathing and writhing" for "reeling and writhing," and "For James Fitz-James was Scotland's King," and such grammar as "she gave he and Teddy," can hardly be laid upon the compositor's burdened shoulders. But it was probably the bookbinder's perverse notion to turn upside down the pretty narcissus decoration of the cover.

Another girls' book, called 'A Genuine Girl,' is by Jeanie Gould Lincoln (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The heroine is a pretty girl and behaves in a pleasant way, but to any one who has ever known one specimen of the kind it will be superfluous to read the book, since Phylis, the "sweet P," is as like all the rest as if they had grown in the same pod. Perhaps the glimpses of Washington society, and the intimacy with Senators, judges, and other people of consideration, may be some compensation for the lack of artistic quality in the book.

This lack is even more strongly felt in Julia P. Dabney's 'Little Daughter of the Sun' (Roberts Bros.). If to make a commonplace story acceptable it is needful only to carry it into a foreign climate, and dress it up with a fantastic name, the business of story-writing has become too easy. In this case that method conspicuously fails. Even with the advantage of living in the island of Teneriffe, the little daughter of the sun is still a "dreadful ordinary" girl. We are left doubting whether she owes her fanciful designation to her tropi-

cal home or to her yellow hair. One is prejudiced against this story by the first glance at its illustrations, which are extremely bad. Altogether the book is one which any child's library can afford to be without.

In the same category we may class 'The Scrape that Jack Built,' by Ottilie A. Liljencrantz (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). The name of the book is hardly more offensive to one's sense of literary propriety than its contents. Jack is so weak and stupid, in addition to his naughtiness, that it is hard to take any interest in him, and impossible to believe that his final repentance is likely to last beyond the next temptation to mischief.

In refreshing contrast is 'Walter Gibbs, the Young Boss,' by E. W. Thompson (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). While taking up a work beyond his years to save an invalid father from ruinous loss, the young boss has a becoming sense of his own inexperience, and knows the important distinction between a self-reliant and a headstrong spirit. Canada is the scene of both this and the other stories in the volume, and the small amount of local color that they show is ingrained. "Tom's Fearful Adventure"—of almost drowning in a washbowl, by getting his head caught under the faucets—and one or two more of the shorter tales, are really better than the title story. The absence of slang throughout is a pleasant feature.

This year Mr. Andrew Lang adds to his long list of books for children a collection of "more or less true stories" about animals which he calls 'The Animal Story Book' (Longmans, Green & Co.). Many different creatures figure here, from bears, lions, and monkeys down to tortoises, frogs, and ants. Some of the stories date from classic times, like that of Androcles and his lion, but most are modern. This book will prove as welcome a feast as former ones of Mr. Lang's providing.

'The Dwarf's Tailor, and Other Fairy Tales' (Harpers) have been collected by Zoe Dana Underhill from widely scattered sources. Germany contributes most, but Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Russia, and Hungary are represented, too. Most of the stories resemble closely the familiar old tales that no child grows up without knowing, but there is sufficient novelty in handling to make them seem fresh and welcome. The English is good and direct, an agreeable change from the corrupt and feeble language in which many children's books are written.

A group of fantastic stories by Harry Jones is called 'Prince Boo Hoo and Little Smuts' (London: Gardner, Darton & Co.). The stories will please young children, fond of violent exercise for their imagination. They have more than usual of genuine gayety and good humor, and less of the galvanic antics so often and so vainly offered to amuse. The necessary grown-up reader, moreover, will find an occasional *mot* to cheer him on, like this: "It isn't right, and, what is more, it does not look well." The pictures are clear and amusing; one, in particular, showing how "the engine was smashed and all the passengers killed," cannot fail to please.

'Fairy Starlight and the Dolls,' by Elizabeth S. Blakeley (A. C. McClurg & Co.), is a book for small girls. Little Bianca, the mistress of four interesting dolls, makes the fairy's acquaintance one fine night and is allowed to join her dolls, incognita, and play with them during their wakeful midnight hours, when they indulge in various active amusements and present an aspect very different from their daytime stolidity. Together they make trips into Doll land, and have some exciting adventures. Bianca finally betrays her identity, and the dolls stiffen at once.

A book in which the children and animals mix on fairly equal terms, and seem to understand each other remarkably well, in spite of their difference in dialect, is 'Jerry the Blunderer,' by Lily F. Wesselhoeft (Roberts Bros.). Jerry is a well meaning, often ill-doing, Irish terrier, whose warm heart more than makes up to his friends for his clumsy manners. It is a safe guess that the children in this book were studies from life, so natural and convincing do their most erratic performances appear. The picture of little Rachel and Harry standing at the open window and "hollering up to God" is both funny and touching. "You see," they explain to their mother, "we have prayed and prayed to God to find a home for that poor little baby who hasn't got any mamma, and God hasn't taken any notice of it at all; so we thought that perhaps if we hollered loud he would be more likely to hear us."

In his 'American Boy's Book of Sports' (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), the author, Daniel C. Beard, shows plainly that he believes in doing well what he undertakes to do. A surprise, therefore, awaits the reader, for it is not customary to expect excellence in books of games addressed to children. This book is praiseworthy from end to end, and will find favor even with those who have long since passed to man's estate. In his chapter about kites Mr. Beard gives a better history of the evolution of the tailless kite than any one of the kite experts has been able to produce, although his story, it should be remembered, is merely incidental to his main purpose, that of teaching boys how to make and fly kites. A brief history of the game accompanies the principal descriptions, and these must have taken time and pains. The careful work of the author impresses one who looks the volume over, and in those matters which, like the building of a boat or a Man-Friday sailing-raft, would involve risk were the directions in the least unpractical, one is led to have confidence in it and deem it safe to place in the hands of children.

Quotations for Occasions. Compiled by Katharine B. Wood. The Century Co. 1896.

WHETHER the ancient Greeks or Romans had anything corresponding to our menu-cards is a question to which the present reviewer has devoted time which perhaps might have been better spent; and the only conclusion he has reached is that of Miss Peecher on the question whether there were any Lizzies in the early Christian church, that "it must be considered very doubtful." The fact is, the Romans (for we must leave out of the question the Greeks, who never got beyond the crudest idea of a dinner) would have considered it the worst possible form to let the guests know what they were going to have. The Roman host's aim was to keep his guests alternating between expectation and surprise; witness the famous banquet of Trimalchio, where every course was a new astonishment.

With the menu-card would go, of course, the menu-mottoes. And yet in the banquet just mentioned there was a feature which seems a dim foreshadowing of them, or rather a turning of the mind in a direction leading to them. An immense platter, or *repositorium*, was brought in, divided into twelve compartments whereon the twelve signs of the zodiac were portrayed, and the ingenuity of the chef had fitted each of these with a congruent dish; on Taurus, a beefsteak; on Pisces a pair of mullets, and so on. Then, as representing the motto-feature, there were the *apophoreta*, or gifts distributed among the guests at Roman dinners, each accompanied with a distich, playfully or wittily allusive.

Domitian employed the poet Martial to write verses for his *apophoreta*, and the modern hostess usually lays the burden of finding mottoes for menu-cards or other entertainments upon some bookworm of her acquaintance. To lighten this burden, the present volume has been prepared; and we do it but justice to say that it not only admirably answers that purpose, but may almost claim a place in literature in virtue of its extensive range of research and ingenuity of application. In proof of the former quality, not only has the author drawn upon those books which everybody turns to for quotations, but such out-of-the-way sources as Heywood, Cartwright, Shackerley Marmion, Guevara's 'Epistles,' the drama of "Sakuntala," and 'The Babees Book.' To illustrate the latter point, take an instance or two almost at random:

(For an actors' dinner.) "'Tis impossible! The Players gone to dinner!" [*Rehearsal.*]

(Mint juleps.) "The delighted spirit
To bathe in fiery floods, or to reside
In thrilling regions of thick-ribbed ice."
[*Measure for Measure.*]

(Bicycle meet.) "The wheel has come full circle: I am here." [*Lear.*]

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adeane, J. H. The Girlhood of Maria Josepha Holroyd [Lady Stanley]. Recorded in Letters of a Hundred Years Ago. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.

A Whist Catechism. 2d ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c.

Aylesworth, Barton O. Song and Fable. Des Moines: The Kenyon Press.

Balfour, M. C. White Sand: The Story of a Dreamer and his Dream. Merriam Co.

Barrie, J. M. Margaret Ogilvy. Scribners. $1.25.

Barrie, J. M. The Little Minister. Vol. II. Sentimental Tommy. Vol. I. [Thistle Edition.] Scribners.

Baxter, Katharine S. In Bamboo Lands. Merriam Co.

Blashfield, E. H. and E. W., and Hopkins, A. A. Vasari's Lives of the Painters. 4 vols. Scribners. $15.

Boswell-Stone, W. G. Shakspere's Holinshed: The Chronicle and the Historical Plays Compared. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.

Bourgeois, Émile. France under Louis XIV.: Its Arts—Its Ideas. Scribners. $15.

Bouvet, Marguerite. Pierrette. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.

Brontë, Charlotte. Jane Eyre. London: Service & Paton; New York: Putnams. $1.

Browning, H. Ellen. A Girl's Wanderings in Hungary. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.

Browning, Mrs E. B. Sonnets from the Portuguese. Boston: Copeland & Day. $2.

Brun, Prof. S. J. Tales of Languedoc. San Francisco: William Doxey. $2.

Bulwer-Lytton, E. Richelieu; or, The Conspiracy. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.

Burgin, G. B. Tomalyn's Quest. Harpers. $1.25.

Chadwick, J. W., and Annie H. Through Love to Light: A Selection of Songs of Good Courage. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.25.

Chambers, R. W. The Maker of Moons. Putnams. $1.50.

Clement, Clara E. The Eternal City, Rome. 2 vols. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $6.

Coffin, C. C. The Boys of '61. New ed. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $2.50.

Collins, J. C. A Treasury of Minor British Poetry. Edward Arnold. $2.50.

Crackanthorpe, Hubert. Vignettes: A Miniature Journal of Whim and Sentiment. John Lane. $1.

Craik, Henry. English Prose. Vol. V. Nineteenth Century. Macmillan. $1.10.

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Dillon, W. Bequests for Masses for the Souls of Deceased Persons. Chicago: William Dillon.

Donovan, Thomas. English Historical Plays. 2 vols. Macmillan. $4.

Dowie, Ménie M. Some Whims of Fate. John Lane. $1.

Dubois, Felix. Timbuctoo the Mysterious. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.

Dubois, Félix. Tombouctou la Mystérieuse. Paris: Flammarion; New York: Brentano's.

Dumas, A. Mary Stuart Queen of Scots. Merriam Co.

Dunbar, Paul L. Lyrics of Lowly Life. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.

Ellwanger, G. H. Love's Demesne. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.

Eux et Elle. By "Gyp." Paris: Lévy; New York: Brentano's.

Ford, Miss Nellie W. Nature's Byways: Natural Science for Primary Pupils. New York: The Morse Co. 40c.

Fouqué, De la Motte. Sintram and his Companions, and Undine. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $2.50.

Fraser, Mrs. Hugh. Palladia. Macmillan. $1.25.

Friedman, I. K. The Lucky Number. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.

Furneaux, W. Life in Ponds and Streams. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.

Gibbon, Edward. The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. Vol. II. Macmillan. $2.

Gold Stories of '49. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.

Gordon, John. Three Children of Galilee: A Life of Christ for Young People. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.50.

Gould, Nat. The Magpie Jacket: A Tale of the Turf. London: George Routledge & Sons.
Gregg, Rev. David. Makers of the American Republic: A Series of Patriotic Lectures. New York: E. B. Treat. $1.50.
Harper's Round Table. 1893. Harper's. $3.50.
Hillis, N. D. A Man's Value to Society. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Irving, Washington. The Alhambra. Illustrated by Joseph Pennell. Macmillan. $2
Jaccacl, A. F. On the Trail of Don Quixote. Scribners. $2.50.
Kelley, Lieut.-Commander J. D. The Ship's Company, and Other Sea People. Harpers. $2.50.
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Mackenzie, Sir James D. The Castles of England: Their Story and Structure. 2 vols. Macmillan. $4.25.
Old South Leaflets. Vol. III Boston: Old South Work.
Payne-Gallwey, Sir Ralph. Letters to Young Shooters. Third series. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Powell, F. Y. The Fereyinga Saga. [Northern Library.] London: David Nutt.
Price, A. T. G. Simplicity: A Novel. London: John Lane; Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Rood, Mrs. E. I. Papers Presented to the World's Congress on Ornithology. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co.
Ropes, J. H. Die Spriche Jesu die in den kanonischen Evangelien nicht uberliefert sind. Leipsig: J. C. Hinrichs.
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Stapfer, Prof. Edmond. Jesus Christ before his Ministry. Scribners. $1.25.
St Nicholas. 1896. 2 vols. Century Co.
Stoddard, W. O. The Windfall. Appletons. $1.50.
Stone, S. J. In and Beyond the Himalayas. Illustrated. Edward Arnold. $4.
The Poetical Works of Robert Browning. 2 vols. Macmillan. $3.50.
The Rulers of the Sea: The Norsemen in America from the Tenth to the Fifteenth Century. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
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Thomas, Edith M. A Winter Swallow, with Other Verse Scribners. $1.50.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents. Vol. I. Acadia, 1610-1613. Cleveland: Burrows Bros Co. $3.50
Urbanowska, Sophie. La Princesse. [Pour les jeunes filles] Paris: Colin & Cie.
Walworth, Mrs. Jeanette H. Uncle Scipio: A Story of Uncertain Days in the South. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Wells, Prof. B. W. Scribe and Legouvé's Bataille de Dames. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 17, 1896.

The Week.

TEN days ago the news came from Spanish sources that Maceo, the insurgent leader in Cuba, had been killed in a skirmish in the province of Havana. The news was promptly denied by the Cuban Junta and their newspapers in the United States. It was said that this was the twentieth time that Maceo had been killed on paper, and that the last report was a lie like all the rest of them. If the Spaniards had won a victory as well as killed Maceo, why did they not produce his body? This was a fair question, and it led to reasonable doubts whether he had been killed or not. A day or two later additional news came. It was explained that Maceo had passed around the Spanish line of forts called the Trocha in boats, with the intention of transferring military operations to the eastern part of the island, and that he had accidentally encountered a detachment of the Spanish forces under Major Cirujeda; that he was killed in the skirmish, but that the fact was not immediately known because his presence there was not suspected; that some Spanish guerillas went over the field rifling the pockets of the slain, and found among other things Maceo's order-book, and a memorandum written by young Gomez saying that he would not abandon the dead body of Maceo. Meanwhile the body itself had disappeared. On Friday all denials ceased, and the admission was made at the Cuban headquarters in Philadelphia that Maceo had been killed at the time and place first mentioned. On Sunday morning a new story burst upon us in the form of posters in the Junta newspapers that Maceo had been murdered. The details were so overwrought and embellished with such alarming job type, and coupled with such appeals for intervention by Congress, as to impart an animus to the tale and cast doubt upon its veracity at once. If Maceo had been murdered, the murder was not done on our territory. He was not an American citizen. How did it concern us? What had Congress to say about it anyway? Apparently the whole story had been "cooked up" for hysterical effect upon American readers and embellished to sell newspapers.

The "war scare" that took possession of the public mind one year ago has not died out with the settlement of the Venezuelan dispute. It has merely taken another form. Evidence of its continued existence was observed on Monday, when the stock market declined heavily on the report that Maceo had been killed by treachery instead of in fair fight—as though that circumstance could make any difference to us. This tale was, naturally enough, made the pretext for a series of resolutions proposed by a Senator whose term of office is expiring, and who finds it necessary to whoop louder than usual for that reason. Yet Mr. Call's state of mind is not that of either the Senate or the House. His resolutions were referred to the committee on foreign relations without debate, and there, we are assured, they will sleep a considerable time, because Senator Sherman, its chairman, has recovered from the fit of Jingoism that afflicted him in common with so many of his fellows last spring. In the House it is affirmed that Chairman Hitt has come back clothed and in his right mind. In short, the Republican party is pretty well satisfied with things as they are, and has no wish to change the issue and start a crusade the end of which cannot be foreseen. The Popocrats, we are obliged to say, have at no time been a Jingo party. They still insist that we shall not submit to foreign dictation as to the kind of money we shall use, but that is a different thing from dictating to foreign countries what they shall do or not do about their own exclusive concerns.

The decline in the stock market was without reason, but it serves to show how extremely sensitive the public mind is to anything like foreign embroilment, and how everything of that nature tends to interrupt business and check the return of prosperity. The anti-British Jingoes, or the survivors of them, in their search for something to take the place of the Venezuelan dispute, have discovered that the Lesser Antilles are in a suffering state by reason of the low price of sugar, and that they want to be annexed to us in order to get an advantage in our market over the German beet-sugar growers. They have been making representations on this subject to the home Government for many years, urging that England shall adopt countervailing duties to the German sugar bounty. Hitherto Parliament has remained deaf to their entreaties. Latterly their prayer has been accompanied by something like a warning that they may be compelled to seek pecuniary salvation by joining the United States. How far this sentiment has found expression it is impossible to say, but it has served as a text for some of our Jingo newspapers. They assume at the outset that those islands are a desirable possession *per se*, whereas they are a source of expense to the country that is now responsible for them, without any corresponding gain or advantage. They are poverty-stricken to the last degree. The whites have mostly abandoned them long since after losing their money in them. Ninety-five per cent. of the population consists of negroes and mulattoes, whose wages are only 20 cents per day. It is their poverty, and not their will, that directs their thoughts towards us, so far as they are thinking about annexation. Do we want any more paupers?

The arrival of the ex-Queen of Hawaii at San Francisco has revived to some extent the flagging interest in the question of the annexation of those islands to the United States. Nearly four years have passed since President Harrison sent to the Senate his treaty to accomplish that object. The treaty was not acted upon by the Senate before Mr. Cleveland's inauguration, and shortly after his accession he withdrew it. There was a good deal of excitement about the matter then and for nearly a year afterwards. Gradually it passed away, so that most people now remember very little about it, except that the Queen's Government was overthrown and a republic set up in its place which has gone on with tranquillity, has paid its own way, and has not been disturbed by either foreign aggression or internal convulsions. All American interests have been as fully protected as they could have been if Hawaii had been a State in the Union and had voted for McKinley in the recent election. One of the current reports is that the ex-Queen has come hither for the purpose of advocating annexation, that the expenses of her journey are paid by the Hawaiian Government, and that she is to have a pension of $10,000 per year if she succeeds in her mission.

Although the Republicans set out to annex the islands in the beginning, and although they put a plank in their last national platform on the subject of Hawaii, they came short of demanding annexation. This is the more remarkable since the same platform did demand the acquisition by purchase of the Danish West Indies, which nobody now seems to want even as a free gift. The exact words of the Hawaiian clause in the platform are these:

> "The Hawaiian Islands should be controlled by the United States, and no foreign Power should be permitted to interfere with them."

The fact is that the islands have been controlled by us for twenty-one years, partly by moral influences, partly by the treaties of 1875 and 1887. The former, the so-called reciprocity treaty, provided that Hawaii should not make any grant or concession of ports or territory, or even of trade reciprocity, to any other country. The latter extended the duration of the former, and gave us the exclusive use of Pearl River harbor in addition, with the privilege of fortifying it if we should

choose to do so. These treaties are as binding on the present Government as they were on that of the Queen, and are in no danger of being abrogated. Nor has any foreign Power shown the smallest desire or intention to interfere with the islands. The control, which is all that the Republican platform demands, is absolute now. It could not be made more so by annexation. But the control of Hawaii over us would begin with annexation, because she would then have demands on our Treasury, and would, after no very long period, send one Representative and two Senators to our Congress. She would begin to enact, in our halls of legislation, the same part that is now enacted by Idaho, Nevada, and Utah, with a constituency composed largely of Japanese, Chinese, and Portuguese, who would of course participate in our Presidential elections at the same time. Moreover, who is to answer for the movements of these interesting types of citizens after they come in? Being already part and parcel of Hawaii, they will become part and parcel of us, not merely as voters, but as persons. They will have the same right to move about that we have. In other words, they will be Americans, and will have the privilege of entering the port of San Francisco when they choose, in such numbers as they choose. They cannot be subjected to restraints in the way of identification that other citizens are not subjected to. We commend this view of annexation to the "Coasters" and all others who are fearful of a Mongolian invasion.

At the Republican Senate caucus on Tuesday week, a resolution was introduced by Senator Wolcott of Colorado of the following tenor:

"Resolved, That a special committee of five members of this caucus be appointed to recommend some plan whereby legislation may be had at this session of Congress looking to an international conference with leading commercial nations of the world for the promotion of bimetallism."

The newspapers say that the resolution was adopted without objection, and in a perfunctory manner, with no expectation that it would lead to any result. It is said to be a sop to Senators from the silver-mining States who did not bolt the St. Louis nominations and absent themselves from the caucus. Moreover, it was considered as in some sort a fulfilment of the clause of the St. Louis platform which says:

"We are therefore opposed to the free coinage of silver except by international agreement with the leading commercial nations of the world, which we pledge ourselves to promote," etc.

Whatever the reasons may have been for adopting such a resolution, it must be looked upon as solemn fooling, if not worse. It will probably turn out to be worse, since it confirms to a certain extent what the Bryanites said all through the campaign, that the country and mankind are suffering for want of bimetallism. If that is the truth, of course they must keep up the fight to bring it about, and logically the Republicans ought to join them. If the requisite number of foreign nations will not join us, then it is equally incumbent on us to do something to bring in bimetallism at home, and the only subject of dispute is whether the ratio of 16 to 1 is the true one, or whether we should adopt one nearer to the market ratio.

The good old times of "tariff hearings" are with us again. How idyllic the programme is! A day for this interest, another for that; one schedule to be "heard" on Monday, another on Tuesday, and so on. All the manufacturers who will march on Washington Coxey-fashion are to be disinterested patriots, anxious only that the dear workingmen may have good wages. They will strain a point with the committee to make their demands for themselves very "moderate." They will gravely tell Chairman Dingley that the rates they ask for are just sufficient to send up wages but not prices, except for those who like to pay higher prices; while as for the manufacturers themselves, they are willing to go on with only two meals a day. Then, of course, there is the revenue—they are all concerned about that. If you come right down to it, all they want a protective tariff for is to bring in revenue. Imported goods are monstrous, to be sure, and no true American can look upon them without disgust; but what is meant is goods imported to be used. Everybody approves of goods imported simply to pay duties and swell the revenue, and which will then immediately disappear and not bother us. If goods are really to come in and be sold as well as pay customs taxes, why, of course, they must be in some other "schedule" than our own. You are scarcely so simple as to think we voted for McKinley merely to have foreign goods dumped on our devoted shores.

The "business men" of Philadelphia, with whom Quay has quarrelled, published on Thursday a letter sent out during the late campaign to a number of candidates for the Pennsylvania Senate and House. It was sent by State Chairman Elkins, and ran as follows: "By request of Senator Quay I take great pleasure in enclosing contribution to defray your campaign expenses." Each letter contained a check for either $500 or $250. This is valuable as an account, in the very words, how the "boss business" is carried on. Platt conducts it in precisely the same manner. He sends candidates checks for "campaign expenses" out of the money levied by him as blackmail on the corporations. The candidate gladly accepts, and if he is elected he is "owned" by the boss, and obeys his orders in the Legislature. Most of these candidates are country lawyers or farmers, or young adventurers, to whom $250 or $500 for any purpose is very welcome. This enables both Platt and Quay to sell legislation, to say what bill shall be passed and what not. Indirectly it enables them to say to the Governors what appointments they shall make. In fact, it operates as a sale of the States to men of bad character. It is a very open transaction, too. It goes on year after year under the eyes and noses of men who profess to have a great deal of patriotism when there is a prospect of a war with England, but none at any other time. It is now about to operate as the sale of a seat in the Senate to Platt, and he is allowed to make the purchase as a reward for a long career of baseness.

One of the alarming features of the New York Senatorial crisis is the silence of the press about it. There is apparently a prospect that a gross outrage on the State is about to be perpetrated by a venal Legislature; and under the new doctrine that when an outrage is likely to succeed, there is no use in saying anything about it, the press has nothing to say about the senatorship. The *Tribune* has very tardily and warily spoken out for Choate, but the others let one of the most important functions of the State as a State be performed with little more than a mention, while they lavish columns on the doings of two foreigners in another country, Weyler and Maceo. If the Union League Club had not spoken up, one of our greatest shames would probably have passed without notice. That is one natural result of boss government. The essentials of American government are publicity and discussion—the doing of public business openly, and the open statement of the reason why each thing is done. The essentials of boss government are silence and secrecy, or, as they have been called in Pennsylvania, "addition, division, and silence."

People who think that our Presidents ought to be chosen by popular vote should find food for reflection in the statement from Austin that, during the last week of November, the State Returning Board was counting the vote of Texas, and that even so long after the election as the 1st of December the figures had not been received at the capital from six counties. Fancy the condition of the country after an election like that of 1880, when Garfield received 214 electoral votes and Hancock 155, if the public had been obliged to wait a month or more for the full returns from Texas in order to learn which candidate had a plurality of the popular vote—the final count in that year showing 9,464 more for Garfield than for Hancock in the whole Union. Think,

too, of the temptation that the Democratic officials who always compose returning-boards in Texas would have had, to throw out 10,000 Republican votes in that State in order to leave Hancock ahead in the whole country—the recent count at Austin having been made behind closed doors by the Governor, Secretary of State, and Attorney-General, without the presence of a single representative of any other party.

The *Iowa State Register* is loath to drop the idea that the sound-money Democrats ought to receive some "recognition" in the way of federal offices from the McKinley Administration. Its latest suggestion is on behalf of Mr. George F. Parker, United States Consul at Birmingham, who is an Iowa man and a Democrat, but who opposed Bryanism and, during the campaign, wrote letters and contributed articles to the press that were "greatly helpful in convincing true Democrats of the United States that Bryanarchy is not Democracy." The *Register* speaks highly of Mr. Parker's official record, and expresses the hope that "civil service, or a proper appreciation of a good man in the right place, will be sufficient to retain Mr. Parker as Consul at Birmingham during the next Administration." As we have previously said in regard to other cases, we do not think that a Democrat ought to be retained in office simply because he opposed Bryanism. On the other hand, we not only believe that Mr. Parker ought to be retained on the ground of his efficiency in office, but we see no reason why every other efficient Consul should not also be retained. Does the *Register* see any?

Gov. Morton deserves the thanks of all friends of good government for his public-spirited action in approving the extension of the civil-service regulations. It is no secret that in doing this he has disregarded the appeals of the Platt machine leaders, who realized that the extension would make their proposed work of nullifying the law more odious and consequently more difficult. They hoped to induce the Governor to delay action till the expiration of his term, feeling sure that Gov. Black would be more easily controlled by them. They have had little Lexow of Nyack and other Platt errand-boys running about on this business for several weeks past, hoping in one way or another to prevent Gov. Morton from taking any action; but all their efforts have come to nothing through the Governor's firmness and sense of public duty. The rules have been extended precisely as the friends of reform wished them to be. Not only have 116 new places been brought under the competitive examinations, but all public officials are subjected to stricter regulations and can be held to greater accountability than ever before. In giving his approval, Gov. Morton takes occasion to say some truths about civil-service reform and the public sentiment of the State in regard to it which the assailants of the law will not relish. "The civil service principle," he says, "as applied to administrative offices, is doubtless here to stay, and its utility will be readily conceded by most persons who have had experience in public affairs. Now that the policy is firmly established in our Constitution and laws, is sustained by our highest courts and justified by experience, it is important that it be judiciously applied in the public service, under a careful but not too rigid classification, and with clear and simple rules, possessing sufficient flexibility to permit modifications which may be found necessary in practical administration."

It is one of the veriest commonplaces that nobody else has so much to hope for from the establishment of civil-service reform and the elimination of partisanship from the mass of the offices as the poor man. For this reason "organized labor" could not have had a more obvious combination of duty and profit than would have been found in a campaign for the merit system. Yet we do not recall any evidence of activity in this line of effort among the various associations of workingmen in this State or elsewhere. It is therefore a gratifying surprise to find that the Indiana State Federation of Trade and Labor Unions has adopted a resolution advocating the passage by the new Legislature of a measure that shall place the entire control of the penal, correctional, and charitable institutions in the hands of the State Board of Charities, in order to abolish the spoils system of control. In advocating this resolution the President claimed that by its passage the Federation would be simply adhering to the policy outlined in its first declaration of principles, and he said that the members of the organization believe that it has had much to do in cultivating public sentiment on this question. The real wonder is that Indiana is the only State where the leaders of "organized labor" have been awake to the importance of this subject to those whom they represent.

The Republican candidate for Congress in the Third Mississippi District last month was a negro who received only a few hundred votes, and it is announced that he will contest the seat of Representative Catchings, who was reëlected. Apparently his claim will rest upon the contention that the present system of qualification for the suffrage in that State is unjust and unconstitutional. Since the new Constitution went into effect, the negro vote has fallen off very greatly. This is due largely to the fact that, in order to be entitled to the suffrage, a man must now be able to read the Constitution or to understand it when read to him, and must also have paid a poll tax, as well as have resided in his election precinct for a year. Honestly enforced, these restrictions would probably bar out ten ignorant, penniless, and migratory blacks to one white. If honestly enforced, nobody who believes that some guards should be put around the ballot-box can object to them.

The mere fact that few negroes now vote in Mississippi does not of itself prove any unfairness in the administration of the constitutional tests for the suffrage. Only a comparatively small proportion of the race can meet the existing qualifications, although the number registered seems to be increasing in a normal manner with the coming of age of youth who have been educated in the public schools. There is another reason for a small colored vote, however, which is seldom thought of. This is the fact that the Southern negro has ceased to regard the ballot as the supreme good. There was a time when he thought that it made little difference whether he worked and saved and accumulated money and learned something, provided he could vote. He has learned that it is far more important for him to acquire some property than it is to cast a ballot for some white or black politician who cares nothing for him. The wisest leaders of the race—men like Booker Washington of Tuskegee, Ala., for example—are much more urgent that the negro shall make himself fit for the suffrage in the future, than that black men who are not fit to exercise it shall cast ballots now; and such leaders have many followers. This is one reason why the colored vote has fallen off in all parts of the South.

Mr. Curzon made an address at Manchester on December 1, in which he spoke forcibly of the way in which diplomacy is hampered in the modern world by the press. The foreign correspondents of all the large papers are continually giving the public startling information about secret treaties or alliances or pending negotiations. These gentlemen are very ingenious and versatile, but the public forgets that they are not usually called right into the interiors of Foreign Offices. They simply hang about outside, and pick up what of rumor or fiction they can, and telegraph it as authentic news. Then the Foreign Secretary goes down to the House and is at once questioned by excited members as to the truth of the alarming news. He has to reply that he has no information on the subject, and then there is much muttering about his "evasion," and about the Government being always behind the newspapers in information. In a day or two the whole yarn is exposed, but by that time another one is invented just as good, and so it goes on.

THE OUTLOOK IN CONGRESS.

THE first political bout in the Senate on the 9th instant furnished a discouraging outlook for the work ahead of the McKinley Administration; for, although the new President is not yet in office, the Congress that is to coöperate with him will be composed of substantially the same raw material as the present. It is possible, but not probable, that the Republicans may muster a majority of the Senate after the 4th of March, but even if they do, there will be untrustworthy elements in it. There will be members like Carter of Montana, who will want to "do something for silver," and who will be pushed on by their constituents to demand something for it as the price of any legislation either tariff-wise or currency-wise. So we may fairly judge of the next Congress by the present one, and the forecast is by no means hopeful.

The Republicans have been wrestling with the Dingley bill. That measure, whether good or bad in itself, is only a temporary makeshift. Even if passed now, it would expire by limitation about eighteen months hence. It cannot be passed now without a fierce debate, on account of the free-silver amendment fastened upon it in the Senate. As there is no rule for limiting talk in the Senate, the silverites could easily carry it along on the tide of debate till the expiration of the session. But if it were passed in its present shape, it would not preclude the necessity of another tariff bill very soon. There is a clamorous faction in the party demanding an extra session of Congress as soon as McKinley is inaugurated in order to pass an entirely new tariff bill. It would be very disturbing to business to pass the Dingley bill on the 3d of March and have an extraordinary session of Congress called on the 4th to pass another bill dealing with the same subject. There would be something ridiculous in such a proceeding also.

These embarrassing features of the situation are present to the minds of the Republican leaders. It was probably for these reasons that they gave the cold shoulder to the Dingley bill in the Senate caucus on Tuesday week. The opposition Senators, being not exactly fools, thought that it would be just as well to make them take their medicine. So Senator Allen of Nebraska moved to take up the Dingley bill as a serious measure of business. That this motion was quite unexpected on the Republican side of the chamber was made plain by the sequel. Senators Aldrich and Platt both objected, but presently withdrew their objections and voted with Allen to take up the bill. In the meantime there was some very pretty by-play, with a view to putting each other "in a hole." Allen had professed a desire to remove all obstructions to the passage of the bill. Chandler suggested that one obstruction to its passage was the free-silver amendment, and wanted to know if Allen would consent to remove that. He would not. He did not consider that an obstruction, but rather the chief lubricant and motor of the bill. Aldrich wanted to know whether Allen would allow the bill to come to a vote immediately. Allen replied that he would not. He wanted to have it carefully considered. He wanted to know, too, whether the Republicans would commit themselves to the Dingley bill for the next four years. This was the only reason why he had called it up. He wanted to put the Republicans "in a hole." They understood the game of holes also, and they declined to go into this one, although they had started for it very promptly when Allen first made his motion. The result is that the Dingley bill is up. How it will be disposed of, it is too early to say, but it is not likely to pass.

This is a discouraging outlook because it promises no beneficial legislation so far as the Senate is concerned, and, of course, there can be none without the cooperation of the Senate. Turning to the House, we find some evidence of a serious purpose to grapple with the chief problem of the day. The committee on banking and currency seems to have a clear perception of the needs of the hour, and has shown a purpose to meet them to the extent at least of acquiring information. On motion of Mr. Brosius, a resolution was adopted inviting definite plans from commercial, financial, and industrial organizations for the amendment of our currency system. On motion of Mr. Johnson of Indiana, another resolution was adopted requesting the Comptroller of the Currency to analyze all the bills now before the committee, and state the effect of the same if enacted into law, and also to formulate a measure of his own. The latter task the Comptroller may easily undertake, but the former he cannot be expected to do within the short limits of the present session.

The resolution of Mr. Brosius is evidently a signal to the coming Indianapolis convention. It ought to be so considered at all events. Congress will do nothing about the retirement of the greenbacks—it will do nothing about anything—unless pushed on by public opinion. It will run in its present rut for four years, and take the awful risk of another Presidential campaign like the last one unless the commercial bodies of the country prise it out. They can do so if they will. They caused the repeal of the Sherman act in 1893 by active and incessant work. They can accomplish a greater reform now by the same means, but they must go about it in a systematic and persistent way. If they have not the necessary public spirit, certainly Congress will not have it. Nor can the newspapers do very much without the active and visible support and cooperation of the business community. With such backing, the torpor of Congress can be overcome and the ground can be prepared both for future legislation and for future political campaigns. Business men should be mindful also that whatever they do or fail to do, the silverites and fiat-money men are going to be as busy as the arch-enemy of mankind during the whole of the coming four years.

THE NEXT SENATE AND SILVER.

THE overwhelming defeat of the Populistic candidate for President in the national contest last month, and the large majority which the Republicans secured in the elections for members of the House of Representatives, produced a false impression as to the strength of their party in the next Senate. Even the professional politicians appear to have shared the popular feeling that the gold standard would have the support of a majority in the upper as well as in the lower branch of Congress from 1897 to 1899. The revelation of Republican weakness in the present Senate made by the recent division on the Dingley bill, and the consequent discovery of the narrowness of the chance that the "straight-out" members of the party will number a majority of the body after the 4th of March, have consequently come with a shock.

In the Fifty-third Congress, after the admission of Utah, there were 44 Republicans, 39 Democrats, and 6 Populists, with one seat from Delaware vacant—counting Tillman among the Democrats, and allowing the Republicans all who had been elected by that party, except the two Senators from Nevada. The other four Populists were Peffer of Kansas, Allen of Nebraska, Kyle of South Dakota, and Butler of North Carolina. As the result of elections in either 1895 or 1896, the Republicans gain one seat from each of the six States of New York, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Wisconsin, and Maryland, while they have lost the Legislatures which elect successors to outgoing Republicans in Colorado, Idaho, Utah, and Washington. Kentucky's action is still in doubt. Here is a net gain of two, which would give the party 46 out of 90 members, or a bare majority if all the sitting Senators who were elected as Republicans, except Jones and Stewart of Nevada, could always be depended upon. The losses are all practical gains for the Populists, since the Senators to be chosen in Colorado, Idaho, Utah, and Washington, whether former Republicans or Democrats, will be Populists on the silver issue.

Unfortunately for the Republicans, besides losing these four seats, they have already lost also two men who formerly attended Republican caucuses, and who will be members in the next Congress—Mantle of Montana and Pettigrew of South Dakota. This reduces their assured strength in caucus to 44. The chances seem favorable to the election of a Republican Senator by the Kentucky Legislature; but that body is so close, and party dissensions are so bitter, that the final result may be the choice of a

sound-money Democrat. There is some talk about the possibility of a Republican Senator being chosen by the North Carolina Legislature, in which body the Republicans have the largest number of members, though much short of a majority. But such a man would have to be a silver man to secure the necessary Populist support, so that he could not properly be counted as a Republican. If both of these States should return men who would enter Republican caucuses, the party would have 46 members, or a bare majority. That is the most favorable result possible.

But this would be a very different thing from a majority for living up to the St. Louis platform as regards the gold standard. The recent Republican caucus was attended by four members of the next Senate who believe in free coinage, although they supported McKinley in the recent canvass — Wolcott of Colorado, Shoup of Idaho, Carter of Montana, and Clark of Wyoming; besides Mitchell of Oregon, Perkins of California, and Pritchard of North Carolina, whose terms are about expiring. If sound-money men should be chosen in these three cases (and this is impossible in North Carolina), the Republicans would be still several short of a majority for the gold standard. The situation, therefore, is simply this: At best the Republicans may hope to have a bare majority of the Senate who will be willing to enter a Republican caucus; they are not sure even of this. But such a bare majority of the body will not mean that enough votes can be depended upon to carry out a policy of legislation based on the St. Louis platform. On the contrary, it must be regarded as certain that there will not be a majority of Republicans who will vote for any measure in the interest of the gold standard. Moreover, there is the graver danger, not to say certainty, that no majority can be secured for the passage of a tariff measure except upon the concession of some legislation in the interest of silver.

If the question were simply one of the gold standard, the prospect would not be depressing. The support of several sound-money Democrats could be counted upon for a good financial measure standing by itself. But such Democrats of course will not support a Republican tariff measure. Unfortunately it is tariff legislation rather than financial legislation that the Republican managers are most bent upon. The danger is that they will make almost any sacrifice on the silver question to secure such legislation. In view of the probable assembling of the Fifty-fifth Congress in a few weeks, sound-money men throughout the country should at once begin to arouse and organize public sentiment against another repetition of those compromises with the silver men which have disgraced our legislation for twenty years.

CONGRESS AND FINANCIAL CONTROL.

THE American system of public finance —meaning thereby the control by Congress of national revenue and expenditure—has long been an anomalous thing. Nothing like it is known to any other government in the world, civilized or uncivilized. Nowhere else is the power to spend made so independent of the obligation to tax in order to spend. In every other system there is either a single man, a Minister of Finance, or a single committee—on the budget—that gives with the right hand only what is taken in taxation by the left. But our plan is to let one set of men lay the taxes, and guess within $20,000,000 how much they will produce, while another and entirely distinct and irresponsible set of men make appropriations, and guess how much they will amount to.

This system has always been the astonishment of foreign observers, and the concern of not a few even of those who live under it and suffer from it. But its vices have been concealed from the public view, owing to certain favoring circumstances. The steady and enormous expansion of the country has generally driven up the revenue above the most wanton spending. "Just look at the surplus!" has been the sufficient answer to all critics; "we guess your Chancellors of the Exchequer would be glad enough if they had as much to the good." But the events of the past three years have stricken the scales from many eyes. The system has been exposed for just what it is—a happy-go-lucky, irresponsible system, without sense or safeguards, that is foolish and indefensible in good times, and in bad is imbecile and dangerous to the last degree.

What could be more brainless and alarming than the kind of financial control seen in the last session of Congress and to be repeated in this? The committee on income was caught in an *impasse*. It could not raise a single dollar by taxation, though the revenues were notoriously deficient. Yet, in the face of this fact, the committees on expenditure brought in and passed bills for sums greater than ever before, thus deliberately voting a deficit of $50,000,000. The same process is to be gone through with this winter. Chairman Dingley has abandoned hope of being able to lay a single new tax. He and all his party cry to Heaven that the revenue is not sufficient to run the government, yet they confess their inability to add a penny to the income. But does this make any difference with the spending committees? Perish the thought! They are all going busily ahead with their appropriations, which, on their own showing, in accordance with their own angry charges and partisan recriminations, will create another deficiency of $50,000,000. This is financial chaos. Such a spectacle at Washington, twice exhibited, should suggest to the most blundering and haphazard of democracies that something is wrong with its system of financial control.

Now, the one fixed fact in all this business is, that any representative body with power to spend money will spend it extravagantly unless held in check. It is not a matter of race or climate or institutions. Waste is the very law of being of all congresses, parliaments, cortes, committees, boards, with power to disburse public funds. Any or all of them unchecked would run riot with public finance, as our Congress does, unless some sort of hook were put in their jaws. London is just now having a scandal over the reckless extravagance of the County Council. It is because that body is subject to no efficient financial control. The London School Board is in trouble over the fact that its various committees are spending more money than they have to spend. Here again the evil is lack of centralized and responsible financial control. The House of Commons escapes only because it is firmly bitted. No private member can so much as bring in a money bill. The Treasury controls everything. Every grant of money goes hand in hand with its corresponding tax. The Chancellor of the Exchequor has absolute control both of income and outgo. Under his scrutiny and authority the estimates are rigidly cut down and kept down. The ambition of the Treasury is to show as large a surplus as possible with as light taxation as possible. Without such a bridle on its head, the Commons would be as spendthrift as our Congress.

But how have we got along so well in the past if our system is all wrong? Well, our system, always defective, has yet been better than it now is. It has distinctly changed for the worse in the last few years. That is the most alarming thing in the situation. Thirty years ago we had a semblance of financial control in Congress. Down to the close of the war the power to appropriate was harnessed, as it should be, with the power to tax. The ways and means committee had charge, not only of revenue, but of expenditure. But in 1865 the separate appropriations committee was formed, thus putting asunder what should be joined for ever. Little by little the power even of this committee has been undermined. It now has charge of but six of the thirteen general appropriation bills. The chairmen of other committees are all the while fighting to get control of a bill carrying the spending of money. Already there are seven separate and independent spending committees against one helpless taxing committee. Is it any wonder that we plunge from one deficit into another?

Remedies we do not discuss at present. The recognition of the dangerous nature of the disease is the main thing. It is idle to talk about finding relief in changing Presidents or Congresses or tariffs as long as our headless system of financial con-

trol (or grotesque lack of it) continues. We have scattered responsibility, and have inevitably scattered our resources also. We have dissipated power and funds at the same time. We have flown in the face of all legislative and governmental experience, and it is not surprising that we are just now a little the worse for the collision. The absurdity, the humiliating helplessness of the situation at Washington to-day ought surely to have some effect even upon this complacent nation in rousing it to the need of protection against a spendthrift Congress, now running wild without bit or bridle.

THE NEW YORK SENATORSHIP.

THE action of the Union League Club in unanimously approving the candidacy of Mr. Choate for the senatorship is a most welcome sign that the moral sense of the Republican party in this State is not so dead as it has seemed to be recently. There was nothing perfunctory or half-hearted in the proceedings. Mr. Guthrie's impressive speech put the issue in precisely the right way, and put it so clearly that there could be no doubt as to the spirit in which the club took its action. He defined the situation accurately when he said that there "never has been a time since the foundation of this government when the federal Senate stood in greater need of the highest order of ability, integrity, and patriotism"; and though he refrained from making any reference to the man who is proposing to elect himself to meet this emergency, there was no need of his doing so, for nobody has been so audacious as to claim that Mr. Platt possesses the qualities which Mr. Guthrie enumerates as essential. Mr. Platt himself does not do it, and does not desire his friends to do it for him. He shrinks from all discussion of his qualifications, and wishes to be chosen Senator with as little disturbance as possible.

In this respect Platt's present candidacy is very much like his first. Nobody considered him as a candidate in the Presidential campaign of 1880. He was then chairman of the Republican State Committee, and held the place merely as Senator Conkling's confidential agent. He had cut no figure in public affairs, being content to run about the State as Conkling's political errand-boy, and finding natural delight in the underground work of politics. When the Legislature came together in January, 1881, he emerged suddenly as a candidate for Senator, and the discovery was soon made that he had been using his power as the head of the Conkling machine to "fix" the Legislature in his own interest. A great army of workers, State office-holders of all grades, from high officials to their deputies, assistants, and clerks, suddenly swarmed about the State capitol in support of Platt. It was estimated at the time that there were at least 100 of these. They all gave the members to understand that Platt was the Conkling machine candidate. No other reason was given for his election. The *Tribune*, which was a stanch Republican organ then, said of him after his election: "If a distinctive representative of the machine was to be chosen, then doubtless this is the best result obtainable." He entered the Senate on March 4, 1881, and did absolutely nothing in it except say ditto to Conkling. When President Garfield came in, Conkling at once got into his famous quarrel with him over the distribution of New York patronage, and when he resigned from the Senate on May 16, because he had lost the collectorship of the port of New York, Platt resigned also, exciting by his servile conduct the derision of the whole country, and earning his name of "Conkling's Me Too." He went to Albany with Conkling to fight for a vindication by means of a reëlection, but, after struggling for this object for several weeks, abandoned it in the face of a personal scandal which was so vile in its details that even the most sensational and unscrupulous of our newspapers refrained from publishing them.

Platt is wise and prudent, therefore, in seeking a reëlection without discussion, and with as little publicity as possible. He has done nothing during the sixteen years since he stepped down and out that shows him to be any more fit for the senatorship now than he was when he held it before. There is no reason for believing that he will be any more equal to its duties now than he was then, or will have any other idea of the position than to use it as a basis for a war on President McKinley over the distribution of spoils. He depends now, as he did in 1881, upon the machine for his election. From no other quarter does there come a demand for his election. Newspapers that he owns, as he owns members of the Legislature, because he has bought them with the political blackmail that he collects from corporations, support him as a matter of course, but nobody else does. Not a single voice that is disinterested and intelligent is heard in his favor. From no man or body of men, representing the morals, intelligence, and character of the people of the State, does there come a word in advocacy of his candidacy.

It is said of Mr. Platt by his sole champion in the press of New York, the ex-Tammany *Sun*, that "he has never cared to walk in a fog of virtuous pretences"—as if that were a reason why he should be chosen Senator from the State of New York. This is a variation of the old claim, that he is no humbug or hypocrite, which has been made in behalf of every political rascal since the dawn of history. In saying it of Platt, his advocate is refuting a charge which has not been made. No one, so far as we have observed, has accused Platt of "virtuous pretences." There is no more doubt about his methods than there is about those of Croker and Matt Quay and all other bosses, past and present. There has been no hypocrisy or humbug or false pretence about any of them. They are openly in the business of corrupt politics, and they don't care who knows it. Every one of them is fond of saying, and his friends are fond of saying it for him, that, whatever else he is, he is no hypocrite; hypocrisy being considered a far more atrocious thing than the stealing of public money, or the corruption of politics, or the buying and selling of legislation for personal profit. Not one of the men whom Platt's present champion has defended and praised during the past quarter of a century, beginning with Tweed, Barnard, and Cardozo, and running steadily down without a break through Gorman of Maryland, McLaughlin of Brooklyn, Gen. Butler of Massachusetts, Ingalls of Kansas, Matt Quay, John Kelly, Croker, Paddy Divver, Tom Grady, Dave Hill, the Sheehans, Ham Fish, and even the ex-convict Callicott of Albany, whom Hill wished to make Superintendent of Insurance, has "walked in a fog of virtuous pretences." Platt is, therefore, classified properly when he is placed in this Valhalla by the venerable Tammany Odin who for so many years has distributed the meadhorns to incoming Valkyrs.

In selecting Mr. Choate as their candidate the anti-Platt Republicans have acted with great wisdom. He presents such a perfect contrast to Platt that argument as to the respective merits of the two is absurd. Mr. Choate's character and abilities are so well known that anything more than the mention of him as a candidate is unnecessary. To set forth his qualifications at length would be simply to tell every man of intelligence in the State what he knows already. It is universally admitted that Mr. Choate would make the ideal Senator for the first State in the Union. Then why can he not be elected? Why should not the representatives of the people, when they assemble at Albany in January, give expression to the popular wish and judgment of the State, and vote to send Mr. Choate to Washington? Could anything be done by these representatives which would bring more honor to the State or confer upon it a higher service? Could anything be done by them which would bring more honor upon the Republican party? Then why will they not do it? The only reason is that Platt owns them and wishes them to elect himself instead. Any other explanation is impossible, for it is as difficult to give a satisfactory reason for electing Platt as it is to give one for refusing to elect Mr. Choate. That is why Platt and his men contemplate the situation in silence, and why the presses which Platt is able, for reasons mysterious and other, to control, mostly do likewise. It is one of those cases in which the less said the better, but it is also one in which silence is a

powerful argument against the very persons who are maintaining it.

THE THEATRE IN LONDON.

LONDON, November 30, 1896.

IT is only a very few years since a great *renaissance* was fondly proclaimed, and we had Mr. Pinero playing the English Ibsen, and an Independent Theatre in full swing, while psychology as a dramatic motive was supreme. But already the dark days have come again. The Independent faction has virtually disappeared. One-half the London theatres are given over to what is called musical comedy, a cross really between the old far more clever burlesque and the new music-hall programme; the other half to genuine melodrama, historical, romantic, or sentimental, as it may be. True, Sir Henry Irving remains faithful to Shakspere, but then there are unfriendly critics who say that Shakspere at the Lyceum is nothing more than spectacular melodrama under a finer name; and it is because I am afraid the same criticism would hold good in the case of Mr. Alexander's revival of "As You Like It" that I have not had the courage to go and see it. Altogether, it is high time that some effort should be made by the few who believe the theatre is meant for better things; and this effort, this practical protest, has come in the shape of two distinct performances within the week.

It is a matter of course that one of these should be an Ibsen play, for, in London at least, the Norwegian dramatist is, as Mr. Henry James has ingeniously called him, "a barometer of the intellectual weather." The special play chosen was the last published, "Little Eyolf," acted already elsewhere, but never before put on the English stage. It is too late in the day to explain or analyze its plot, since its publication in book form has already been a challenge for the heated argument which the printing or performance of an Ibsen drama has always proved. The theme is characteristic; more human, less intellectual than usual, some of the London critics have been saying. However that may be, in the study of the relations between this special husband and wife Ibsen has set himself but another of the ethical problems which he, better than any man living, knows how to work out dramatically. Nor is "Little Eyolf," especially when seen on the stage, found to be free from the most irritating defects of its author, found to be without his indisputable power. It is essentially "suburban" (I think it was Mr. James who first applied to the Ibsen play this adjective, which has now become a byword with the critical authorities of the London press). The simplicity of the dialogue, so admirable at times, at others dwindles into the most futile commonplace; and the hero is the impossible, the pedantic, the unbearable Ibsen prig, silly and like a vain child in his pride of mental and spiritual emancipation, who repels all interest and sympathy from the start. Indeed, it seems to me almost fortunate that, at this very moment, there should be hanging in one of the London galleries M. Blanche's last Salon picture, the big, really brutal portrait of M. Thaulow, for it serves as a timely reminder that there are still left a few Norsemen made of flesh and blood; that all the descendants of the old Vikings are not the puny weaklings, the anæmic, neurotic pedants that Ibsen would have us believe. To me, *Allmers* cuts almost a more contemptible figure than *Solness*, or *Tesman*, or *Helmer*.

But, having said so much, one must still admit that the play is intensely dramatic, that it holds the interest of the audience to the very end, though there is little action, little incident after the first act. When Ibsen forgets the preacher that is strong within him, he is the incomparable dramatist; and this one feels and recognizes, despite the inevitable element of symbolism in his plays—an element distasteful to the Anglo-Saxon no longer on familiar terms with the supernatural as is the Norseman or the Teuton; and despite the actors. And here I come really to the all important point, for in every one of these recent sporadic attempts to reform, or "elevate," as the slang phrase goes, the stage, attention has been turned entirely to the drama itself, none spared for its interpreters. "Little Eyolf" was undertaken by two actresses, Miss Janet Achurch and Miss Elizabeth Robins, who have made so great a success in playing Ibsen that lately they have been seldom seen in anything else. Miss Achurch was *Rita*, a part the difficulty of which is not to be exaggerated. But, every allowance made, her interpretation could not be accepted as anything but painfully inadequate. I say this with all due hesitation, for there are enthusiasts in London who declare Miss Achurch the greatest actress of the age. She has, but it is by chance, her fine moments, which makes one realize that a good actress has been lost simply from lack of training. For so far is she from having mastered the first principles of her profession that even her voice is beyond her control, and half the time one does not understand what she is saying. To compare her to a Duse, as has been done, is much as if one were to compare the Royal Academy portrait to a Velasquez. Miss Robins, who has triumphed as some of Ibsen's other heroines, only less emotional than *Rita*, as *Hedda Gabler*, as *Hilde Wangel*, was content to efface herself as the colorless, and to her, I fancy, not congenial *Asta*. I need say nothing of the *Ratwife;* her entrance on the scene was the signal for melodrama. The two actors but emphasized the unpleasant qualities of Ibsen's men, and brought to their perhaps thankless task no compensating charm, or trick, of personality. If the performance of "Little Eyolf" proved anything, it was that a good play is much easier to lay hands on than a company competent to present it.

I think this is the moral, if moral must be had, of the second dramatic event to which I have referred, and which was a very different affair, a history lesson rather than an intellectual exercise. The play was the "Two Gentlemen of Verona," and it was given by the Elizabethan Stage Society, whose aims are largely archæological and historic, the object being not merely to produce the old Elizabethan comedies and tragedies, but to produce them exactly as they were seen by the dramatist's contemporaries—that is, with scenery of the most primitive description, or else none whatever; and with the costumes of the period, since managers then did not spend their energy in studying those details of dress and furniture which have now become of paramount importance. When possible, other conditions are observed, and one of London's beautiful old halls made the scene of the performance.

The first two experiments were not without interest. One was "The Comedy of Errors," its background Grey's Inn Hall, where, what with the lovely old panelling and screen, what with the appropriate attendants holding aloft their flaming torches, it made so fine a spectacle that one forgave the too evident shortcomings of the actors. The other was Marlow's "Dr. Faustus," which had less picturesque surroundings, but was vastly amusing in its primitive stage machinery, its Devils and Deadly Sins, like so many forerunners of the Drury Lane Pantomime, and its hero, who, in his naïve pedantry and priggishness, seemed to have anticipated Ibsen's students and sceptics. But the revival of primitive methods is always a dangerous game. There is a time when one grows weary of the Kelmscott book, of the sham mediæval woodcut, of the Pre-Raphaelite Madonna. Unfortunately, it is only with the spectacular revival that the Society, in its enthusiasm, is concerned.

For the "Two Gentlemen of Verona," every essential detail was most conscientiously considered. The Merchant Taylors lent their hall in Threadneedle Street, perhaps the most stately and magnificent of the many halls the city companies have hidden away in the little labyrinth of business streets which is known as the City of London. There was no stage, no scenery, no effect, beyond that yielded by gorgeous panelling, by palatial doorways, by flamboyant coats of arms. Through these doorways, sometimes directly through the body of the hall, in the midst of the audience, exits and entrances were made. Nor was there any music, save that called for by Shakspere in the second scene of the fourth act, and then the song "Who is Silvia?" was accompanied by the correct virginals and viols. There were attendants with halberds. The dress worn by *Valentine* and *Proteus* was carefully reproduced from an old sixteenth-century fresco that decorates the Hall of the Carpenters' Company; the uniform of the Outlaws was copied from a design for a halberdier used in the Fishmongers' pageant in 1609. In a word, no pains were spared to insure accuracy. It is just probable Shakspere himself might have sat through the performance without too great a shock.

But the novelty of Elizabethan stage management had already been worn off by the first example offered a year since with the "Comedy of Errors." One looked to the actors to prove something more than mere historical dummies. It would have been pleasant—and I do not think the demand unreasonable—to hear the lines put into their mouths. But this was the one thing quite impossible: not a single man or woman of them all understood the secret of distinct, clear enunciation; and, as for their manner, I could imagine the lecture Shakspere would have read them on their mouthing and ranting! Of the fact that three-fourths of the audience could see as little as they could hear I shall not speak, since it was the result of a mistaken, though no doubt well-meant, arrangement of the seats. And besides, if the performance failed, it was because of no such trifle, but entirely because the actors were not qualified to play on any stage, whether fashioned after Shaksperian or Lyceum models.

There is no question that the Englishman—and it makes no difference if he calls himself Ibsenite or Elizabethan—who aspires to a more perfect theatre, has begun at the wrong end of the ladder. Just as the English painter hopes, by the bigness or holiness of his subject, to overcome his technical deficiencies, so the English actor trusts to the quality of the play to bring out his latent but untrained talent. There is really needed at the present crisis, not the great drama, but the great

actor, as accomplished in his art as a Duse or a Coquelin, as eager in his study of the right gesture, the right intonation, as a Flaubert in his search for the right word; and the two latest of so many attempts to break away from the restraints of the popular theatre do but confirm this truth.

BRANTÔME.

PARIS, December 2, 1896.

THE Société de l'Histoire de France was founded as late as 1834; its publications already form a very important series. I count in it twelve exhausted, seventy-four partly exhausted, and six in the press. There is a council which chooses the works to be published and the most capable editors. Some of the volumes are perhaps not of the highest interest; many others are very valuable historical documents. In 1862 M. de Montalembert, one of the founders, expressed a desire that the Society would issue an edition of the works of Brantôme, accompanied, as are all the Society's publications, with notes, summaries, and indexes. The task, not an easy one, was confided to M. Ludovic Lalanne; the first volume appeared in 1864, and volumes ii. to x. successively till 1871; volume xi., comprising the index, appeared in 1882; the notice of Brantôme, his life and his works, constituting the last volume of the series, appeared only a few days ago.

Brantôme is well known to those who have made a thorough study of French literature and history. As a littérateur he holds a very peculiar place. He is an admirable specimen of the writer of the sixteenth century; his language has an archaism, an ease, a freedom, a sort of looseness and fluidity which does not recur in the classics of the seventeenth century. It is difficult to call him an historian, as he never attempted to write the systematic history of any period; but his works contain an abundance of anecdotes on all the people of his time which are an inexhaustible mine for the historian. He is not an essayist like Montaigne, and holds no philosophical doctrine of any sort; he is a *conteur*, an *anecdotier;* but his *contes*, his *anecdotes*, are not of an ordinary kind, his actors are often the most celebrated men or women of his time, his *bons mots* are the essence of the witticism of the sixteenth century. He shows us the inside, so to speak, of history, brings us into familiarity with kings, queens, warriors, with the leaders of factions; he takes us from the Protestant camps to the Catholic, from France to Italy; he is universal and eclectic in a most uncommon degree, for he is essentially a sceptic, a fatalist, and an epicurean.

The family name of Brantôme was Bourdeille. His father, François de Bourdeille, second baron of that name, had six children. Brantôme was born between 1539 and 1542—we cannot fix the date exactly. He spent his youth at the Court of the Queen of Navarre, where he was taken by his grandmother, the Sénéchale of Poitou. He was sent to Paris and to Poitiers to pursue his studies, but he never knew Latin very well; he tells us boldly that there was nobody who, having read the letters of Margaret of Valois, "would not laugh at Cicero and his Familiar Letters." His education ended, he made a journey to Italy, the money for it being given to him by Henri II., who allowed him to cut wood in the royal forest of Saint-Yrieix. (The kings were very prodigal of this sort of gratification, though it ruined their domain, as it dispensed them from applying to the Treasury, which was always more or less in difficulties. The Venetian Ambassadors remarked that, in consequence of this, wood was nearly as dear in France as in Venice.) Italy was almost a second home at that time for all Frenchmen. The struggles between the emperors and the kings of France had familarized all Frenchmen with Northern Italy and with Rome. Brantôme crossed the Alps by the Grisons, the road ordinarily taken after the wars; he travelled in Northern Italy for a whole year, curious only of what related to war or to pleasure, entirely indifferent to works of art. He is a little astonished only at Rome, seeing "these proud antiquities, the ruins of these fine palaces, of these superb coliseums and baths which still show what they have been, and strike admiration and terror in all." He becomes much more fluent when he speaks of the courtesans of Rome, Venice, and Florence, famous for their wealth, their beauty, their culture; the Italian predecessors of the French Marion Delorme and Ninon de l'Enclos. Many of the stories, ancedotes, *bons mots*, which he collected in their company found their place in the second volume of the 'Diaries.' He notes also with care all the stories of duels, as he was himself a very good swordsman, and duelling was all the fashion in Italy as well as in France.

On his return, after a brief sojourn in Périgord, Brantôme went to Court, where he stayed some time. He attached himself more and more to the house of Guise, and particularly to the Duke François, whose increasing power was becoming every day more threatening to the royal authority. After the death of Francis II., the young Charles IX. found himself almost alone, and his Court was nearly abandoned. Brantôme was in the suite of François de Lorraine, the *grand prieur*, who accompanied the widow of Francis II., Marie Stuart, to Edinburgh; and he has given us a touching account of the journey of the unfortunate young Queen. He returned to France with the Grand Prior and stopped with him for a little time in London at the Court of Elizabeth. She gave in honor of the French gentlemen a ballet "of her ladies, representing the wise and foolish virgins, some having their lamps lighted, the others having neither oil nor fire and asking for it. These lamps were of silver, nicely made and adorned, and the ladies were handsome and well taught, and took us Frenchmen to dance with them. Even the Queen danced, with much grace and royal majesty, for she was then in great beauty and full grace." Soon after his return, began the first civil war. Brantôme was in the royal army, and took part in the battle of Dreux. His recollections of that famous battle are, as is usual with him, dispersed in his various "Discours," and many of them have much interest.

Brantôme soon lost his two chief patrons, the Duke de Guise, who was killed before Orléans, and his brother, the Grand Prior, who died from a cold which he had contracted on the evening of the battle of Dreux. He was of an adventurous disposition, and we see him preparing a naval expedition against Morocco, which ended merely in a journey to Portugal and to Spain; he prided himself on speaking the purest Castilian as well as French. He returned by way of Bayonne, where he found the Court, Queen Catherine, and the Duke d'Anjou, brother of the young King. Brantôme has a number of stories to tell of the meeting of the French and Spanish courts, which took place there on the occasion of the marriage of the King. Still pursued by his love of adventures, he goes, after the fêtes of Bayonne, to Malta with some French gentlemen who had offered their services to the Grand Prior of Malta. He was tempted a moment to enlist among the Knights of Malta, who were thinking at the time of making an expedition for the liberation of Greece; his friend Strozzi prevented him from taking this resolution, and he returned to France, always hoping to make a great fortune at Court. Strozzi, who, since his exile from Florence, had made himself very important in France, prevented him also from entering the Spanish service. Strozzi was himself thinking then of a great expedition towards "the isles of Peru"; Coligny was speaking to Strozzi of an expedition to Flanders. All these schemes were interrupted by another civil war

Brantôme was with the young King Charles IX. on the day of the retreat from Meaux to Paris, when the King was protected by the Swiss troops. He took part also in the battle of Saint-Denis. Strozzi had given him a company, but, after the peace, Brantôme, who did not like garrison life, resigned. He became very intimate with young Théligny, an ardent Huguenot, who married the daughter of Coligny. The chapter of M. Lalanne's work entitled "Brantôme Protestant" seems very conclusive. M. Lalanne gives us a sonnet, addressed by Brantôme to Théligny, which is a real profession of faith. How long did this fervor last? It is difficult to say. Brantôme had not the spirit of an apostle or a martyr, but he could have said what Crillon said once to Henri IV.: "I was a Huguenot only twenty-four hours, but I still always feel some little reminder of it." There is no trace of intolerance or fanaticism in Brantôme. It must be said also that he was a genuine admirer of rank and birth, and the Protestant leaders belonged to the highest nobility of France. Such men as Coligny and his brothers, as the Princes of Condé, as the King of Navarre, had a natural hold on his sympathies; he had, however, to take sides again when the third civil war began. Strozzi again gave him one of his companies, and he found himself on the royal side.

Brantôme witnessed the defeat of the Huguenots at Jarnac, and tells us how he saw the body of the Prince de Condé, who, when already wounded and lying on the ground, had been shot by the Baron de Montesquiou, lying in a room under that in which slept his mortal enemy the Duke d'Anjou. Two years before he had seen Condé made prisoner at the battle of Dreux. He does not conceal the fact that he was himself a great friend of the assassin of the Prince, the Baron de Montesquiou, who, he says, was "bon homme avec cela," and whom, eight months before, he had saved from drowning in the Seine. Civil wars make men more cruel than common wars. Brantôme speaks of another friend of his, who was killed a short time afterwards, at the siege of Mussidan, in Périgord, the Count de Brissac. "When he was young he was surnamed the Pigeon." "This worthy Brissac, so mild in appearance, with his soft, delicate, and feminine face, was too cruel in war, too prone to fight and to kill." After Jarnac, Brantôme became ill and had to return to Périgord. He was at Brouage with Strozzi when he heard of the horrors of Saint-Bartholomew. Notwithstanding his affection for Charles IX., he does not extenuate this "horrible massacre in which the King soiled his hands." We find him at the siege of La Rochelle with Strozzi and the Duke d'Anjou;

the siege was long, and Brantôme gives us all its details.

His military career ended in 1574. Kept near the King by his office of gentleman of the bedchamber, we see him following the Court in all its journeys, chiefly occupied with its love affairs, rivalries, and duels. He hoped to be named Seneschal of Périgord on the death of his eldest brother; the King had promised him this high office, but it was given to his nephew, in favor of whom the uncle had resigned it. Brantôme was very angry with the King, and threw in the river the gilt key of the King's chamber. "I enter his room no more; I abhor him, and swear that I will never enter it again; but I still frequent the Court, going to the Queen's room." One day, as he was trying a horse, he had a bad fall, and he had to remain for four years in bed. It was during this long and forced repose that he amused himself by writing his valuable souvenirs, which have made us almost familiar with the Court of the Valois and of Catherine de Médicis, with the manners of a time when courage and immorality went together, when the highest artistic culture, the greatest refinement of manners, were not incompatible with coarseness, brutality, and cruelty. Marguerite de Navarre dedicated to him her curious "Memoirs": "This work in a few days will go to you as a young bear, to be licked into shape. . . . It is a history worthy to be well written by a cavalier, a true Frenchman, born of an illustrious house, brought up by the kings my father and brother, friend of the most *galantes et honnestes* ladies of our time, among whom I have had the happiness to be numbered." Brantôme received this dedication in Périgord, where he spent his last years building a great castle, which he saw finished a short time before his death, on the 5th of July, 1614.

Correspondence.

THE NEW SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As one of the many thousand Southern voters who at the recent election cast their first Republican ballot, I wish to express my grateful appreciation and hearty endorsement of the patriotic editorial that appeared in this week's *Nation* on the folly of any measure approaching a "force bill." Such an act would be in the nature of a public calamity. For while it is unfortunately true that there are glaring election frauds perpetrated each year in many Southern States, such crimes have never before been so fearlessly condemned as they are to-day by the enlightened representatives of public opinion in the South. The rascals, moreover, who resort to these practices, were never before called upon to count out the votes of a large number of intelligent men. What federal soldiers and federal marshals alike failed to accomplish, has been brought about through the operation of economic laws and a "let-alone" policy on the part of the national Government. The "Solid South" is at last dissolved, but no surer means could be employed to effect a crystallization of its fragments than even a threat to invoke the aid of national legislation to cure the evils growing out of a corrupt ballot.

In addition to the non-interference by the Government at Washington with the elections in the South, another great cause of the rapid disintegration of the old political order of things has been the economic revolution which has been going on in the old slaveholding States for a decade or more. The extension of railways, the opening of new mines, the construction of new factories and mills, and a thousand and one other agencies of modern civilization have hastened the growth of municipalities, and given a serious blow to the industrial and political ascendency of the agricultural classes. At the same time, a diversity of employments and interests has caused the growth of broader sympathies and widened the horizon of the Southern people considerably. Therefore all friends of the colored man, of the white man, of the South, and of the whole country must view with regret and alarm any indication on the part of the next Administration to return to that policy which once threatened to make of the Southern States a sort of Ireland. Especially would it be regretted at this particular time when the whole trend of events and circumstances is in the direction of a healthier division of both races in politics, and a growing sense of indignation regarding election frauds.

B. J. Ramage.

University of the South,
Sewanee, Tenn., December 5, 1896.

TRIMMING THE ELECTORAL COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a letter to the Boston *Herald* of November 30, Mr. Charles R. Saunders points out a method by which the more populous States may be accorded their due weight in the electoral college, without attempting any constitutional changes, such as reducing the number of Senators from the sparsely populated Western States. Mr. Saunders's plan consists in simply increasing the membership of the House of Representatives by reducing to 150,000 the number of citizens necessary to constitute a Congressional district. This would give a House of 500 members, and an electoral college of 590 members, and would restore to the more populous States their proper weight in choosing a President. It is pointed out that Massachusetts, for example, would be entitled to nearly four times as many members as at present, estimated upon the basis of representation in Nevada, which has one Representative for 45 000 people, while Massachusetts has one for each 173,000, but the ratio of 1 to 150,000 would very appreciably mitigate the evil, and would still keep the membership of the House down to a manageable number. This may not be a new scheme, but it seems to be a comparatively simple method of overcoming what all must feel to be an unjust apportionment of power.

Yours very truly,
March G. Bennett.

Boston, December 7, 1896.

ENGLISH AND THE HIGH SCHOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The defective preparation of college freshmen in elementary English is owing to the fact that most of the high schools have undertaken the work of "fitting boys for the active duties of life." (I quote these words from an advertisement of one of the leading schools in this State.) Every preparatory school has its fine curriculum and corps of professors. What we really need is a preparatory school to prepare students for the high school. The present system of preparatory schools has drifted upwards towards the college, and has got beyond its primitive idea. Like a good many other things in our social fabric, it needs to recur to first principles.

Francis D. Winston.

Windsor, N. C., December 7, 1896.

THE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The instruction of children is a business, and the conditions and requirements for success vary in no respect from those which enter into any business. In a general way these requirements are sufficient capital, and a devoted attention to the business by persons of adequate experience and acquaintance therewith. So far as teaching is concerned, these conditions are very inadequately complied with at the present day. It is unreasonable to ask of children to display greater attainments than are possessed by their instructors. It is impossible, of course, to obtain competent instructors without paying the market price in the way of salaries. Has it occurred to your correspondents who have discussed this question so interestingly, that very few of the thousands of teachers would be able to make a respectable showing in those same examinations in English which are the reason of this severe criticism of their pupils? It seems useless to urge the need of better teaching in the primary or secondary schools under these circumstances. Until our teachers are able to know and use the English language properly, we can hardly expect such knowledge and use from their pupils. Whether it is possible to induce the employment of adequate capital to secure these results, is a question I am unable to answer. Yours very truly,

John J. Jennings.

Bristol, Conn., December 10, 1896.

"FLASKISABLE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Rev. Professor Skeat, in his 'Student's Pastime,' reproducing what he wrote in 1891, remarks that

"This curious word is given neither in Strattmann nor in Halliwell. It occurs at least twice in Lydgate's *Siege of Troye*. . . . It is clear that the sense is 'variable, changeable, or inconstant.'"

Would it not seem, from this, as if the learned Professor claimed to have first unearthed and defined the expression?

In my monograph entitled 'On English Adjectives in -able,' published in 1877, I give, on pp. 190, 191, two passages from Lydgate's *Tragedies*, generally cited as *Bochas*, wherein appears *flaskisable*, which I there explain by "variable, inconstant, fickle."

Adventuring into a province which I rarely visit, I also append to my quotations what follows, involving a mistaken etymology:

"The primary base of *flaskisable* I saw to be an archaic form of *flash; flasked* being found in *The Ancren Riwle*. But, that either the rhematic termination *-ize*, or the substantival termination *-ise*, . . . was added to *flask*, towards arriving at *flaskisable*, seemed to me a view quite untenable."

As regards *flasked*, literally *vlasketh*, in *The Ancren Riwle*, since the verb *flasken* is from the Old French *flasquer*, 'splash,' my citation of it was wholly beside the mark. This is parenthetic.

I then go on to say:

"Having submitted the word in question to a very eminent philologist, the Rev. Mr. Skeat, I am enabled to give its true analysis. Mr. Skeat regards *flaskise* as alternative with

flaskish,—as the spelling might have been,—a verb; and he connects *flask* with *flick* and *flicker*, and with the provincial *flasker*, *flacker*, and *flisk*. Going farther afield, he points to the Swedish *flaka*. 'volitare,' and to the Icelandic *flaka*. *Flask*, 'flash,' is, then, a mere metathesis of *flaks-*, a stem of Scandinavian origin."

All this, so far as it bears on the source of *flaskisable*, is now tacitly unsaid; Prof. Skeat's present supposition, the probability of which is hardly likely to be questioned, being that the word is "a mere variant of O. F. *flechisable*, the O. F. equivalent of our *flexible*, from *flechir*, to bend."

Since the study of bygone English—of the works in which but comparatively few are accompanied with glossaries, while very many of them still await philological exploration and exploitation—is now industriously pursued in the United States, it would be of interest to know whether any of our scholars has come upon *flaskissen*, *flaskise*, or the like, as a variant of *flecchen*, anciently adapted from *flechir*. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, November 28, 1896.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. are soon to publish 'A Reader in Scientific German,' by Profs. Brandt of Hamilton and Day of Swarthmore; and 'The Outlines of Electricity and Magnetism,' by Prof. Chas. A. Perkins of the University of Tennessee.

Miss Isabel F. Hapgood has undertaken, at the request of the author, a translation of Coubertin's 'L'Évolution Française sous la Troisième République.' The work will be published shortly by T. Y. Crowell & Co., who have also in press a volume of lectures by Prof. William P. Trent, of the University of the South, on Washington, Jefferson, Randolph, Toombs, and Jefferson Davis, in their "Library of Economics and Politics."

The Universalist Publishing House, Boston, has nearly ready a 'Life of Alonzo Ames Miner, S.T.D., LL.D.,' by George H. Emerson, D.D., with a large number of pertinent illustrations.

We are in receipt of advance sheets of the second volume of Mr. George Haven Putnam's 'Books and their Makers During the Middle Ages,' completing the work, with an itemized index. We must return to it later, but its table of contents bespeaks matter of great interest, and especial value attaches to the subjects of the closing chapters, viz., on privileges, censorship, and legislation in Italy, Germany, France, and England, and the development of the conception of literary property.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce the first uniform edition of Rudyard Kipling's Works, to contain several stories not before collected, in twelve volumes. For collectors there will be a special American edition, consisting of 900 numbered copies, manufactured by the De Vinne Press on Japan hand-made paper with an R. K. water-mark; and Mr. Kipling will sign the photogravure frontispiece to volume one, while his father supplies some thirty or forty illustrations modelled in clay for copying.

From the same publishers we have received 'France under Louis XIV.: its Arts, its Ideas,' from the French of Émile Bourgeois, by Mrs. Cashel Hoey. This fine gift-book is a quarto, full of entertainment for those who are familiar with the age of which it treats, and full of instruction for those who are not. The entertainment and the instruction will come chiefly from the illustrations, of which there are more than five hundred, and of which the subjects, for the most part, are extremely well chosen. The text is written with intelligence and ability, but it is scarcely intended, of course, to be much more than a frame for the pictures. The twenty-two full-page portraits on copper are the most agreeable part of the work. The thirty-four other full page prints are half-tones. The countless illustrations in the text are of the kind we are used to nowadays, the kind that are more suggestive to the mind than pleasing to the eye; that take the place, and only that, of a written description. But one would be willing to exchange for a written description those of them reduced or repeated from prints containing "legends" (as important as anything else in the design), when from the quality of the reproduction the "legends" are illegible. The imperfections of the volume, however, belong to its class: its excellences are its own, and will not be overlooked by holiday givers or receivers.

Mrs. Clara Erskine Clement's 'The Eternal City: Rome—its Religions, Monuments, Literature, and Art' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), makes a couple of pretty volumes, handsomely bound and printed, and illustrated with many cuts and with thirty photogravures. The compiler (for she is little more) contributes, in a pleasing, conversational style, the results of her reading in some of the standard works on the subject. In the first volume, for instance, we note little that is not to be found in Lanciani's two books on Rome, or in the latest edition of Middleton's well known work. From this last, indeed, three maps have been reproduced and printed without the slightest acknowledgment, while anybody who wants to know what Mrs. Clement owes to Lanciani has only to compare her accounts of the tombs of Minicia Marcella and Crepereia Tryphæna with his. In these two passages, which are practically paraphrases of Lanciani, she gives him not a word of credit, although his name frequently occurs in other parts of the book. But if Mrs. Clement had written a preface, she would probably have disclaimed much if any first-hand knowledge about ancient Rome; and one who can write of "the god Fascinum," or describe the *Taurobolium* in a context which might lead the uninformed reader to think that this Asiatic rite was practised in republican Rome, had perhaps better not meddle with such matters at all. It seems doubtful, too, whether Mrs. Clement knew just what pictures were to be used in the illustration of her book. The sources of the cuts are seldom given, the cuts themselves are sometimes of doubtful authenticity, and they are rarely, if ever, referred to in the text; occasionally they are not in accordance with the text. For instance, we are shown four so-called Vestals, but without the fillets which Mrs. Clement tells us were found on the head in the portrait of every Vestal virgin. On the whole, the book is of no interest to scholars, and even as a popular work it should be recommended only with caution.

Mr. William Winter reissues his pleasant 'Gray Days and Gold' (Macmillan) in a larger edition, slightly amplified and corrected, and copiously illustrated. The attempt to improve upon the beauty of the small pocket edition is, unfortunately, unsuccessful. The cover of the new book is weak, the paper indifferent, and the page but poorly proportioned. Some of the illustrations are well chosen—notably the full-page photogravures, and the drawings, after recent photographs, of architectural subjects; but all the numerous portraits, and many of the landscapes, are so poor, in both drawing and engraving, that the book were far better without them.

An edition of Irving's 'Alhambra' not bearing the imprint of the Putnams admonishes us of the lapse of time, to which copyrights must succumb. This ornately gilded volume of Macmillan's has for its distinction a large number of designs by Mr. Pennell, mostly pen-drawings, sometimes pretty unsubstantial, memoranda rather than studies. Mrs. Pennell speaks, in the introduction, of the work itself, recalling Irving's relaboration of it in 1857, and remarking its permanent success as a guide-book on Spanish soil.

Shall we discern a plot to undermine the traffic in "first editions" in the series of reprints called "The Temple Classics" just begun by J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan)? The initial volumes are Wordsworth's 'Prelude,' following the first edition of 1850, and Southey's 'Nelson,' after the first edition of 1813. The general editor is Mr. Israel Gollancz, whose "Temple Shakspere" has won him a proper regard in this capacity. To each volume he supplies a bibliographical note; to the Nelson also a Table of Events, and to the Wordsworth a Table of Dates illustrative of the poem. To say that this series is handy and tasteful is superfluous.

The "Thistle Edition" of Mr. Barrie's novels (Scribners) proceeds with 'Sentimental Tommy,' vol. i., and 'The Little Minister,' vol. ii. It gives a fresh pleasure to the eye to rest on the noble typography of these volumes, whose beauty is otherwise also exceptional.

A plentiful show of daggers on the cover has been deemed appropriate to the translation of one of Alexandre Dumas's potboilers, 'Celebrated Crimes,' condensed by expurgation and otherwise into three volumes (Boston: Joseph Knight Co.). A few portrait and fancy illustrations have been introduced to heighten the festive appearance of these not unhandsome volumes.

Copeland & Day, Boston, continue their series of English Love Sonnets with a third volume, being Mrs. Browning's 'Sonnets from the Portuguese,' in the archaic style already adopted. We could praise this reversion without reserve but for the needless confusion of verse with prose involved in not indenting broken lines; and the early editions of Petrarch put to shame the here unalphabetised table of first lines. Mr. Bertram Grosvenor Goodhue's initials and borders in arabesque are well devised. In a special set of fifty impressions the initials have been rubricated.

Mr. Sydney Lear's 'Five Minutes: Daily Readings of Poetry' (Thomas Whittaker) well deserved a new edition. It is an exceptionally high and unhackneyed selection of verse, which one may take in small doses as suggested by the title, or browse in more freely. It has the calendar arrangement, and an index of first lines, and is altogether a book to be recommended.

The concluding volume (vi.) of the new edition of Johnson's "Lives of the Poets" (Scribners), edited by Arthur Waugh, gives the picture of Johnson in the possession of Mrs. Kay and Miss Drummond for frontispiece, and has besides heads of Thomson, Collins, Young, and Gray. In convenience and good workmanship the edition has just title to favor.

Mr. Charles Morris's 'Half-Hours of Travel

at Home and Abroad' (Lippincott) is contained in four volumes given to the four quarters of the globe. In these severally no particular order is observed, and there is no critical selection of authors quoted from, but the best will be found mixed with the newspaper and magazine tourist. Care has not been taken to fix the date of each excerpt, and all the writers do not appear in the index—*e. g.*, Sir Francis Head, p. 422 of volume i. Mr. Morris condenses at pleasure, and frequently summarizes the omitted parts. He also generally has a few words about the author. Half a dozen illustrations adorn each volume. One cannot deny a certain readability and interest in this compilation, but it could have been better done.

An unpretentious tribute to a writer of wide and deserved popularity is Elizabeth S. Tucker's 'Leaves from Juliana Horatia Ewing's "Canada Home"' (Roberts Bros.). Mrs. Ewing spent three years, 1867-69, at Fredericton, N. B., where her husband was stationed, and this volume is an account of her life there, as recorded partly from observation and tradition, and partly in Mrs. Ewing's bright and ingenuous home letters. Altogether the picture of this slight, girlish, golden-haired woman, her happy-go-lucky housekeeping, her love of dogs and of nature, her botanizing and her sketching, her snow-shoeing and canoeing, is delightful, and will win afresh the hearts of her numerous admirers. The volume is attractively illustrated with photographs and pen-and-ink drawings, and with several facsimiles of Mrs. Ewing's ineffectual attempts to copy the strange coloring of sky and woods in her temporary home.

By way of sub-title, Mr. Frank Samuel Child styles his 'Colonial Parson of New England' (Baker & Taylor Co.) "A Picture." For the broad sketch, however, which he has made, his method is too timid to give an interesting result. Mr. Brooks Adams once painted the same portrait with such vindictive attention to the sitter's ugly traits that, while he made the picture interesting enough, in all conscience, it was a libel almost indictable. Mr. Child, on the other hand, approaches the clergy in the spirit with which a Massachusetts housewife poured syrup in her pastor's coffee, despite his protest, saying, "Clear molasses is none too good for Mr. Russell."

Mrs. Baxter tells in her 'In Bamboo Lands' (Merriam Co.) a plain, undecorated tale of her tourist experiences in Japan, with accuracy in her geographical and historical names that is highly commendable. While her story is that of a traveller in beaten tracks, her abundant and judiciously selected illustrations show cultivated taste and fine judgment. The book is handsomely bound and printed, and there are many things which only a woman would be likely to notice and describe as they deserve to be set forth. She affords us a good glimpse into contemporaneous social life at the ports and capital of Japan.

Nothing but praise is due to the editor of 'Shakspere's Holinshed,' Mr. Boswell-Stone, and to his publishers (Longmans). The book is intelligent in plan and uncommonly painstaking and skilful in the execution. Those portions of Holinshed's 'Chronicle' which Shakspere used in his historical plays (including "Lear," "Macbeth," and "Cymbeline") are brought together in a handsome, well-printed volume, and every device of references, side-notes, headings, etc., is utilized to facilitate comparison with the dramas. The foot-notes contain a number of interesting suggestions on matters of detail, and furnish a host of references to contemporary chroniclers and records by way of correcting or supplementing Holinshed's statements. To students of Shakspere the work may fairly be described as indispensable; historical students will find it convenient, and the reader for pleasure will find much to entertain him. It is a genuine pleasure to register the appearance of so sensible and useful a book.

'The Eye and its Care,' by Frank Allport, M.D. (Lippincott), is a popular—that is, not a professional—book, true in fact, but diffuse in statement. Its most useful feature is a scheme (pp. 163 4) for the innocent preliminary examination of school-children's sight, to be followed in suspected cases by skilled inquiry. A large proportion of school-children are handicapped in their earlier years by unrecognized infirmities of sight and hearing which should cause them to be put into special classes.

The bound fifth volume of the *Land of Sunshine* is before us, and it is cheering to read in the last number the editorial assurance of the established prosperity of this illustrated magazine, with its widespread constituency, its lively independence, and its genuine learning. The editor, Mr. C. F. Lummis, is his own best contributor, and his series of articles on the Southwestern Wonderland is a distinct challenge to the tourist to match in Europe the New Mexican inscribed castellated cliff, El Morro, "the most imposing autograph album in existence"; the greatest natural bridge; Acoma, etc. Mr. Lummis has well prepared his readers for a project of publishing next year, in short instalments, critical translations of some of the original sources on the Southwest, not before accessible to the student commanding no other than his English tongue, with facsimiles. These, we dare say, will be so composed as to furnish ultimately a book without the cost of resetting.

No one can complain of the quantity of illustrations in the 'American Annual of Photography' for 1897 (Scovill & Adams Co.). The letterpress shows the customary want of training in the art of grammatical expression on the part of many of the contributors, and conveys no very novel or striking information. Two or three process color prints indicate little progress in this once promising art.

'Minerva: Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt' (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) presents in its seventh volume the constitution and personnel of the learned institutions of the world for the academic year 1896-'97. The editor, Karl Trübner, has to deplore the loss of the projector and hitherto chief editor of this indispensable work, the late Dr. R. Kukula, but pursues his course with a notable extension of the scheme to museums of natural science and archæology and learned societies. Another year will be needed to put this department fairly on its feet, though already a hundred pages have been added to the total bulk of *Minerva*, while the index, or *Personal-register*, is enlarged by but three. The frontispiece is an etched portrait of Prof. Goeje of Leyden.

—A paragraph which has begun the rounds of the daily newspapers indicates that a question is to be raised with Canada regarding the boundary line between Minnesota and Manitoba, in the chain of lakes between Lake Superior and the Lake of the Woods. The proposed contention is to the effect that the international boundary should follow the line of water communication to the *north* of Hunter Island instead of to the *south*. The area of land which would thus be placed in dispute may be estimated at approximately 500 square miles. Before entering into any such contention it would be well for those proposing it to examine into the merits of the case, since it is obviously inadvisable to raise the question unless there is ground for a difference of opinion. This portion of the boundary line was agreed upon and located by the Webster-Ashburton treaty in 1842. Regarding it the treaty reads: ". . . to the mouth of Pigeon River, and up the said river to and through the North and South Fowl Lakes to the lakes of the height of land between Lake Superior and the Lake of the Woods; thence along the water communication to Lake Saisaginaga and through that lake; thence to and through Cypress Lake, Lac du Bois Blanc, Lac la Croix, Little Vermilion Lake, and Lake Namecan, and through the several smaller lakes, straits, or streams connecting the lakes here mentioned to that point in Lac la Pluie, or Rainy Lake, at the Chaudière Falls." This portion of the boundary was surveyed and mapped by commissioners under the treaty, but the corresponding part of their map was never published. The manuscript sheets are understood to be in the custody of the State Department at Washington. Of the lakes mentioned in the above quotation from the treaty, however, two, viz., Cypress Lake and Lac du Bois Blanc, lie *south* of Hunter Island, and are located and named upon many maps. They will be found upon the map accompanying Nicollet's expedition of 1841, and that of Hind, the Canadian explorer, in 1857, as well as many of modern date. This fact in itself settles beyond peradventure the location of the boundary under the Webster-Ashburton treaty.

—Among the marked events at the Odéon in Paris during the month of November just passed have been performances in French of the "Persæ" of Æschylus and of the "Philoctetes" of Sophocles. Neither play would suggest itself as notably interesting from the point of view of modern stage representation, nor can it be said that the Parisians found a vast deal of interest in either. Of the two, the "Philoctetes" proved far less attractive, however. The performances of the "Persæ" drew crowded houses, and, surprising as it may seem to those familiar with the play, its dramatization of the woes of the house of Xerxes was greatly appreciated by large and somewhat miscellaneous audiences. This result was achieved in spite of an extremely unfortunate stage setting, in which the tomb of Darius, that should occupy the centre of the stage, showed many of the outward signs of a small tool house near the palace of Xerxes. As for the ghost of Darius, it "materialized" vaguely in front of the palace. The choral parts, forming the bulk of the play, were boldly but on the whole effectively dealt with, and in them the interest of the performance centred. Such music as there was came entirely from the orchestra, and cannot be said to have been invariably congruous in its effect. The surprising fact remains that the "Persæ" was made tolerably interesting to a modern audience of theatre-goers.

—To this result there is no doubt that the introductory discourse by the distinguished lady explorer, Mme. Jane Dieulafoy, substantially contributed. Just a shade of dis-

appointment was felt by her hearers when they found her entering into a somewhat elaborate discussion of the literary merits of the play. When Mme. Dieulafoy criticised Æschylus for making Queen *Atossa* disappear before *Xerxes* arrived despairing, defeated, and in rags, and accounted for it by the fact that the same actor had to take the two parts, she was certainly out of the range of Æschylean thought. A scene where *Atossa* should have comforted her son *Xerxes* could hardly have entered into Æschylus's plan, although Mme. Dieulafoy, borrowing Sarcey's well-known phrase, declared "c'était la scène à faire." A malicious on-looker might have insinuated that such a criticism of Æschylus's "Vision of the Judgment of Xerxes" was far too ladylike to be sound. However that may be, Mme. Dieulafoy justified the enthusiasm felt for her intrepid and romantic career in Persia by a few eloquent and striking sentences, in which she described the landscape of her predilection, the long blue line of far-off mountains visible from those royal habitations which her labors have unearthed, and gave a graphic picture of the gorgeous state which Xerxes resumed after his ill-starred invasion of Greece. Perhaps it was the manly garb which Mme. Dieulafoy, authorized by legal warrant, has chosen to adopt, and was wearing as she spoke, that led here in closing to pray that some Æschylus of France might at some future day have for his theme in song "the disaster and the confusion of our enemies." At all events, this was her peroration, which, needless to say, was greeted with rounds of applause, and lent to the play which followed an interest that some may incline to think unduly modern.

—The self-devotion, the intrigues, and the martyrdom of the Catholic missionary priests in England under Elizabeth and James I. have attracted much attention of recent years, and numerous documents have been published throwing light on the dark places of their history. Not the least important contribution to the elucidation of the subject is contained in the latest volume of the Camden Society's publications, entitled 'The Archpriest Controversy,' consisting of papers from the Petyt MSS, edited by Mr. Thomas Graves Law, with an introduction in which his well-known familiarity with the subject enables the reader to grasp the full purport of the documents. The missionaries, who risked liberty and sometimes life in their effort to win back their native land to the Roman obedience, were by no means harmonious. The secular priests among them were mostly loyal subjects, caring only for the souls of their fellow-creatures. The Jesuits were firebrands, deep in the political plots which culminated in the execution of Mary Queen of Scots and the Armada, and led to the Gunpowder Plot. After the death of Cardinal Allen, the two factions became openly hostile; the Jesuits had the ascendancy in Rome, and in 1598 procured the appointment of Blackwell, a secular priest well affected to them, as "Archpriest," with supreme power over the English priests, which he was to exercise in accordance with the advice of the Jesuit superior in England. The seculars were outraged at this, and a violent controversy arose, in which Blackwell used his authority oppressively to silence his adversaries, whose only resource was repeated and, for the most part, fruitless appeals to Rome.

—To the modern reader the most interesting feature of the contention is the fact that Elizabeth's Government, which at first classed all the missionary priests as enemies, came at last to recognize the distinction between the factions, and, while employing without scruple the sternest measures of repression against the plotters of treason, entered secretly into communication with the anti-Blackwell party and was disposed to aid it. In 1601, Bluet, one of the leading seculars, had audience with the Queen and Privy Council, and, at his suggestion, four of the imprisoned priests were banished in order to enable them to go to Rome with an appeal to the Pope, and in 1602 these envoys were encouraged on learning that the French ambassador had a message from Elizabeth, thanking him for his efforts in their behalf. Perhaps the most interesting paper in this volume is one ascribed by the editor to Bancroft, Bishop of London, showing his thorough acquaintance with all the details of the controversy, probably furnished to him by Bluet and Bagshaw, another leader of the seculars. The whole affair would seem to justify the assertion, so vigorously made by Lord Burghley, that the persecution of the missionary priests was wholly political and not religious. Mr. Law promises us another volume of these papers, which will be looked for with interest by all students of the tangled politics of the time.

—The general plan and character of M. Salomon Reinach's 'Chroniques d'Orient' (Paris: Ernest Leroux) is quite familiar to most students of archæology. Like its predecessor, the volume, which forms the second series (1891-'95), is a monument of enormous labor, which might have been simply the collection of a syndicate of industrious chiffoniers, armed with scissors. In reality, it is a work alive and penetrated in every paragraph with the wit, the trained taste, the wide experience, and the sound judgment of a single man. Many a paragraph, moreover, sums up or characterizes in a few lines a treatise or a book. Chronicles, as a rule, have a special dispensation from literary quality, yet M. Reinach declines to avail himself of this privilege. While speaking what he thinks with the most fascinating candor, and calling "un chat un chat" with complete independence, his précis are sprinkled everywhere with grains of good sense and of Gallic salt, which are as wholesome as they are sparkling and piquant. His work is far from being that of a mere compiler. He has thrown out original ideas and made discoveries of decided merit. We are glad to see republished as appendices the essays entitled "Les Déesses nues dans l'art oriental et dans l'art grec" and "Le Mirage oriental," the former of which has since received confirmation by the addition of links at each end of the chain of evidence; while the searching and masterly argument of the latter has been reinforced most unexpectedly by the discoveries of Mr. Arthur Evans.

—M. Reinach complains wittily of the long-windedness of archæologists ("Est ce que le *Rheinisches Museum* refuse les articles courts?") and of their tendency to commit "literary infanticide" by burying their productions in obscure periodicals. There is another vice which he denounces—and most scholars will agree with him from the bottom of their heart and of their purses—the practice of publishing their researches in luxurious folios at extravagant prices. M. Reinach does more than preach against this sin; he proposes to set a good example. He will issue very shortly a collection of statues and another of vases, profusely illustrated, at one dollar per volume. The title of the former work is 'Un Répertoire de la statuaire grecque et romaine.' It will appear very soon in three volumes, small octavo, the first reproducing the Clarac collection of engravings; the second, 4,000 antique statues not figured in that collection; and the third containing a text and copious index.

ANDREWS'S QUARTER-CENTURY.

The History of the Last Quarter-Century in the United States, 1870-1895. By E. Benjamin Andrews, President of Brown University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 390, 409, illustrated. 1896.

THIS history, although, as President Andrews tells us in his preface, it has been revised and enlarged, is still in substance the series of magazine articles which, with their rich abundance of pictorial illustrations, lately appeared in *Scribner's Magazine*. The author has sought to seize upon the more striking events which lend themselves most readily to description, by both pen and pencil, and to give us a telling series of tableaux. The quieter current of causes and effects which connect these pictures is purposely omitted or merely hinted at The gradual development of political leaders and of lines of public policy is no part of the plan. The rapidly shifting scenes introduce new men, new inventions, new situations, new conflicts and popular movements. It is something like teaching by the stereopticon, with the slightest thread of lecture to connect the views.

When we know the class of entertainment to which we are invited we shall have no cause for complaint that it is not something else, and can readily adjust ourselves for the full enjoyment of the pleasure offered us. The author tells us explicitly that we are "going upon a rapid excursion through vast tracts, with frequent use of the camera, and not upon a topographical survey." Such a plan affects the literary form of the work as well as its substance. The style is more familiar, more colloquial, becoming at times almost or quite careless. The effort to report a stirring scene sometimes betrays the writer into the rhetoric of the newspaper reporter, with his habit of pointing his descriptions of men and affairs with the sharp emphasis of current slang. We have, therefore, a somewhat free and rapid outline of events, in which the astonishing progress of the country furnishes such a succession of interesting and even startling pictures as to stir in us a new appreciation of the headlong speed with which our world is moving.

Among the earliest of the topics coming within the scope of the book is the return of the rebellious States to participation in the national Government. This is neatly characterized as a contest between the theory of "restoration" as upheld by Lincoln and Johnson, and "reconstruction" as advocated by the Congressional party of which Thaddeus Stevens was the leader. But no outward description of the plan of "reconstruction" is adequate, or even intelligible, which does not state Stevens's object and aim to preserve the ascendancy of the party in power by ruling the Southern States through the votes of the enfranchised freedmen. He was ready to go all lengths with his modern system of "thorough," and in his cynical way had little mercy for his followers who stuck at the extremest measures of disfranchisement necessary to make and keep a party majority. The second stage in the process was that in which, the education and property of the South being

excluded from public employment and natural leadership, a saturnalia of misgovernment and plunder shocked the civilized world. President Andrews's tableau of this condition of things is strong and, in the main, just. He does not bring out the fact, however, that, in the earlier steps of the carpet-bag rule, many men of personal purity of character were working at the impossible problem of "doing evil that good may come." The very instance of the Louisiana Returning Board of 1872 which he uses to "adorn the tale," points also "the moral" that the downward road is easy.

John Lynch, chairman of the Board, and Gen. Longstreet, who commanded the militia and ejected the McEnery Legislature, were both men of pure personal character. Longstreet, a foremost soldier of the Confederacy, had become sincerely convinced that it was a patriotic duty to accept in fullest measure the results of the war, including the enfranchisement as well as the emancipation of the slave. He accepted without flinching the loss of property, of friends, of position which followed. When self-respect and his standard of right demanded it, he retired into absolute privacy; his poverty and his proud isolation being the best proof that no corrupt motive had influenced him. Lynch was a graduate of Oberlin College, preëminently the abolitionist school of the West. When the war broke out, he was the superintendent of public schools at Circleville, Ohio, and master of the High School. Entering the army, he saw honorable service in different grades and became Major of the One Hundred and Fourteenth Ohio, a regiment which served in the Lower Mississippi campaigns. At the close of the war he bought a plantation in Louisiana, was elected to the State Senate, and, besides other public offices, was United States Surveyor-General for that region. In all these positions his honesty and integrity were marked and never questioned. Like Longstreet, he soon sought private life and left the State.

These two men sincerely believed, in 1872, that the freedman's vote was withheld by intimidation; and that, if cast, it would have carried for Kellogg as Governor all the precincts in which the census showed them to be in a decisive majority. They listened to the suggestion that, if the formal certificate were given to Kellogg, and the committees of Congress were plainly told that there was no free and fair election, a new election would be ordered under Gen. Sheridan's protection, and the opportunity for an honest polling of the legal vote be given. In pursuance of this plan, Lynch went to Washington and laid the facts before the Republican leaders with perfect candor. Speaking for himself and Longstreet and those who agreed with them in asking for the guarantee of a fair election, he declared that neither Kellogg nor McEnery ought to be installed as Governor upon such an election, and that the return of Kellogg was only a device to keep the power of correcting a wrong in the hands of a Republican Congress. Many members of Congress agreed that a new election ought to be ordered; but, after manifold delays and consultations of leaders, Lynch was referred to Senator O. P. Morton, as the mouthpiece of those in authority, and Morton informed him that it was not thought expedient to disturb the *de facto* governorship of Kellogg, based on the certificate which they of the Returning Board had issued. These significant and important facts must be added to the account given in the 'History.'

President Andrews gives the sequel in the recognition of Pinchback and Kellogg by the Administration, and their support by the troops of the United States.

"The House of Representatives," he says, "instructed its Committee on Privileges and Elections to inquire into the dispute. A report was made, February 20, 1873, which condemned federal influence. The committee found that McEnery was *de jure* entitled to the governorship, but that Kellogg, supported by the army, was *de facto* Governor. The committee recommended the passage of an act 'to secure an honest reëlection' in Louisiana. The recommendation was not adopted, and anarchy in effect followed (p. 85)."

Lynch and Longstreet and their friends found themselves pilloried in current history as the effective authors of the Kellogg Government when they had meant only to secure a new and really fair election. Their fault was in consenting, even for a good purpose, to use a device that was not in accord with the facts, and in giving the power to profit by it to those who were less scrupulous than themselves. When, however, the story of that Returning Board is told, the part of it which brings responsibility home to men in Washington ought not to be forgotten.

The next inevitable stage in the development was the full substitution of Madison Wells and his tools in the Returning Board, with Kellogg in the Governor's chair, for men of the pattern of Lynch and Longstreet. The end now aimed at was power, by whatever means and at whatever cost. Counting out the precincts necessary for this purpose was not thought to need any apology or pretext: the end to be reached was a sufficient reason. This was the scarcely disguised revolutionary method to which the "visiting statesmen" of 1876 gave the support of their presence and their acquiescence. The natural sequel came a year or two later, when, both from Louisiana and from Florida, the active perpetrators of the frauds offered themselves as witnesses before a Congressional committee to confess their perjuries and forgeries by way of vengeance upon the Hayes Administration because they had not been "provided for" as the price of their villanies. They, in fact, did that Administration a service by the evidence that such claims had not been recognized. This development of carpet-baggery into a condition of things which made decent men at the North wash their hands of the business, is adequately described only when its progressive steps are thus distinctly marked. For the sake of present readers as well as in aid of the future investigator, it is to be wished that the author had been more explicit in this part of his task.

In the treatment of the Anarchist murders of the police at Chicago, there is a pretty full quotation of Gov. Altgeld's criticism of the fairness of the trial, without any satisfactory statement of the principle upon which the prosecution is based. The omission is unfortunate. Attacks upon law and order, whether in the form of mobs or of treasonable insurrections, are all variations of conspiracies to commit a crime. The overt act being committed, the fact of the conspiracy creates a solidarity of guilt and of responsibility among all the conspirators. They all become responsible for what each may do, and the common sense of the people as well as the decision of wise judges has found it necessary and right to treat every conspirator as guilty of all that is done in pursuance of the common purpose. It is mere pettifogging to argue that they did not purpose to kill the individual policemen who fell, if there were a murderous intent which naturally resulted in the killing. The conspiracy is a fact to be shown to the satisfaction of the jury by evidence direct or circumstantial, and, being so proved, the responsibility of each conspirator follows. It has always been the effort of the teachers of sedition and the leaders in mobs and insurrections to slip their own necks out of the halter, leaving their poor dupes to bear the punishment of the acts openly committed. The subject should never be treated without emphasizing the wholesome lesson that the vigorous and righteous spirit of our immemorial law has always brushed aside such cobwebs, and held that the overt act committed gave true interpretation to the criminality of all the preceding steps, holding the leaders, as the popular common sense holds them, guilty of all that is done.

In telling the story of current events it came necessarily in President Andrews's way to touch upon matters which involve charges of fraud against political parties or their agents, or maladministration of office by high officials. In these cases the moral standard which he upholds, and his judgments of men and their conduct, are usually all that could be desired. This only makes more noticeable his apologetic treatment of those who were connected with the Crédit-Mobilier frauds. The gist of every such apology consists in arguing that the representative of a great corporation may give, and that members of Congress may receive, "advantageous opportunities for investments" in it (in short, gifts of money), without any plain violation of official duty and public and private morality, if only no measure is at the moment pending for which their votes are wanted! The statement of the proposition should be enough. When the author has occasion afterward to refer to Salmon P. Chase's good rule for a public officer, to "*be* right as well as to *seem* right, and to *seem* right as well as to *be* right," his applause of it makes one wonder how he could have failed to bring the Crédit-Mobilier affair to the same touchstone. Stupid, indeed, would be the lobby that would find itself trammelled in any degree within the lines laid down by President Andrews.

The book, as a whole, will aid the young to understand the wonderful growth of the country since the great civil war. It will help the middle-aged to recall with profit the connection and meaning of all that has passed under their own eye. It may even serve the systematic historian in fixing his own scale of treatment. In the beautiful form in which the publishers have presented it, it will amuse a leisure hour as well as adapt itself to more serious work.

AN ACRID AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

The Story of My Life. By Augustus J. C. Hare, author of 'Memorials of a Quiet Life,' 'The Story of Two Noble Lives,' etc., etc. 2 vols. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896.

To those who heretofore have had no acquaintance with Mr. Hare, except through the many volumes he has published, this last fruit of his mind will have a taste unconscionably strange. They have thought of him as the maker of some excellent literary guide-books (with others not so good) and as the pious annalist of 'Two Noble Lives' and 'Memorials of a Quiet Life.' Moreover, he has enjoyed the honors of relationship and association with the Hares of spotless reputation heretofore, Augustus and Julius; the Maurices, one of whom, Frederick's sister, married Julius Hare; and

Dean Stanley, a near relative. What will be his readers' astonishment to find him in these volumes doing such an amount of domestic laundrying in public as has hardly been paralleled in autobiographic literature, bringing a railing accusation against many relatives and other people, and indulging in a line of anecdote and reminiscence which should commend his book particularly to the Society for Psychical Research. Voluminously as Mr. Hare has written, he has brought down his narrative only to 1870, when he had hardly crossed the threshold of his literary career. Are we to expect soon an equally voluminous treatment of the subsequent period? Or will he wait until his surviving relatives and acquaintances are dead in order that he may treat them with the same remorseless candor he has shown in dealing with those who are dead already?

Happy the man who knows the art of skipping wisely before he adventures here. With much that is very entertaining, however indiscreet or scandalous, there is much that is extremely dull—letters and journals whose publication suggests an egotism to which nothing concerning the subject is unimportant; the whinings of his infancy or the petulance of his maturer years. It would be interesting to know if we are entering on a series of biographies and autobiographies of which the terrible frankness of this and Purcell's 'Manning' and Hamerton's autobiography are notable examples. It is difficult to conceive of the motive which has prompted such an exposure of family secrets to the public eye. Can it have been to insure the sale of large editions? Such a motive would not be entirely foreign to the moral temper of the book.

There have been autobiographers, Benvenuto Cellini, Rousseau, and others, who have shown themselves up with merciless sincerity, but Mr. Hare is not a fellow of their guild. The objects of his malediction and derision are his brothers and his uncles and his aunts; but not these exclusively. Occasionally he hints a fault in his own character, but infrequently. The book is depressing and humiliating regarded as a picture of the best society which England has to show. Here are jealousies and bickerings innumerable, also conspiracies and litigations, at least every other person characterized in such a way as to make them appear morally repulsive and deformed. One seems to read between the lines that Mr. Hare's own disposition is not the happiest imaginable. Whatever it was originally, his early training was so well calculated to make it worse that he deserves the fullest credit for such work as he has done and such good qualities as he has shown. The wonder is that he was not spoiled irretrievably for any use or joy.

Mr. Hare was born March 13, 1834, to the great annoyance of his parents, and soon after he was adopted by the widow of Augustus Hare, his mother thus answering her request: "My dear Maria, how very kind of you! Yes, certainly, the baby shall be sent you as soon as he is weaned; and if any one else would like one, would you kindly recollect that we have others?" Two of ten others, brothers, Augustus hardly knew. The father was an erratic spendthrift, the companion of Count d'Orsay, much in his style, but not without strong intellectual traits which made him the friend of Landor and attracted him to serious studies. If the boy was fortunate in escaping from his charge, he was not entirely so in his new surroundings. His new mother was completely under the influence of Julius Hare and the Maurice sisters, one of whom Julius married. These sisters were "a fearful scourge" of his childhood, and "completely poisoned his life" at Hurstmonceaux. "They persuaded my mother to join in their tireless search after the motes in other people's eyes." Frederick Maurice, who came to visit them and to court a lady who was a companion of Mrs. John Sterling, he did not like much better. "He maundered over his own humility in a way which even to a child did not seem humble." The sight of his uncle Julius was terrifying from the start, and grew more so when his special function was to punish the poor sickly child. A riding-whip was used, and it was well laid on and frequently. These things and others similar do much to dim the aureole of Julius Hare, for which Carlyle showed some contempt in his Life of Sterling. His wonderful reading is remembered here as elsewhere with the greatest admiration. When the boy's father came to the rectory he did not notice his existence, thus even bettering the instruction which he received when parting with his child. "He was in the habit of calling his children by the names of beasts." Augustus was "the Wolf," his brother William "the Beast," and his sister "the Tigress." Various members of the family get a fearful setting out. Mrs. Hare Naylor "would make the most fearful tirades against people, . . . and the instant they attempted to defend themselves she took down her trumpet." Our author remembers her daughter only as "a sickly, discontented, petulant woman," who "*preferred* ill health" because of the sympathy it excited, and got up a death-bed scene once or twice every year for the delicious excitement. There were alleviations when his mother's people were visited (his mother by adoption is always meant by "my mother" after his going to her). Sundays were "far less horrid" there than at home. Loving his mother passionately, he lived in constant fear of her. She was always on the watch for undue indulgence of him on her part, and with great success. Rhubarb was regularly administered morning and evening "to strengthen the stomach," and did much to weaken it. In his sixth year, under the reign of the Maurices, he was subjected to a penitential code. The most delicious puddings were talked of, dilated on, and then, at "le grand moment," when they were set before him and his mouth was watering, he was told to get up and carry them to some poor person in the village.

Mr. Hare's school-days were not much happier than the previous dispensation. There was open war between him and Mrs. Julius Hare, whose favorite discipline was to revile his immediate family. "She was the Inquisition incarnate." There was a Mrs. Alexander, "une personne glacée autant que glaciale," who came to the rectory for three days and stayed three weeks, and next came for three weeks and stayed five years. Her rule was absolute but advantageous on the whole. Nothing here or elsewhere is omitted that is likely to make Mr. Hare's narration disagreeable for the connections of the people whom he impales in his cabinet of moral curiosities. At Harrow he was sickly and wore iron "armor" for the straightening of his spine, but, though learning nothing valuable, and always homesick for his mother, he seems to have been happier than at home. Tutors were next resorted to, the last, a Rev. Charles Bradley, recommended by Arthur Stanley. He was the only person who ever taught young Hare anything, but his system of punishment was peculiar and ended in a fearful row. Young Hare was to be kissed before the school by another boy for carelessness in his Latin prose. He fled across the tables, upsetting the inkstands in his path, and finally took Mr. Bradley in the rear with a big lexicon, banging his bald head until his strength gave out; then he made off for Harrow as if he were the hunted thing whose name he bore. He was taken back on condition that there should be no personal relations between them, and there were none till he went to Oxford in 1853, consigned to the protection of Prof. Jowett, who showed him much, and yet peculiar, kindness. While they were walking together, after a mile of silence, Jowett would say, "Your last observation was singularly commonplace." Summoned before the Council and asked, "Now, Mr. Jowett, *can* you sign the Thirty-nine Articles?" he dumfounded them with, "If you've a little ink." In general there are only kind words for Dean Stanley, but, when writing that Jowett "utterly ignored the Incarnation, Resurrection, etc., out of the pulpit as in it," Mr. Hare insinuates that Stanley would have done the same if he had had more courage. Mr. Hare's opinion of Oxford is contemptuous: "The college lectures were the merest rubbish." He reckons that fourteen years and £4,000 were wasted on his education.

His first work, after a book of epitaphs, was upon certain hand-books of Oxfordshire and Durham, and he complains that the Murrays, who urged him to undertake the second book, "never repaid him" for his work. The present Mr. Murray has proved from his books that the house paid £142 for the first book, £180 for the second, and lost on them £158 and £800 respectively; also, that the second commission was given at Mr. Hare's request. One cannot help wondering how much of such perversion, which a retort on Mr. Murray does not help, we have elsewhere under the stress of Mr. Hare's excellent opinion of himself and all his works and ways. His recollections of Landor are amusing if not wholly fresh. We have heard before of his throwing his dinner out of the window in a fit of impatience. That story of Browning's is now capped with one of Landor's seizing a pheasant by the legs and throwing it into the back of the fire. Lord Brougham, whom Mr. Hare saw frequently, is characterized as "the most disagreeable, selfish, cantankerous, violent old man who ever lived," and there is a bill of particulars. Mrs. Grote, the wife of the historian, surpasses the eccentricities and enormities of her reputation heretofore. "When George Grote and I were young," she said, "we were equally distinguished by the beauty of our persons and the vivacity of our conversation"; and in not being an opera dancer she felt that she had lost her one great opportunity. Some of the best stories repeated are Dean Alford's—one, of Archbishop Harcourt's permission by his bishops to hunt, "provided he did not shout." Of course, he said, he would not join the meet, but he "might fall in with the hounds by accident."

The Land of the Castanet: Spanish Sketches. By H. C. Chatfield-Taylor. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

On the Trail of Don Quixote. By August F. Jaccaci. Illustrated by Daniel Vierge. Scribners.

THE author of 'The Land of the Castanet' explains the lack of continuity between the chapters of his book by stating that several of

them were written separately as magazine articles. He covers chiefly the most familiar ground—Madrid, Cordoba, Sevilla, Granada, Gibraltar—and has the courage not only to describe once more the old scenes, but to add a great deal of simplified history and broad generalization, thus making his book one for readers to whom Spain is virgin soil. While there is nothing remarkably graphic or novel in his volume, it is entertaining enough, and that it is quite up to date may be inferred from the fact that reference is repeatedly made to the vigorous expressions of Spanish opinion as to America's supposed attitude toward Cuba. The writer came across a young Spanish officer, too, who had recently witnessed a Yale-Princeton football match, and who pronounced this sport "barbarous and cruel, and totally unfit for gentlemen." This same officer was an ardent admirer of bull-fights. Socially, the difference in the points of view is thus summed up:

"The first necessities of an Anglo-Saxon are a comfortable house and a good cook; in Spain only the very rich have either, but the display of equipages in the Retiro excels the similar show in Central Park; the opera in Madrid is as fine a sight as the opera in New York. An Anglo-Saxon invites a stranger to dine; a Spaniard takes him to drive or to the opera."

Mr. Chatfield Taylor appears to have a morbid dread of the personal pronoun. In narrating a personal experience he always uses "one"—"one has never seen more happy and contented faces"; "every person present greeted one with a friendly smile"; "the best dancing one saw in Spain"; and so *passim*. Nothing could be more awkward and self-conscious. The author, by this oddity, obtrudes the very thing he wants to hide, like an awkward person who does not know what to do in society with his hands.

In following the trail of Don Quixote, Messrs. Jaccaci and Vierge travelled on a path unbeaten by other tourists, avoiding towns and railways as carefully as the Vagabond in Spain. And they were rewarded for their discomforts by finding a country in which the habits and customs, the speech and dress, have remained practically unchanged since the day when Cervantes wrote his vivid sketches. They found the same old windmills, looking like toys placed there by a lunatic, the same primitive methods of travel, the same huge jars of wine, the same old way of threshing that was in use in the day of the Moors and the Romans, and nearly the same inns, in which the best room cost ten cents. They found the prison in which Cervantes is believed to have written his romance; but, with the original door closed, it is so dark that he could not have done more in it than sketch it in his mind. As in the case of Homer, half-a-dozen places still contend for the honor of having given birth to this author, who lived in neglect and misery, and whose genius was first discovered by the English.

Mr. Jaccaci found that the Spaniards of the region immortalized by 'Don Quixote' are living so far back in the past that they have to-day the same popular literature that England borrowed from the peninsula during the Elizabethan period. They still read 'Don Quixote' for its drollery, and insist that, apart from that, it contains the science of the world, too deep for them. Their fiction is still that which relates the adventures of Christian chevaliers, castle dames, and Moors, while the modern novelists, Galdós and Valdés, have not made the slightest impression on the popular imagination, and are read in the cities only. Moreover, not only do the villagers of La Mancha dress like Sancho Panza, but "all Manchegans are mines of those old sayings in which the wisdom of generations is crystallized into proverbs, which, like him, they constantly use to sum up tersely a situation."

A model traveller is Mr. Jaccaci—one of the kind that views even the discomforts of a primitive region through the rosy spectacles of a searcher for local tints. What if, in July, the thermometer often creeps up above a hundred at noon, while in the morning and evening heavy jackets and mantles are needed and a brushwood fire is a friend? He finds compensation in the fact that "the furnace air is dry, full of ozone, and rich with the pungent aroma of wild mountain plants. In a delicious monotony of surroundings the hours pass, enlivened only by the songs of the whirring, bustling, leaping locusts. How true is the Spanish equivalent for our 'dog-days'—*canta la chicharra*—the song of the locusts and cicadas rejoicing in the heat, which serves but to make the silence of the solitude heard." There was diversion, too, in the sport afforded by the wild pigeons and rabbits. Nor did he find man less interesting than nature, and there are some admirable character sketches in these pages, supplementing Mr. Vierge's delightfully suggestive pictures, which are scattered in great profusion through the volume, and go far toward showing that the author was right in feeling that "the illustrations of Cervantes's immortal romance should be the crowning achievement of Vierge's career." There is something in these sketches that gives one the atmosphere of a scene as instantaneously as a Japanese picture or poem.

In the author's opinion, our notions regarding Spanish indolence are true only as regards the "classes," "but the peasants are as hard-working a people as can be found anywhere." To their frugal diet he attributes the fact that they are such healthy creatures, solid and limber, the whole body ready to spring. Among the women he still found some of the pure Arab type. They have a hard time of it, their only diversion being religion, which the men affect to scorn, at least in so far as it is embodied in priests. In their ignorance of the world the sexes are alike. They know not the difference between North and South America, and all Americans are supposed to be half-breed descendants of the great Conquistadores and the Indians. Only in one respect has this region been modernized. The author agrees with the Vagabond in Spain that travelling in Spain is now as safe as in any country, thanks to the 28,000 guardias civiles. He did, indeed, secure an order from the governor entitling him at any time to the services of some of these officials, should he wish them. But he made use of it only once or twice—not that there was any danger of brigands, in the old style, but because there are tramps in all countries, and one of these might have taken it into his head to murder the traveller for the sake of a few pesetas.

The Beginners of a Nation. By Edward Eggleston. D. Appleton & Co. 1896. Pp. xi, 377.

MR. EGGLESTON has here given us the first instalment of an extended work on the preparation of which he has long been engaged, and whose general title is "A History of Life in the United States."

"I have sought," he says in his preface, "to trace from their source the various and often complex movements that resulted in the early English settlements in America, and in the evolution of a great nation with English speech and traditions. It has been my aim to make these pages reflect the character of the age in which the English colonies were begun, and the traits of the colonists, and to bring into relief the social, political, intellectual, and religious forces that promoted emigration. This does not pretend to be the usual account of all the events attending early colonization; it is rather a history in which the succession of cause and effect is the main topic—a history of the dynamics of colony-planting in the first half of the seventeenth century."

Mr. Eggleston has based his work upon a first-hand study of the primary sources, detailed accounts of which are given in the form of "elucidations," or notes, at the end of each chapter.

In its fundamental conception, as well as in its handling, 'The Beginners of a Nation' is a significant illustration of the change which has taken place in the treatment of American colonial history. This change, hardly generally recognized as yet, is not so much in method as in point of view. Earlier historians, with some of recent times, have been prone to regard the events connected with the founding and development of the colonies almost exclusively from the standpoint of the colonies themselves. The historian of the present day, however, trained under those modern historical methods whose watchwords are original research and comparative study, finds his proper point of view, not in America, but in England. To him the history of the English colonies in America is for many years the history of the operation of forces whose source was in the mother country, and whose every pulsation was registered on the face of colonial life. The earlier method gave us facts in abundance, but too often with faulty proportions and incorrect emphasis; the later method, viewing the early struggles of the American colonies as a phase of the larger life of England itself, has already put some things in a clearer light and shown significance in much which hitherto has passed as mere chronicle. Mr. Eggleston has taken his stand at this modern point of view, and it is in his exposition of the social forces which prompted and directed English colonization in this country that his work, judging from this first volume, promises to be notable. The most obvious comparison, perhaps, is with Doyle's 'English in America'; but Mr. Eggleston is less insular and less hostile than Doyle, while at the same time he passes over many details which the plan of Doyle's work necessarily includes.

The present volume deals with the settlement and early history of Virginia, Maryland, and Massachusetts. The mistaken and vicious policy which for years prevented the development of Virginia, and subjected the colonists to untold privation and suffering, is set forth with great clearness. Mr. Eggleston takes issue squarely with the older writers who praise the administration of Sir Thomas Dale.

"Careful weighing of the original authorities," he says (p. 67), "shows that Dale was utterly pitiless in the cruelty of his discipline and unjust in his detention of the old planters, and that when he left the colony he was more generally execrated than any other man that ruled in these early days, not even excepting his successor, Argall. Dale's severity was serviceable in carrying the enterprise through straits, but the reports of his harshness brought the colony into disrepute and checked immigration."

This judgment, of course, will hardly be accepted by such synoptists as Lodge, who speaks of Dale's administration as "strong and wise," and of Dale himself as one "to

whom Virginia is more indebted than to any of her early governors"; or Thwaites, who finds that Dale "induced fresh immigration of a somewhat better class," and "broadened the foundations of a prosperous state"; but these writers must at least take account of the authorities whom Mr. Eggleston adduces.

Of greater interest, however, and best illustrative of Mr. Eggleston's methods, are the portions of the volume devoted to the rise of Puritanism and Separatism, and the early years of the Massachusetts and Plymouth colonies. Mr. Eggleston has thought it worth while to devote an entire chapter to the rise and development of Puritanism in England, and another to Separatism and the Scrooby Church, before treating of the migrations at all; and few persons will read these pages without feeling that the author has given them a new outlook, and that the often told story of the beginnings of New England has, in his hands, taken on new interest and a wider significance. Here, as elsewhere, it is the broad movement of events, and not details, that receives attention. To be sure, Mr. Eggleston has found himself unable "to treat otherwise than unreverently" "the founders of the little settlements that had the unexpected fortune to expand into an empire"; and, certainly, any one who has pictured the "fathers" as paragons of virtue, is likely to have his reverence pretty rudely shocked if he reads Mr. Eggleston's book. It is not, however, the careless irreverence of the mere iconoclast, but rather the frankness of a student to whom motives and actions are more than professions and words. While we cannot help wishing at times that the writer were less sarcastic, we find it hard to think that his judgments are, in the main, unjust. Even his severe treatment of Endicott is not without its illuminating element. For the efforts of some recent writers to extenuate the intolerance of the Puritans in Massachusetts Mr. Eggleston has no sympathy.

"I have disregarded," he says, "that convention which makes it obligatory for a writer of American history to explain that intolerance in the first settlers was not just like other intolerance, and that their cruelty and injustice were justifiable under the circumstances. This walking backward to throw a mantle over the nakedness of ancestors may be admirable as an example of diluvian piety, but it is none the less reprehensible in the writing of history."

Mr. Eggleston has certainly not allowed many instances of ancestral nakedness to escape him; on the other hand, his treatment of Roger Williams leaves a general impression of favorable bias.

Mr. Eggleston has the gift of style. Crisp, clear, forcible, epigrammatic, abounding in happy characterizations and skilfully turned phrases, it attains at times, as in the general estimate of the character of Roger Williams, to something very like brilliancy. Few works on the period which it covers can compare with this in point of mere literary attractiveness, and we fancy that many to whom its scholarly value will not appeal will read the volume with interest and delight. We must not fail to commend the serviceable index, prepared, apparently, by Mr. Charles A. Nelson.

The Natives of Sarawak and British North Borneo. By Henry Ling Roth. 2 vols. London: Truslove & Comba. 1896. L. 8vo.

In this work an excellent service has been done for the student of primitive native life. It is a collection in a compact form, and so arranged and indexed as to be almost as easy of reference as an encyclopædia, of the accounts given by travellers, officials, and missionaries of the habits, modes of life, religious beliefs, history, etc., of the ten or more distinct tribes inhabiting British Borneo. A considerable part is derived from the manuscript notes of the late Hugh Brooke Low, the results mainly of his own observations during eighteen years' service under the Sarawak Government. To these Mr. Ling Roth has added such information as Mr. Low had overlooked or has been available since his death in 1887. In every case the words of the authors cited are given, with a reference to the work, report, or periodical from which they have been taken. A great profusion of illustrations of the people, their habitations, dress, ornaments, weapons, household utensils, etc., add very much to the value and interest of the compilation. It contains also a considerable amount of the history of the different tribes, together with translations of religious hymns, love songs, and legends which have been handed down orally from generation to generation.

Though the work is intended principally for the anthropologist, yet it is full of interest for the general reader. This is especially the case in the chapters on marriage, head-hunting, and religious and legendary beliefs. The accounts of the apparently ineradicable passion for heads, to which a friend will be sacrificed if a foe cannot be found, and the manner in which they are cherished, are almost incredible. And yet these same head-hunting Dyaks have religious hymns which Mr. Lang says, in his characteristic preface, "appear very beautiful to me." They inculcate a high morality, also, as is shown by the precepts: "Corrupt speech do not utter," "Do not be envious of one another," "All alike be clean of heart." Among the legends is a curious one of the deluge in which "all mankind perished, except one woman who fled to a very high mountain. There she found a dog lying at the foot of a jungle creeper, and, feeling the root of the creeper to be warm, she thought, Perhaps fire may be got out of it; so she took two pieces of its wood and rubbed them together and obtained fire; and thus arose the fire-drill, and the first production of fire after the great flood." This woman and the fire-drill gave birth to a child, who, with the aid of certain beasts, birds, and fishes, learned from the Wind Spirit what it was necessary to do in order that the world should "go on as before." Some of the legends show true humor, and are very similar to those told by the West Coast African and the Southern negro. The place of Brer Rabbit, however, is taken by Plandok, the dwarf deer, a foot high only, who, by his superior cunning, outwits the other animals, including Bruang the bear and a giant man. The appendix contains some extensive vocabularies of the different languages and dialects spoken, and ethnographical notes taken from a Dutch writer. There is, finally, a map of the island showing the habitat of the tribes of British Borneo, and an excellent subject index and bibliography.

Old Houses of the Antient Town of Norwich, 1660-1800. With maps, illustrations, portraits, and genealogies. By Mary E. Perkins. New London, Conn.: The Author, 148 Pequot Avenue.

All who have ever visited Norwich need not be told by us that it is one of the most attractive and picturesque places in this country. Prior to its first settlement by the whites (1660) the region of which the present city is the centre was the favorite place of residence and resort of some of the most powerful and numerous tribes of the aborigines of Connecticut. Of course, its present name was taken from "the fine old city" of Norwich, England; but one may regret that the old Indian name of "Mohegan," as it was called by the General Court of Connecticut at the time the latter granted to certain residents of Saybrook permission to remove and settle there, was not retained.

The present work, which may be called an illuminated domestic history, brings vividly before us, in a sort of house to house census, the state of society and the figures of many individuals in the period covered. Miss Perkins's painstaking citations from documents, and especially from private correspondence, and numerous and singularly attractive pictorial illustrations (exceeding 130 in number), convey a pretty clear view of the mode of life in a New England town before the rush and noise of the present century commenced.

Of course, nearly all those who lived in Norwich between 1660 and 1800 have passed away; but their descendants who still reside at their paternal home, and the host who have migrated to other parts of the country, can hardly fail to welcome this record of their ancestors, which includes not only many distinguished and well known personages, but many others, who, though less conspicuous in public, are not less interesting, especially to their posterity. Miss Perkins has endeavored to present the subjects of her narrative as they were in real life, without obliterating or concealing their quaintness under the folds of modern drapery. Their orthography was not quite that which prevails to-day, but it was much more correct than that of Major-General Israel Putnam, or even that of Queen Mary, the wife of William III.

Such a veracious contribution to the real history of the beautiful region to which it relates ought not to go unnoticed or unrewarded. The book is well printed, on good paper and with large and handsome type. A better or more tasteful series of process plates than those of the houses embodied in the text we have seldom seen, but there are also numerous precious portraits in photogravure. The genealogies fill a large space, and are not the least meritorious portion of this laborious work.

Reminiscences of an Octogenarian of the City of New York, 1816 to 1860. By Charles H. Haswell. Harper & Bros. 1896.

Mr. Haswell tells us in his preface, and again in his first chapter, that he compiled these reminiscences some twelve years ago, partly from his personal recollections and partly from a perusal of contemporary records. Unfortunately, the text nowhere indicates where recollection ends and gossip or the newspaper takes up the tale. This uncertainty compels the serious reader to so much research for corroboration or disproof that it leaves the book with but little real historical value. One can follow Mr. Haswell about the city in his hunting trips from Fourteenth Street to the Jumel estate on Washington Heights, with a sense of the miracles that a few years have wrought among those quiet wooded places; but his copious narration of incidents he could not possibly have seen, and that have no part whatever in a volume of "reminiscences," together with his disorderly mingling of mobs, the theatre, society, and

street openings, makes his bulky volume merely an historical curiosity-shop.

Where Mr. Haswell sticks to his personal recollections he has many lively and amusing things to tell—for instance, of the cry of "Trollope, Trollope!" which, during the thirties, was visited on offenders against decency in theatres and other public places by those whom Mrs. Trollope's "malicious," "but essentially true," strictures on American manners had stung to a mortifying realization of them. His sketches of the country simplicity of social life in New York at that period bring with them a sense of loss that our more splendid but less sincere society does not altogether compensate for; nor does the "tough" of to-day, our "Chimmie Fadden," fill the place of the lost "Moze," the famous "Bowery Boy," with his quaint costume of beaver hat, soaped locks, gaudy necktie, frock coat, and full pantaloons turned up over firemen's boots; his Homeric gallantry and brawling patriotism. On the other hand, Mr. Haswell's endeavor to make a sort of history of the city from all sorts of contemporary sources breaks down badly. His book not only lacks selection and arrangement, but is full of statements based on mere hearsay which might easily become mischievous if accepted by a careless or ill-informed reader. Take, for instance, his attributing to Arthur Tappan a preposterous code of rules for his clerks, which purports to be a literal copy, but betrays itself as being second-hand misrepresentation (p. 189).

The illustrations of the book are numerous, interesting, and well selected. The break in our civic continuity as manifested in our architecture is perhaps their most striking lesson for this period of swift transition.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annesley, Charles. The Standard-Operaglass. Eleventh, revised edition. Lemcke & Buechner. $1.50.
Ashton, John. The Devil in Britain and America. London: Ward & Downey; New York: Scribners. $6.
Balzac, H. de. The Deputy of Arcis. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Barnes, James. A Princetonian: A Story of Undergraduate Life. Putnams. $1.25.
Bétis, Victor, and Swan, Howard. Class-Room Conversations in French. Scribners. 80c.
Bibliographica. Part XI. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners.
Block, Henri. Property of Don Gilbar. New York: Authors' Publishing Association. 50c.
Brooks, Rev. Phillips. New Starts in Life, and Other Sermons. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.75.
Cairns, W. B. The Forms of Discourse. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Carlyle's Essay on Burns. [Students' Series.] Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Carlyle, Thomas. Sartor Resartus. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. $1.25.
Chambers, E. K. The Poems of Henry Vaughan, Silurist. [The Muses Library.] 2 vols. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
De Quincey's Revolt of the Tartars. [Students' Series]. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Devlin, T. C. Municipal Reform in the United States. Putnams. $1.
Dodd, Anna B. On the Broads. Illustrated. Macmillan. $3.
Dreyfus, Irma. Lectures on French Literature. Delivered in Melbourne. Longmans, Green & Co.
Dryden's Palamon and Arcite. [Students' Series.] Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Dumas, A. Celebrated Crimes. 3 vols. Boston: Joseph Knight Co.
Eastlake, F. W., and Yoshi-Aki, Yamada. Heroic Japan. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh.
Eddy, Rev. Richard. The Universalist Register for 1897. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 15c.
English Essays. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. The Three Homes. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Forbes, Archibald. The "Black Watch": The Record of an Historic Regiment. Scribners. $1.50.
Frye, P. H. The Substance of his House: Poems. Putnams. $1.
Goetz, P. B. Kallirrhoe: A Dramatic Poem. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 24, 1896.

The Week.

THE Dingley bill has been abandoned in the Senate, to the evident satisfaction of its friends as well as of its enemies. The sole contest between the two was as to how the credit or the blame of its taking off should be apportioned. The only persons in the United States who have given any sign of mourning for it are they of the Boston Home Market Club. They take it hard, because they say they cannot possibly wait till next spring. So the public will have a chance to see what happens to people who cannot possibly wait for a certain thing, and yet are obliged to do so. The touching obsequies in the Senate were marred somewhat by a speech from Mr. Sherman, who said that the bill was designed simply to supply the necessary revenue to the Government. This is very far from the truth. It was designed to put money into the pockets of certain protected classes and interests, and incidentally to give the Government more revenue, *perhaps*. Now that we are all working together to keep the Goths and the Huns from overrunning civilized government, why not speak the truth? Why not acknowledge that if we want revenue merely, we can get it by a bill, of not more than one page of foolscap, that will be entirely unobjectionable—a bill putting a stamp tax on instruments used mainly by the rich, or by increasing the tax on beer, or by putting duties on tea and coffee, or, better still, by cutting down the public expenses to the dimensions of the revenue? A little candor would be very beneficial just now, and might help to pass the other tariff bill that is in preparation for next spring.

That was not the only disingenuous statement imposed on the Senate by Mr. Sherman. He said that if the revenues of the Government had been sufficient to meet its expenditures, there would have been no need of the sale of bonds to replenish the gold reserve—meaning, of course, the expenditures other than the redemption of legal-tender notes. How far this is from the truth the following figures will show:

PROCEEDS OF BOND SALES.		REVENUE DEFICIT. Fiscal year.	
Feb. '94	$58,640,017	'94	$69,803,240
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Feb. '96	111,166,246		
	$293,388,338		$138,650,727
		Excess of proceeds of bond sales..	154,737,611

If there had been no drain on the Treasury for gold (due to the Sherman act), the amount of money required to be raised by bond sales would have been only $138,650,727, or less than one-half of the amount actually so raised. Even the deficit that has existed Mr. Sherman ascribes to the Wilson tariff, whereas that tariff did not go into operation till August, 1894, after two bond sales had been necessitated and one of them effected. The truth is, that the deficit was caused by the McKinley tariff and the new pension legislation coming together. The former was avowedly passed "to reduce the revenue," and this it accomplished by repealing the sugar duties and giving a bounty to domestic producers of sugar. The latter added $50,000,000 to the public expenditures. The two things made a difference of $120,000,000 in the Government's balance sheet, and now Mr. Sherman puts all the blame on the "Wilson-Gorman tariff." Is not that prevarication about played out?

One part of Secretary Carlisle's report should make some impression even upon a torpid Congress. It is the part in which he urges retrenchment. On the basis of the present estimates, he notifies Congress that it will be deliberately voting a deficit of $45,000,000. Congress avows its own imbecile helplessness in the matter of increasing the revenue. Not an added tax can be levied, not an added dollar brought into the Treasury. Then why not cut down the appropriations? asks the Secretary. This seems an obvious suggestion, but Mr. Carlisle is the first man in authority at Washington to make it. Senator Sherman declared passionately the other day that it was a shame and a disgrace to Congress not to pass a bill to increase the revenue. The shame and disgrace of waste, of wanton and reckless extravagance, never occurred to him or anybody else in Congress. Nor does the Secretary of the Treasury leave all in the vague. He shows in detail where the extravagance has crept in, and intimates clearly the ways in which it may be pushed out. He justly asserts that "the great increase in the ordinary expenditures of the Government during the last seven years has been without precedent in our history."

The Secretary's conclusion is that of every other man who has looked into the affair, namely, that there has been no such "necessary extension or substantial improvement of our public service as to justify these enormous increases in expenditures." Wherever a probe has been thrust in, as by the Dockery committee of the last Congress, wastefulness and sinecures have been found. It is safe to say that any well-managed business, finding itself in embarrassment like the Government's at present, could extricate itself handsomely by the most obvious kinds of economy and cutting off of useless or scandalous expenses. But, of course, it is the last thing Congress will think of doing. Economy is the most unpopular policy that any man can advocate in any popular assembly—that is to say, if he advocates it sincerely, with a bill up his sleeve to enforce economy. An old English financier said, "If you want to rouse a certain cheer in the Commons, rise and deliver a panegyric on economy; if you want to invite a certain defeat, propose a bill to effect any particular economy." So it will doubtless be in this Congress. Mr. Carlisle's recommendation of retrenchment will be no more regarded than the whistling of the winter wind over the capitol. Nevertheless, he may have the satisfaction of knowing that he is entirely right. If there were any umpire between him and Congress, he would be given the victory without hesitation. As it is, he will have to put up with the somewhat meagre contentment of the Roman who proudly said that though the conquering side was pleasing to the gods, the defeated side was pleasing to Cato.

Four commercial bodies took action on Monday against the Cameron resolution for recognizing the independence of Cuba. The Baltimore Board of Trade passed resolutions declaring that the action taken by the Senate committee was ill-timed, hasty, and calculated to greatly embarrass, if not actually sever, the peaceful relations now existing between Spain and our country, and, as a natural consequence, to seriously damage our commercial and financial interests, already suffering from grave depression. The St. Louis Cotton Exchange adopted resolutions of similar tenor. They considered that such a step as that proposed by the Cameron report would be instrumental in lowering the values of all farm products, and especially that of cotton, to the great detriment of American producers of that staple. The Vicksburg Cotton Exchange and Board of Trade united in protesting against the Cameron resolution and in asking the Senators of Mississippi to vote against it. The Boston Merchants' Association took similar action. As all these protests were passed the same day and without any concerted action, they betoken a spirit of strong opposition among the commercial classes of the country to the reckless behavior of the Senators who compose that committee, to wit (of those present), Senators Sherman, Frye, Davis, Cameron, Cullom, Lodge, Morgan, Daniel, and Mills.

The *Tribune's* "Steady, Now!" on its Sunday editorial page was a proper, though tardy, appeal to reason in this Cuban business, but the men whom that paper should have made heroic efforts to "steady" were its own Washington cor-

respondent and its local "head-line editor." On the first page we were informed of the terrible danger that "Congress May be Defied," and the Old Pensioner was let loose for a column in denunciation of Secretary Olney's "counter-challenge of contempt and defiance." The patient explorer of the detailed dispatches given farther on would find that the House was in agreement with Mr. Olney, and that therefore all that was defied was a reckless committee of a reckless *Senate*. But the inflammatory headlines would have done their work with nine readers out of ten, who would have carried off the impression that the President was bent on wicked usurpation of the power of Congress. The instance is a good one of the incoherency and futility of much of our newspaper "editing." The devil's work is done on the first page, and the editor's appeal for deliberation and decency can have little weight with readers who perceive that it has none with himself. As for the head-line artists, they doubtless chuckle to themselves and say, "Let who will write the editorials of a country provided we may manufacture its news and put lying 'heads' on it."

Some of the Southern newspapers see trouble ahead in case Cuba should come into the Union and be "one of the United States." The first result would probably be one if not two mulatto Senators sitting beside Morgan and Call, and whom those high-born Caucasians would not associate with outside of the chamber. Maceo himself, whom they are so fond of praising, and who no doubt deserved all the praise he receives, was a mulatto. If he were alive and in Washington today, and were to hold a reception or give a dinner party, no Southern Democratic member of either house would go to it, or would be reëlected if he did. The condition of affairs in "Cuba Libre" would be such that a considerable part of the white population would leave the island, and the political power of the blacks would be correspondingly increased. All of them, both whites and blacks, are Roman Catholics of the bigoted Spanish type, in whose minds religion and the State are inseparably joined. Their presence as a part of our law-making power would be one more element of heterogeneousness, and an element especially obnoxious to the South. We do not wonder that Southern newspapers want to draw the line between Cuba Libre and annexation. Let Cuba be free, but not come any nearer to the United States.

The extraordinary performances of various Senators regarding our foreign relations provoke national curiosity as to their motives, and lend interest to any attempt on the part of their constituents to solve the mystery. The course of Roger Q. Mills of Texas has, perhaps, caused more surprise throughout the country than that of any other member of the body. He served for many years in the House, and established a good reputation in that branch, but his course in the Senate since the first year or two after his entrance has been almost worthy of a crazy man. The people of Texas do not know what to make of him. The Galveston *News* discusses at length his "diversities of character," characterizing him as "a statesman, if he may latterly be called such, of phenomenally fitful and irregular tendencies," and pronouncing his public career "a strange mixture of energy, industry, prudence, rashness, boldness, timidity, tenacity, and frenzy." As illustrations it cites his proposition in the Senate to prohibit the sale of bonds to save the Treasury and credit of the country from imminent peril; his announcement on the stump that he would vote for the free and unlimited coinage of pewter money before he would assent to the disruption of the Democratic party; and his recent scheme to have the President take military possession of Cuba.

There were several public men who were so active in the free-coinage secret service which "fixed" the Democratic State conventions of last spring, and so idle in the hot Presidential canvass which ensued, that comment of no very favorable nature was attracted, even from the silver organs; witness the sarcastic criticism of the Mobile *Register* and other Democratic organs on the conduct of these carpet knights. Some people reasoned that the free-coinage magnates were annoyed because, when they had led their followers to Chicago with their own Presidential candidate clearly pointed out, the mob stampeded after an unknown young adventurer. Others argued, with some show of plausibility, that the lack of anticipated funds for palace-cars and for carte-blanche at the best hotels had caused these leaders to prefer the comforts of their own homes between July and November. Others, again, believed that the flat-money principles blatantly professed by Bryan had disgusted those who would go no further than free silver. Whatever the cause, it will be easily recalled that the unfortunate Teller was the only member of the senatorial silver clique to make a serious effort in the boy candidate's behalf. How bad a mess he made of it, when his forged quotations, designed for the consumption of Illinois farmers only, were exposed, is a matter of history.

Senator Vest of Missouri was one of the malingerers. It was said of him, as of the others, that Bryan's greenback notions were too much for him. We have always doubted such a motive, chiefly because it has been our invariable experience that a free-coinage agitator, pushed to the wall in argument, will show the colors of a thorough paper-money inflationist. The speech of Mr. Vest in the Senate, on Wednesday week, shows that our judgment was correct. Mr. Vest belongs by mental capacity, and probably by choice, to the ultra-inflation school of agitators. Here is his statement:

> "We are told that there is $22.85 per capita circulation in this country. A more atrocious falsehood was never put in print or uttered by mortal man. . . . There is no such money in circulation. They take no account of bank reserves, State or national. They amount to over $600,000,000 at the least, locked up by law, that cannot be used by the people nor paid out by the officers of those institutions. And yet they are counted from year to year. . . . What we want and must have in this country is more circulating medium."

This is the regulation flat-money argument. What do we care for bank deposits? Who bothers his head about bank checks? How can you expect to impose on us by the story that the man with $100 in bank, and nothing in his pocket is $90 richer than the man with $10 in his pocket and nothing in bank? What we want is people with pockets full of silver dollars, or (of course), in the case of objection to the weight, with purses full of new legal-tenders. Then everybody will be employed, everybody will be rich, everybody will have whatever he wishes. Mr. Vest, in short, proclaims off-hand the stupid and exploded fallacy that the only money in circulation is the money of private hoards, that its only use in commerce is to fill up the pockets of the people. Banks are a nuisance and obstruction to prosperity; bank deposits an idle fund, contrived to swindle a hard-working population; the Italian immigrant with his money-belt is your true type of capitalist. We commend Senator Vest for his frankness. Every new bit of evidence to show that the free-coinage agitators are only a set of flat-money lunatics masquerading under free silver instead of unlimited paper, will add to the public awakening on the question.

The short session of a Congress is not apt to be fruitful of important legislation, the appropriation bills and other routine measures demanding all the time; but occasionally a non-partisan measure of great value is passed, like the civil-service law, which was carried through during the winter of 1882-'83. The present session seems now certain to be distinguished by the enactment of a law for the restriction of immigration more far-reaching than any ever passed. It applies an educational test to all persons over sixteen years of age who come from foreign countries, and denies admittance to those who "cannot read and write the language of their native country or some other language," except that an admissible immigrant over the age of sixteen may bring in with him, or send for, his wife, parent, grandparent, minor child, or

grandchild, notwithstanding the latter's inability to read and write. The House passed the bill in substantially the same form at the last session, the only changes made by the Senate being the substitution of sixteen for fourteen as the age limit, and the addition of an *ad captandum* provision allowing Cuban refugees to enter the United States, even if they are illiterate. The lower branch will doubtless accept these changes, and the President's approval of the bill may be expected. The enforcement of the new law will put an immediate and effective check upon the immigration of undesirable immigrants from the countries of southern Europe in particular. At the same time the annexation of illiterate Cubans on the one hand, and Hawaiians on the other, is the preoccupation of not a few supporters of the measure.

The Union League Club has chosen an excellent committee of fifty to go to Albany to urge Mr. Choate's election. There could hardly be better names found in the City Directory. These gentlemen are not necessarily going with the hope of succeeding. If success were easy, if the Legislature represented the people of the State, they would not have to go at all. A representative Legislature could not hesitate if it had to choose between Joseph H. Choate and Tom Platt for the United States Senate. It is because it is not representative, because it is "owned" and the press has been "called off," that this committee has been brought into existence. It goes to Albany mainly in order that the great scandal and disgrace of Platt's election may not pass without protest; that it may not be set down in history that when the State of New York could get one of its leading citizens, an able, learned, eloquent man of high character, to serve it in the Senate, it chose in his stead one of its meanest citizens, feeble, ignorant, mischievous, characterless—and no one cried shame. It goes to show that there are still Americans among us who recall the great days of the republic and the high standards of its founders, and would fain keep for their country its legitimate place in the march of civilization.

But one cannot read over the list of names on the committee without asking himself: Is it possible that fifty such men, influential as they are in finance, law, commerce, and manufactures, can do nothing to stop the payment of money to Platt by the corporations? But for this money he would have his legitimate place among us, that of an exposed blackmailer, and the State would be delivered from the scandal of his political influence. If this money were refused to him, his foul domination would cease instantly. Can these gentlemen do nothing to bring home to the officers of the companies on which Platt levies, the mischief they are doing to their country and their children? The man's power is utterly factitious. It rests on their money. Were they to withdraw the money, he would not have the slightest capacity to do them harm, and they must know that Platt's system cannot go on for ever. It must bring ruin in the long run on all the ideas, customs, and habits on which the safety of corporate and other property lasts. It is no more legitimate business or legitimate politics than "holding up" trains or passing forged checks. But it can run long enough to demoralize the whole community and hasten the day when, as one of the Bryanites said, "Bankers may be hung like horse-thieves."

Platt has very evidently prepared some circular letters for his dummies in the Legislature to send to Senator Pavey, in response to the latter's inquiry as to their attitude on the senatorship. Two replies of this kind have been published, and the similarity of language and ideas is so striking that there can be no doubt that both originated in the same quarter. Both are extremely eulogistic of Platt and his wonderful services, and are pervaded by the same tone of personal admiration for him which distinguished his circular letter to the Platt editors of the State two years ago. It is characteristic of him that he should be so careless of the reputations of his "men" as to make them publish their subserviency with so little disguise. Their letters are put into print in this city almost before it is possible for them to reach Senator Pavey by mail, the boss's anxiety to read his own praises of himself being too great for him to be able to await the slow process of the postal service. Ordinary consideration for the reputations of his dummies would lead him to employ several different hands in the composition of his replies, but he has never shown anything of that kind for his "men." We observe that Assemblyman Austin of this city makes the unnecessary announcement that he prefers Platt to Choate for Senater. How else could he hope to be Speaker of the new Assembly?

The argument that is oftenest used, and oftenest proves most irresistible, in discouraging opposition to Platt, is, What is the use of fighting him when he is certain to be elected? This has been employed in the interest of various politicians of doubtful character for many years in this State. It used to be said of Hill that "the Mugwumps have been pounding him for seven or eight years, and he is stronger now than he was when they began." He was apparently stronger, but not really so. He was able in 1892 to control both branches of the Legislature and the Governor, and had the machinery of his party so firmly in his grasp that he held a State convention in midwinter and had a solid Hill delegation sent to the Democratic national convention. But beyond that point he could not advance. The long "pounding" of the Mugwumps had made his character so well understood by the country that he had no strength whatever as a Presidential candidate. The same "pounding" so completely revealed him and his methods to the people of New York that in three successive elections they defeated him and his party by majorities ranging from 90,000 to 150,000, with the result finally of retiring him to private life. It is now necessary to do like work with Platt. He must be shown up so thoroughly that the people of the State will see him as he is and send him after Hill. No matter how successful he may be now, his fate is certain, provided honest men and honest newspapers do their duty.

Mr. Olcott, the new District Attorney, by Gov. Morton's appointment, makes the surprising announcement that, in selecting men for the minor positions of the office, he shall defer to the Assembly district Republican associations, asking them to submit names for his consideration. In consequence of his saying this he is already overrun with applications, all backed by the Republican machine workers. We beg to suggest to him that he may not be able to make his own selections for these minor places from such lists as he mentioned. It is possible that those places are all under the State civil-service regulations, and that he can make his selections only from the eligible lists which result from competitive examinations. The motley array of names which the "Progressive Civil-Service Reform Association," led by Gruber and Van Allen, is making out for him may not need to be considered by him. He can remove all the present incumbents, but can he fill their places otherwise than from the eligible lists? If it be found that he cannot, the discovery will intensify the loathing of the "Progressives" for the civil-service law. Possibly had he and the Progressives suspected it, the machine recommendation of his candidacy would not have been so hearty as it was. The question to be decided is whether or not these minor places come within the constitutional requirement that "all appointments and promotions shall be made according to merit and fitness, to be ascertained by examinations which, so far as practicable, shall be competitive." Mr. Olcott must show that competitive examinations would not be "practicable" in this instance, for under the following ruling of the Court of Appeals the matter is not decided by the regulations and statutes:

> "If the Legislature should repeal all the statutes and regulations on the subject of appointments in the civil service, the mandate of the Constitution would still remain, and would so far execute itself as to require the courts, in a proper case, to pronounce appointments made without compliance with its requirements illegal."

CUBA IN THE SENATE.

It is rather surprising that the task of embroiling this country in a war for "Cuba Libre" should have fallen to the lot of Don Cameron. This sluggish knight has had a seat in the Senate nearly a quarter of a century, and never took any interest in any public question until a couple of years ago, when he came out as a 16 to 1 silverite of the Bland and Bryan variety. His political activity has now assumed a new form. He proposes to recognize Cuban independence as an accomplished fact by resolution of Congress, and has secured a majority of the committee on foreign relations, including Senator Sherman, to report it favorably. The statement given out by Secretary Olney on Saturday to the effect that Congress was not vested with the diplomatic function of recognizing the independence of Cuba was not only right *per se*, but timely and necessary. It is imperative that a check be given to the attempt now making to conduct the foreign relations of the Government through town meetings. No other country has ever embarked on such a perilous career except France under the Revolution. The result of the experiment then was to involve the country in a war with the whole of Europe, which ended in her own subjugation by a despot and the eventual subjugation of the country and the despot after a deluge of blood lasting twenty years. They manage these things better in France to-day. They have profited by their experience. Although they have a republican form of government, the diplomatic function is reserved to the executive branch exclusively, and the question of recognizing a new government would never be submitted to the legislative department, still less to mass-meetings in the provinces. Government could not be carried on that way. Nor can it be carried on that way here. To submit such delicate questions to a referendum would be like giving dynamite bombs as playthings to a kindergarten. Constitutional questions of this kind must be judged by their consequences. Ex-Senator Edmunds is probably justified in saying, as he is quoted in the *Herald*:

> "The right of Congress in its legislative character to declare war is expressly given by the Constitution, but the power to make peace and preserve it is given by the Constitution to the President, acting, in most cases, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. To say the least, therefore, the right of Congress to recognize the establishment of a new state in the family of nations against the judgment of the executive branch is extremely doubtful, and to do so would, under existing circumstances, necessarily produce evils the extent of which can hardly be estimated."

Secretary Olney's statement, however, must be looked at in the concrete rather than in the abstract. He says that the power to recognize Cuba as an independent State resides with the President exclusively, and that the Cameron resolution, if passed, even by a two-thirds majority, will be inoperative. "It may," he continues, "raise expectations in some quarters which can never be realized. It may inflame popular passions, both in this country and elsewhere, may thus put in peril the lives and property of American citizens who are resident and travelling abroad, and will certainly obstruct and perhaps defeat the best efforts of the Government to afford such citizens protection. But except in these ways, and unless the advice embodied in the resolution shall lead the Executive to revise conclusions already reached and officially declared, the resolution will be without effect, and will leave unaltered the attitude of this Government towards the two contending parties in Cuba." This is equivalent to saying that the country shall have peace as long as Mr. Cleveland remains President. Nothing could be more judicious or more satisfactory to sober-minded citizens. Nothing done by Mr. Cleveland's Administration has been received with more manifest pleasure by the business interests of the nation. The news comes now by way of Europe that Mr. McKinley is of the same way of thinking as Mr. Cleveland; that he, too, is opposed to the break-neck policy of conducting our foreign relations by town meeting, and to a premature recognition of Cuban independence.

It is not probable that the Senators who voted for the Cameron resolution in committee on Friday really desire that it should pass. Long experience has taught us to look upon such outbreaks as gymnastic exercises merely. They are playing to the pit. They are afraid that somebody at home will "cut under" them. They want to do something that they think will command the votes of the multitude, and win the applause of the thoughtless and reckless portion of the community, hoping that the House or the President or the chapter of accidents will prevent their action from causing any great harm. This is what they mean when they say that "there will be no war." They mean that although they are taking the steps to bring on a war, somebody or something else will intervene to save us from that calamity. None of them thus far has expressed any desire for war. In fact, that would not be popular, for there is no feeling of hostility among our people towards Spain. Aside from a belief that Spain is an oppressor of a people struggling to be free, there is no disposition here to wish her harm. There is, therefore, no substratum of hostility for the veriest demagogue in the Senate to work upon. Hence we cannot imagine that the Senators who voted for the Cameron resolution had any other design than to put themselves on record as being as thoughtless and reckless as the other town meetings that are passing judgment on Cuban affairs in Texas, California, and elsewhere.

Reference has been made in this discussion to President Jackson's message of December 21, 1836, on the subject of the independence of Texas, as though it were a document decisively against Mr. Olney's position and in favor of Don Cameron. On the contrary, a more calm, temperate, and conservative communication was never penned by an American President. In its moral and practical aspects it sustains Mr. Cleveland admirably. Although the revolutionary government of Texas had a local habitation as well as a name, and was capable of entering into diplomatic relations with other governments, although it was conterminous with our territory, and although the revolutionists were Americans by birth and in one sense a part of ourselves, and although they had actually expelled the Mexican army, President Jackson counselled delay, and suggested that the republic of Texas be not recognized by us until it was recognized either by Mexico, its own mother country, or by some leading nation of the Old World. On the mere abstract question, whether the power to recognize resided with Congress or with the Executive, he rather leaned to the opinion that it belonged to Congress; but his opinion was not very decisive, and was evidently expressed as a matter of deference rather than of mature deliberation.

THE RISE IN OUR FOREIGN TRADE.

In the present somewhat unusual situation of our market for international exchange, the report of last month's foreign trade of the United States, just issued by the Bureau of Statistics, is particularly interesting. The belief was rather general, after the sound-money victory of November 3, that the merchandise export balance, which had been so exceptionally heavy during the summer and autumn months, would be reduced. The ending of the money-market disorder would make possible a renewal of plans for importing and marketing foreign goods; the same factor would encourage home producers and manufacturers to hold back their products in anticipation of better prices. As a matter of fact, the first advices received after the November vote announced that farmers at interior points had ceased to forward wheat for export in such quantity as characterized the movement of October, and that large orders for merchandise importations, placed conditionally in the foreign markets, were being executed.

The November statement, however, by no means shows any such change in the character of the month's foreign trade as had been anticipated. Our exports for the month were barely $4,000,000 short of the October record, and exceeded the exports of November, 1895, by $26,294,525. Imports, meantime, did not increase at all over either October or September; as a result, last month's excess of merchandise exports over imports was $59,053,885, against only $23,967,764 in November, 1895. For the eleven completed

months of 1896, the merchandise export balance reaches the extraordinary figure of $266,086,709, whereas last year, up to the close of November, we had actually imported more than we had exported.

This unexpected continuance of a diminished import trade is sufficiently explained by the dull commercial season which has prevailed. The maintenance of our heavy export trade, however, is of more material significance. While our breadstuffs exports for November were slightly less than those of the month preceding, the cotton shipments were decidedly increased, and in these two branches of our trade combined we sold last month to foreign consumers $16,500,000 more than in November, 1895, and $18,000,000 more than in 1894. By all accounts, moreover, our shipments of manufactured products to the foreign markets, not yet reported on in detail by the Bureau, have held during the last six weeks to their recent unprecedented average. The detailed summary of the country's commerce for October and for the first ten months of 1896 reaches us at the same time with the general statement for November, and in its export trade returns furnishes some interesting particulars.

Export of copper, for example, increased during the ten recorded months no less than $12,055,513 over the same period in 1895; Europe taking all the increased shipments. Exports of bicycles and bicycle appliances increased $2,921,603; shipments to England, the Continent, Canada, and Australasia having grown from almost nothing a year ago to a very active and flourishing trade to-day. Export of cotton cloths was larger by $5,661,859 in the ten months of 1896 than in 1895, nearly all of the heavy increase coming in our trade with China and Canada, two fields of commerce once surrendered almost wholly to the English manufacturers. Of machinery our total exports increased $4,593,076 over 1895, and here we have invaded the personal domain of the European manufacturer, for Great Britain and the European states took from us upwards of five millions more than they took in the preceding year. In practically every other branch of American manufacture, including leather, lead, zinc, wood, and paper goods, manufactured tobacco, and canned provisions, there has been an increase over 1895 running from 5 to 200 per cent.

These comparisons prove, quite unmistakably, that the accident of a season through which Europe was forced to buy our grain this year in larger quantity and at higher prices, is only one cause, and not the most important, of our present unusual command over the world's consuming markets. Our export of grain alone this year, up to the opening of the present month, showed an increase over 1895 of $45,801,725, but the total merchandise export from this country, during the same eleven months, increases over last year by the extraordinary sum of $156,349,350. In other words, the wheat shortage abroad accounts for barely 30 per cent. of the total increase in our export trade. It is, to be sure, an easy possibility for the tariff-tinkers to demoralize and overturn, as they have done before, this sound and wholesome movement. It is conceivable that persistence in an utterly indefensible currency system will once more throw us out of joint with the markets of the world. But if mischief of this sort can be obviated, our restricted import trade and our enterprising search for outside customers will lay a solid foundation for the future.

Nothing could better illustrate the new position into which this country has been brought, by the trade developments of the year, than the fact that foreign money centres are at this moment borrowing heavily in this market. We are aware that some of the present operations in exchange are described as simple speculation, whereby money is raised in New York city to hold back sterling bills for sale at next month's anticipated higher rates. But it must be obvious to every one familiar with the sterling market that this operation simply reduces itself to borrowing capital in New York for the purpose of deferring a present claim on the London money market. The discount rate to-day in the German cities is 5 per cent., at London it is 3½, while at New York it is 3 per cent. or less; the unusually high European rates being distinctly a result of the capital drawn to the United States in settlement of our large trade balance against the foreign markets. That this is the actual situation, and that the recent advance in foreign exchange represents loans by this country to Europe, not repayment of our own European debt, is plain enough from the remarkable increase in loans of the New York banks. This account has expanded $38,000,000 since the middle of last month, in the face of an absolutely lifeless local demand for loans. As a matter of public knowledge, most of the new loans of the last five weeks have been made on sterling-exchange bills as collateral.

This leaves the immediate future of our international relations in finance a problem of peculiar interest. Apparently the situation is reversed completely from that of the last few years, when a rise in sterling in December meant the recall of capital owed by us to Europe, not the borrowing of our capital by Europe. The quite invariable outcome of this country's situation, in the four years prior to 1893, was a movement of international exchange against us pretty much throughout the year, and a continuous gold shipment. Such an event seems hardly probable in the coming season; New York has now heavy maturing credits to draw upon in London, and they would certainly be drawn upon were foreign exchange to rise to the specie-shipping point. The usual heavy demand for remittances against our January interest payments might conceivably send some gold abroad this month; but, under all the circumstances, it would virtually go as a loan from us, and would hardly reach large dimensions. It is, therefore, altogether possible that the new year will begin with the Treasury reserve no longer in danger of depletion. The conditions under which this altered situation has developed accompanied, and in large measure originated with, the Wilson tariff act and the Government loan of February, 1896. It would be asking much, however, to expect the new Administration and its friends to concede any such connection. We shall watch with interest for their explanation of the matter.

PLATT AND THE CORPORATIONS.

The Hartford *Courant*, a good Republican paper, states with remarkable clearness and force what an increasing number of people are to-day thinking and saying. It recognizes the fact that at the last election we merely escaped a great danger. We are somewhat in the position of people who, having been shipwrecked, have got ashore on a desert island and are asking themselves how they are to live until relief comes. "There was plainly something wrong," says the *Courant*, "with the way things were going, else there could not have been such a formidable demonstration against the very structure of society. Many are asking what the wrong things were. There is one wrong upon which there is very general and hopeless agreement—that is, the legislatures and the influence of corporations on them."

We shall not quote more from this article, which touches the core of the great evil with which we are contending in this State to-day. That the attacks of Bryan on the corporations did not make more impression was due to the fact that he attacked so many other things, and principally because he coupled with the corporations public and private credit. This ruined his case. But suppose he had confined himself to saying that the State legislatures were passing, and in many cases had passed, out of the hands of the people, and were now regularly bought up by money furnished by the corporations to a "boss," who undertook to procure such legislation and prevent such legislation as they desired, and who rendered no account; suppose he had alleged that the boss did his work by laying each member under pecuniary obligations, so that each member had a tacit understanding with him to follow his directions in the discharge of his legislative duties: what defence should we have made? Is it possible to deny one of the allegations made by the *Courant*? Could we have made any defence? We could not.

Moreover, we must not flatter ourselves that the Bryanite feeling is likely to die out. Bryan's follies about currency will

probably fade from the popular recollection. But what he says, and hundreds of others say, about the corrupt influence of corporations and rich men on our government will not fade from the popular recollection. It is the burning question of the day. The rapid decline in character and responsibility of the legislatures in the large States, such as New York and Pennsylvania, is feeding the flame of popular discontent. The agitation on this matter will last. We shall have to meet it in 1900. How shall we meet it? If we go on as we are now going, we shall have nothing to say. There is as yet no sign that our political men have taken the solemn lesson of last summer to heart. Some of them are preparing at Washington to increase the profits of a large body of rich men in their goods by a higher tariff. This State is preparing to set aside one of the foremost Americans of the day as a candidate for the senatorship, in favor of the very boss who carries on the corrupt and corrupting business of which we speak; and this when the antics of the Senate are filling the country with anxiety and alarm.

The boss in this State is treating the triumph of last summer as his triumph, and that of his nefarious trade. He has, as usual, returned a body of venal legislators subservient to his will. He has secured a Governor of his own stripe who gives every sign of readiness to do what he directs. He has apparently obtained the appointment, as Superintendent of Insurance, of a man whom a leading Republican denounced last year as a "stench in the nostrils" of honest men. We are credibly informed that the corporations would welcome his appointment, and do now support it, not because he is upright and skilful and experienced and honest, but because they know him to be pliable and easy to buy. In other words, his appointment would be, in a certain sense, in part a return for their money. The boss has also secured the control of the Railroad Commission of the State by getting his creatures put on it, so that his power over the moneyed companies of the State is really to-day more complete than it has ever been before. His arrangements are more perfect. He even exacts for himself the highest honor his venal Legislature has to bestow. Not in any direction is there the slightest sign that he or his followers have profited by the lesson of the election.

All men who love their country will do well to ask themselves now whether this can last without having in the end a serious reckoning. We have been astonished and alarmed by the financial theories of the Bryanites. Take care that we shall not be more alarmed in 1900 by their theories about government. It will be extremely difficult for us who allow the boss's relations with the corporations to continue, to meet them. Shall we be able to show that the people of Pennsylvania are truly represented at Harrisburg or the people of New York at Albany? Shall we be able to show that the sending of Quay and Cameron, Hill and Murphy to the Senate was for the popular good? Shall we be able to explain the Platt and Quay system to the multitude as the best thing we could do for the people?

The truth is, as every one is now seeing more and more, we cannot begin too soon to make ready for the next Presidential election. We shall have to encounter arguments far more difficult to deal with than Populist attacks on the currency. These are refuted by the nature of things and the course of events. But what kind of "catechism" or pamphlet shall we have to compose which will show Platt to be a good institution? Does any one suppose the discontented masses will say that the purchase of legislatures is a good use to make of corporate money? The campaign of 1900 will, too, be "a campaign of education," but it remains to be seen who will get the education. The thing which this year's campaign made clear was that the American people are not yet ready for bogus money, but it also made clear that they are not ready for the permanent establishment of boss government. What will they have in its stead?

STORE MANNERS.

THE Consumers' League, an organization of ladies who are interested in the condition of working-women and girls, and have published a "white list" of retail houses who treat them well, offers the following advice to shoppers:

"If at any time you may feel irritated or annoyed by apparent indifference or carelessness of saleswomen, stop and consider what it means to be on one's feet from ten to fourteen hours a day, in a crowded space, shoved and pushed about, lifting heavy boxes at times, waiting on impatient customers and customers who wish to be helped to know their own minds, keeping accounts of sales and stock, taking addresses often given hurriedly and carelessly, and fined in many instances if written down incorrectly; and all this for salaries ranging from $3 to $8 a week, and obliged to dress neatly and fairly well, and to pay out of it for one's meals, lodging, washing, clothing, and carfare."

And this to saleswomen;

"We must also appeal to saleswomen themselves to do their duty to the public and to their employers. Our efforts to secure for all the women and girls who work in retail shops in this city the same conditions which exist in the shops on the White List of the Consumers' League, are hampered by the fact that the service is often better in the shops which are not on the White List. The saleswomen in the shop which, of all others in New York, gives its employees the greatest number of privileges, have been so notoriously rude in their treatment of the public that ladies have given that reason for not patronizing it, and thus a very strong moral as well as business argument can be made in favor of fines and severity of discipline."

The observation on all this which most readily suggests itself is, that the great mass of shoppers are themselves poor, or of very moderate means; that they, too, have their worries and vexations, and that when they go shopping they do not do it for recreation, or for the consideration of anything except the best mode of making a dollar go far. Besides this, they are not obliged to go to any store in particular. When rudely treated in one, they can and do go to another; and they are not likely to submit to bad treatment because the shop-girls are too hard-worked or too poorly paid. They will not, under such circumstances, bestow any fruitful attention on the condition of the girls, particularly when, as the League acknowledges, the saleswomen in the shop which, of all in New York, "gives its employees the greatest number of privileges, have been so notoriously rude in their treatment of the public that ladies have given that reason for not patronizing it." We thus see that reflection on the troubles of the saleswomen would not always do good. Nor does even an improvement in their treatment by their employers always lead them to adopt better ways.

We are thus driven to the conclusion that the question of manners and consideration is of far more importance to the saleswomen than to the customers. The customers are not obliged to submit to bad manners; they can go elsewhere. Good manners mean business success to the girls. They mean the prosperity of the store, and, as a possible result, better wages and shorter hours. To the customers they mean simply a few minutes of pleasurable sensation, and a determination to make another purchase in the same place at another time. In fact, the bad manners of the salesmen, and particularly of the saleswomen, in New York, are one of the misfortunes of the city. One of the mysteries of New York business is the singular failure of both employers and employed to consider manners as part of the investment. It is safe to say that a pleasing address, an appearance of welcome and of a desire to satisfy the shopper, to meet her wishes and make her feel that her custom is valued, are worth a large amount of capital, in proportion to the size of the store. We should not exaggerate greatly if we said good manners would enable a dealer to dispense with one-third of his investment in money in all retail business.

This criticism is not so true of the men as of the women. The fault of the men when they try to be polite, especially with ladies, is coarse familiarity. The fault of the women is rudeness and indifference, especially towards other women. They affect not to see them when they enter the store, not to hear them when they ask to see goods; fling the article asked for before them in an unmannerly way, and resume a conversation of their own with their mates, making it difficult for the customer to attract their attention again. This is of constant occurrence in a large number of the stores, even in two in this city which are carried on, not for purposes of private gain, but to help women who have seen better days. Complaints of these have reached us on several occasions of late. Little is

done in either to help the customer, or make her welcome, or to make her feel that her purchase is of any importance. An English lady complained to us of what she considered the singular custom in the stores among the women, of not looking her in the face—one of the most elementary marks of human respect. The saleswomen look away in order to give greater emphasis to their general indifference.

Part of this is undoubtedly due to want of early training. Manners are now rarely taught to children either at school or at home. They grow up "kind o' natural"—that is, behaving as they feel. But a good deal is due to a desire to assert some sort of social equality. "I am as good as you and I want you to know it, though I am a saleswoman," expresses the feeling at the bottom of much rudeness and indifference. The thing to say to people to whose comfort this assertion is necessary, is that they should not seek or hold any employment which brings them into contact with the general public. There are thousands of occupations which can be carried on without intercourse with the world outside, and these are the proper occupations for persons who feel it necessary to maintain their independence by rudeness. For every woman who means to enter the retail trade, manners should be considered by her and her employer as necessary as neat dress, or stools to sit on, or ability to add and subtract, or English speech. They should be learned and cultivated, like typewriting and stenography, as among the qualifications for a particular kind of business. We are always surprised that employers do not pay more attention to this in selecting their salesmen and saleswomen. We believe bad manners to be as injurious to business as inaccuracy in accounts or ignorance about the goods. Of course they are difficult to discover, owing to the customers' unwillingness to complain of maltreatment, but there is all the more reason why employers should themselves keep a sharp watch, and not only make inattention or indifference to customers a reason for dismissal or fine, but make failure to please, invite, and make welcome, a disqualification for the business.

IN OLD GUJARÁT.

AHMEDABAD, October 28, 1896.

THAT there is no hotel in this interesting old town is probably the reason why it is so neglected by European and American tourists. But it is not unpleasant to pass a few days in a *dâk bungalow;* and behind the station, where there is an excellent restaurant, one finds good beds and service in the Government Rest Rooms, which occupy the site of an old mosque, though nothing remains of the latter save the two graceful minarets that rise among the palms of the Rest Room garden. A week's stay at Ahmedabad will, I think, give more insight into Hindu life than can be obtained by a month's residence at Bombay, Agra, or Delhi. Moreover, the architectural remains surpass in beauty those of the last-named cities. The great Jain temple here, that of Hathi Sing, is unique in the history of pure Hindu architecture, and the delicate carving in the windows of Sidi Said's mosque is not equalled by anything in India or even in Cairo.

There are other temples and mosques well worth visiting, but these, despite their attractiveness, are not the main charm of the town. For Ahmedabad is the chief city of old Gujarát (this is now the official spelling), and here are preserved better than anywhere else certain sects and institutions which have remained almost untouched since the Middle Ages. Here, for example, is the stronghold of the Jain faith, that sect which, more fortunate than Buddhism, has succeeded in maintaining religious preëminence and political power in its ancient habitat. The Jains here are no miserable ascetics. Most of them belong to the merchant class, and the saffron brow-mark is seldom seen save on the forehead of very comfortable-looking burghers; for the wealth of the city is chiefly in their hands. Here, too, flourishes the worship of dark Kâlî, Çiva's female counterpart, to which awful goddess (I have been permitted to enter her shrine and look upon her, and she certainly is an awful being) a goat is still often offered.

Through the courtesy of a Brahmin friend who has some influence at the temple, I received permission to witness the sacrifice. It was at midnight. The goat, emblem of that human sacrifice which till within a few years was offered at the same shrine, was slaughtered by the gaudy but dignified priest with no great suffering, though perhaps its cry was somewhat stifled by the shouts of the worshippers. Through the Three Gates at the moment happened to pass a belated Jain, who could not avoid seeing the horrid spectacle, since the altar of sacrifice is immediately in front of the door of the temple, and the latter stands beside the inner Gate. With what horror he shrank back! I love these gentle Jains. Their main tenet is to hurt no living thing, and they observe it scrupulously. Lately I was invited to see a private temple in the house of a wealthy Jain merchant. He asked me first to remove my shoes, for none may walk shod in a Jain temple. Over every lamp, and there were many in the room, a shield was placed, lest any insect should be hurt. There were a few ants on the floor. "Please do not hurt them," he said, and added, smiling, "They are kind little Gujarát ants, and bite so softly that it would be a shame to punish them." But I did not test their kindness.

"Would you like to see our hospital?" asked my new friend. I knew what he meant—the Pinjra Pol. How often I had heard of it, and wondered at such inhuman charity! Till the year 1859 there was no other hospital in Ahmedabad, but the Pinjra Pol has existed for centuries. It is the same in every Jain community, and even some of the Vaishnava sects have their own Pinjras, asylums for sick beasts and houses of refuge for decayed animals (I suppose there can be decayed animals as well as decayed gentlewomen), with a little private apartment for bugs and vermin. A boy goes out every day and collects all the vermin he can find in precarious situations, housing them for good when he returns with them to the Pinjra (cage). All cattle that can be saved from the butcher are brought hither to end their days in peace. Here all dogs may come and pass a green old age; and sick monkeys are taken from the romping *bander-log*, which sport about the ruins near Kankariya lake, and are tended in the Pinjra till they become convalescent.

All this has its absurd side of course; but the instinct is kindly that prompts it, and the effect of the teaching influences all classes. In this town of 148,000 inhabitants, where, through the narrow and crowded streets of the Bazar, thousands jostle each other and ox-carts are entangled every minute, I have only once seen an animal beaten. Indeed, an extra touch of the guiding-whip usually elicits a disapproving *bas* (Enough!) from the throng. Nor have I seen any man drunk or any woman struck in all my wanderings, though I have gone freely through the lowest quarters. Jains and non Jains, all are well-disposed toward man and animals. It is the living faith of one powerful sect working on all the environment. Recently I stood by the Three Gates, and saw a group of water-carrier women pass through the court that connects the three massive gateways. There is a tree here, the home of squirrels. Not one of these common working-women, and they did not even belong to the Jain sect, failed to pause for a moment and fling a handful of grain to the expectant little beasts. It may have been all their religion, but it was good to see. The Jains themselves do not believe in God, but they have a very practical religion. It is a pity that it cannot be introduced among the nations of the West as a sort of subsidiary cult.

Speaking of the women reminds me that they have learned the art of walking like queens. I use this conventional expression, but in my limited experience with queens I have never seen one walk so well as does the stately working-woman of Ahmedabad. This is partly due to the fact that the latter wears only a short skirt and a sash, with sometimes a loose half-bodice, which is intended to cover the upper part of the breast, though it often fails to do so. Ease in attire is not, however, the main reason for the free gait and lofty carriage so conspicuous here; yet the secret is so simple that it is strange no fashionable boarding-school has caught it and advertised to turn out American girls that can walk. Let any young woman anxious to please try this receipt: Put a wad of cloth or straw on the head and balance on this a small jug or pail, walking around in the position enforced by the balance. I think an hour's daily exercise of this sort might improve health as well as carriage; but at any rate it would produce something better than the dragon stride of the English girl or the usual amble of her Yankee cousin.

There has just been opened, by the way, a "Hindu woman's club-house" in Ahmedabad, the first of its kind. It is a sort of native *gymkhana*, or exercise hall, exclusively for Hindu ladies. These ladies this week kindly put their hall at the disposal of the Gujarát "Educational Conference," which I was invited to attend. Appropriately enough, the principal topic discussed was female education. The building itself is of marble, of two stories, well ventilated, with a general appearance of being all windows, so light and airy are the rooms. It is situated directly opposite the "Female College." Of this latter institution, as of the Jain trade-guilds of Ahmedabad, I should like to give you an account, but I fear I have taken too much space already.

Through the aid of a native friend and the great kindness of the chief merchants, I was accorded the honor of a special session of the "grand masters" (of the guilds), who furnished me with information that is all the more valuable as these corporations are rapidly losing their antique privileges. Ahme-

dabad is the most important guild-city in India, and I am glad to express thus publicly my indebtedness to these good-natured gentlemen, who gave up two hours of a business day, submitting to be quizzed in regard to the rules and jurisdiction of their private associations, merely that the stranger within their gates might not go back disappointed.

E. WASHBURN HOPKINS.

Correspondence.

DECREASING ILLITERACY OF THE COLORED VOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The new election law of Maryland requires all voters who can write to sign their names upon the registry of voters at the time they register. In the Eleventh Ward of Baltimore city there were registered 2,885 colored voters. Of these, 910 could not write their names and 1 975 did write them In other words, something more than two-thirds of them were able to write. Voters who in 1896 were forty-five years of age or over must necessarily have been at least fourteen years of age at the close of the war. There were registered 772 colored men of the age of forty five years or upwards. Of these, only 341 could write their names, and 431 could not. Voters who were between thirty-five and forty-five years of age were from four to fourteen years old at the close of the war. Of these, there were 705 registered, of whom 440 could write their names and 265 could not. The remaining class of colored voters were those between twenty one and thirty five years of age, none of whom were more than four years of age when the war closed. There were registered in the ward 1,408 of this class. Of these only 214 were unable to write their names. Reduced to percentages, it appears that fifty six per cent. of the colored men over forty-five years of age cannot write; thirty-seven and a half per cent. of those between thirty-five and forty-five are in the same degree of illiteracy; while of those under thirty-five, only a trifle over fifteen per cent. are unable to sign their own names.—Respectfully, JOHN C. ROSE.

BALTIMORE, MD., December 17, 1896.

CHRISTIAN SOCIALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A reader in this library has asked me to define Christian Socialism. I am unable to find a clear definition in any of the books. The latest definition I find is in a recent book by Lyman Abbott, entitled 'Christianity and Social Problems,' in which he says:

"It [Socialism] includes the Christian Socialist, who believes that Christianity is a social religion, and that the principles and precepts of Jesus Christ, carried out in social organizations, will revolutionize the present social order, as it has revolutionized social order in the past" (p. 123).

I should like to ask the editor of the *Nation* whether this definition is correct, and, if there be such a thing as Christian Socialism, why we may not logically have also Christian Anarchism, Christian Nihilism, and a number of other Christian isms.

The book referred to contains some statements worthy of notice, coming as they do from such a source, and which will be received with rejoicing by the enemies of the "money power." For instance, on page 61 the author says:

"At the present time one small body of men control the anthracite coal output, a second small body the oil, a third small body the meat, a fourth small body the transportation, and there are not wanting indications that a fifth small body will soon exercise a practical control over our currency or medium of exchange. This is a condition of things perilously near a control over a people's subsistence, against which Alexander Hamilton warned his countrymen."

Again, in the chapter on Christianity and Communism, referring to the single-tax idea, the author says:

"If land is made a subject of private ownership, it is only because the sovereign power deems such an arrangement better for the common welfare than is common ownership" (p. 86).

The advances made in Christian Socialism are pointed out on page 120:

"We have definitely abandoned *laissez-faire* and the Manchester school" . . . "Government has definitely, distinctly, and finally declared that the relations between men in industry cannot be left to the conflict of self-interest. There must be, in some measure, Government control exercised over them. From that declaration we shall never, in any Anglo-Saxon community, go back to the old pagan individualism."

Readers of this book, I think, would be glad to know how it is estimated by the *Nation*.

Very truly,

WM. M. STEVENSON, Librarian.

CARNEGIE FREE LIBRARY,
ALLEGHENY, PA., December 18, 1896.

MR. KIPLING JUSTIFIED.

TO THE EDITOR of THE NATION:

SIR: In your notice of Mr. Kipling's volume, 'The Seven Seas' (*Nation*, December 10, 1896), the reviewer quotes "that exceedingly keen and cool Oriental, the Swami Vivekananda," as authority for the statement that the very title of Mr. Kipling's ballad, "Gunga Din," is impossible. Happily for Mr. Kipling's reputation for accuracy, one authentic bearer of the name is on record to testify to the possibility of the combination. From an official document quoted in Trevelyan's 'Cawnpore,' page 93, edition of 1886, it appears that at the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny a Naick, or corporal, in one of the native regiments stationed at Cawnpore was named Gunga Din. W. STRUNK, JR.

ITHACA, N. Y., December 17, 1896.

NAPIER'S LOGARITHMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The statements of the *Nation* have so much weight with cultivated readers everywhere that errors, when they creep in, must be harmful if uncorrected. In the review of my 'History of Elementary Mathematics,' in the *Nation* of November 26, the reviewer endeavors to supply what he considers a gap in my work by telling how Napier constructed his table of logarithms. The process actually followed by Napier was entirely different, and was described by him in his 'Mirifici Logarithmorum Canonis Constructio' (an English translation by W. R. Macdonald, 1889, is now an easily accessible work).

The reviewer commits another error when he attempts to correct a misprint in my 'History.' Evidently he did not have in mind the following passages taken from the 'Arithmetica Logarithmica' (1625) in which Briggs points out the advantage, "si Logarithmus sinus totius servaretur 0 (ut in Canone mirifico) Logarithmus autem partis decimae ejusdem sinus totius, nempe sinus 5 graduum, 44, m. 21, s., esset 10000000000"; and then says of Napier, "istam autem mutationem ita faciendam censebat, ut 0 esset Logarithmus unitatis, et 10000000000 sinus totius."

FLORIAN CAJORI.

COLORADO COLLEGE,
COLORADO SPRINGS, December 2, 1896.

"UNCONSTITUTIONAL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a paper called "Words Coined in Boston," printed in the *New England Magazine* for November, Mr. C. W. Ernst wrote:

"An interesting document in the Boston Town Records of December 27, 1782, has the words *unconstitutional* and *unconstitutionality*. They may be coinages of Colonel William Tudor. At any rate, they have a new meaning. An English writer might call anything unconstitutional which seemed to him out of harmony with the constitution of his country; yet it might be legal. The Boston words denote something supposed to be illegal and of no force or effect because contrary to the constitution of the Commonwealth" (Vol xv., p. 344).

While it is very likely that these are the earliest examples of both terms in the particular sense indicated by Mr. Ernst, yet it is highly improbable that *unconstitutional* originated in Boston, and certainly the word was not coined by Col. Tudor. Johnson's Dictionary (1755) recognized *constitutional* but not *unconstitutional*, while the earliest quotation given in the Oxford Dictionary for the former word in its political sense is under date of 1765. It would be strange if, among a people so stirred as were the American colonists by the events preceding and following the passage of the Stamp Act, such words as *constitutional* and *unconstitutional* should not have been employed. And in fact we find that, alike in colonial assemblies and in town meetings, from one end of the country to the other, the Stamp Act was denounced as "unconstitutional." It was at this period that, so far as the writer is aware, the word came into general use on this side of the Atlantic. Later, when State constitutions and finally the federal Constitution were drawn up, the word acquired the special signification pointed out by Mr. Ernst.

"It seems to them, that the trustees, thus empowered and enjoined to confer all the king's rights, expressed in the charter, could convey no other rights, nor no less; and that every grant or tenure of theirs, short of such, was contrary to the charter, and an illegal and unconstitutional reserve." 1743, *Brief Account of the Causes that have retarded the Progress of Georgia*, in *Collections Georgia Historical Society* (1842), ii., 92.

"Less did I think it kind to insist with the vehemence Mr. Grenville used, on positive declarations from Mr. Conway. Such commands appear to me highly unconstitutional, and therefore I do not see how they can be made with friendship to the party." 1764, June 5, H. Walpole, *Letters* (1891), iv., 242.

"*Resolved* [by the Virginia Assembly], therefore, That the General Assembly of this Colony, together with his Majesty or his Substitutes, have, in their Representative Capacity, the only exclusive Right and Power to lay Taxes and Imposts upon the Inhabitants of this Colony. And that every Attempt to vest such Power in any other Person or Persons whatever, than the General Assembly aforesaid, is illegal, unconstitutional and unjust, and have a manifest Tendency to destroy British as well as American Liberty." 1765, *Boston Gazette*, July 1.

"At a Time when the British American Subjects are everywhere loudly complaining of arbitrary unconstitutional Innovations, the Town of Boston cannot any longer remain silent without Just imputation and Inexcusable Neglect." 1765, Sept. 13, *Boston Records* (1886), xvi., 155.

"We do most expresly declare . . . That it is the opinion of this House, that the said act for granting and applying certain stamp duties, &c., as aforesaid, is unprecedented and unconstitutional." 1765, Oct. 2. *Connecticut Colonial Records* (1881), xii., 494.

"They discountenanced, and, it is hoped, for ever abolished, the dangerous and unconstitutional practice of removing military officers for their votes in parliament." 1766, E Burke, *Short Account of the late Short Administration*, *Works* (1815), ii., 5.

"I heartily thank you for your honest remarks and candid sentiments on our American disputes. They have been always mine, and I trust we shall never differ in opinion thereon. The unconstitutional steps pursued to obtain a constitutional redress, can hardly be paralleled. and I fear they have kindled a fire which all their engines may not extinguish, notwithstanding all the paper puffs, and the distresses which they threaten Great Britain." 1766, Sir W. Johnson, in R. Rogers's *Journals* (1883), 219.

"The Utopian schemes of levelling, and a community of goods, are as visionary and impracticable, as those which vest all property in the Crown, are arbitrary, despotick, and in our government unconstitutional." 1768, Jan. 12, *Journal Mass. House of Representatives* (1767), *Appendix*, 26.

"I shall only say that his reasoning is much like that of a late letter-writer from London, whose wonderful performance, if I mistake not, was inserted in all our newspapers, who says, 'when an act of Parliament is once passed, it becomes a part of the Constitution.' This at once, I confess, shuts the mouth of all Americans from complaining of revenue acts, or any other acts of Parliament as unconstitutional; for what is an essential part of the Constitution, I think, cannot be unconstitutional." 1769, S. Adams, in W. V. Wells's *Life* (1865), i., 59.

"Resolved. that the late act for the shutting up of the port of Boston, and the two bills relative to Boston, which, by the last accounts from Great Britain, had been brought into parliament, . . . are calculated to deprive many thousand Americans of their rights, properties and privileges, in a most cruel, oppressive and unconstitutioual manner." 1774, in D. Ramsay's *History of the Revolution of South Carolina* (1785), i., 20.

"He [Waller] was probably the more ardent, as his uncle Hampden had been particularly engaged in the dispute, and by a sentence which seems generally to be thought unconstitutional particularly injured thereby." 1779, S. Johnson, *Lives of the English Poets*, 87.

"Nevertheless, this unconstitutional Assembly, whose authority under an assumed charter has been tacitly acknowledged by the British Parliament, have not at all times been unchecked by the Corporation of Yale College." 1781, S. Peters, *History of Connecticut*, 90.

"I hope you will not think me too local or statically envious when I mention that a similar instance has occurred in Massachusetts, where, when the Legislature unintentionally trespassed upon a barrier of the Constitution, the judges of the Supreme Court solemnly determined that the particular statute was unconstitutional." 1788, J. B. Cutting, in G. Bancroft's *History of the Formation of the Constitution of the U. S.* (1882), ii., 478.

"I have just received a copy of an act of assembly of North Carolina for ceding to congress all the territory on the Western waters, or nearly all, toge her with the people. . . . But if congress accept the cession will they not sanction the most manifest violation of rights that can be committed? For expatriation of a part of the community is not a power included among those exercised by assemblys in America convened for ordinary legislation. If, then, the act of cession is unconstitutional, can congress derive any right under it?" 1790, P. Henry, in *Life, Corr. & Speeches* (1891), iii., 415.

"The address to the President contains a very full digest of all the arguments urged against the bill on the point of unconstitutionality on the floor of Congress." 1790, T. Jefferson, *Writings* (1895), v., 205.

"There appears, therefore, no room to say that the bill is unconstitutional, though there may be another construction of which the Constitution is capable." 1792, A. Hamilton, *Works* (1886), vii., 60.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, December 13, 1896.

Notes.

EDWARD ARNOLD announces the speedy publication of Dr. Donaldson Smith's narrative of his pioneer exploration of the territory between Somaliland and Lake Rudolph; Col. Thornton's 'Sporting Tour through the Northern Parts of England and Great Part of the Highlands of Scotland' (1804), as volume ii. of "The Sportsman's Library"; and Louis Paulian's 'Paris qui mendie,' translated, under the title 'The Beggars of Paris,' by Lady Herschell.

D. Appleton & Co. publish at once 'The Struggle of the Nations: Egypt, Syria, and Assyria,' by G. Maspero, a companion volume to 'The Dawn of Civilization.'

'Dr. Jameson's Raiders,' by Richard Harding Davis, is in the press of R. H. Russell & Son.

'Dante in America: An Historical and Bibliographical Study,' by Theodore W. Koch, is to be issued by Ginn & Co.

Henry T. Coates & Co., Philadelphia, have nearly ready 'American Genealogies,' an alphabetical list of those printed in book form, by Thomas Allen Glenn. It will, we judge, dispense with the critical appreciations which Mr. Whitmore gave in his 'American Genealogist.'

'Le Satanisme et la Magie,' M. Jules Bois's more or less well-known book, has had such measure of success in its earlier and somewhat costly form that his publisher (Léon Chailley) has decided to bring out a cheaper edition of it. There is a certain false air of science about the book, which is really much less scientific than its author perhaps desired it to be and perhaps thinks it is. It is also much less interesting; for a book full of sorcerers and witches, of mages, of devils and ghosts, of spells and enchantments, and horrible Black Masses ought to be very interesting indeed. But there is nothing in the volume nearly so thrilling as J. K. Huysmans's account of the Black Mass in 'Là-Bas.' It is, indeed, to M. Huysmans that the most interesting pages of M. Jules Bois's book are due: a study by way of preface on the Satanists and the Luciferians. The volume also contains a translation of Book iv. of Cornelius Agrippa's 'Occult Philosophy.'

We have already reviewed, in the English translation, Victor Hugo's Letters from 1815 to 1835. Calmann Lévy's handsome original edition of the 'Correspondance' comes to us from Brentano's—a massive octavo of nearly 400 pages of large type.

The second volume of the 'Dictionary of Political Economy,' edited by R. H. Inglis Palgrave (Macmillan Co.), covers in about 850 pages the letters F to M. The editor calls especial attention to the articles on the "Historical School of Economists" and on the French, German, and Italian Schools of Economics, and these articles are evidently the result of much pains. We are disposed to prize this Dictionary principally on account of its biographical and historical matter. There is here comparatively little room for difference of opinion; when it comes to a statement of theories and doctrines, it is perhaps impossible to exclude the personal bias of the writer, and some of the minor articles amount to little more than expressions of the preferences, or prejudices, of those who have prepared them. We venture the further criticism that a considerable number of titles might have been omitted: the differential calculus, for instance, hardly seems to call for any treatment in a Dictionary of Political Economy.

The second volume has appeared of Prof. Bury's valuable edition of Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,' now publishing in seven volumes by Methuen & Co., London (New York: Macmillan). The editor has already, in an introduction, surveyed the merits and the necessary defects of so old a classic, and he accompanies the progress of the text with local rectifications and with references to our larger (because later) knowledge. The footnotes additional to Gibbon's are again supplemented by an appendix of authorities, with learned discussions of the origin of agnosticism, world-eras, early church institutions, the number of Christians under Diocletian and Constantine, the genuineness of Antoninus's rescript concerning the Christians, the persecutions of the Christians in the first and second centuries, the attitude of Constantine to the Christian religion, etc., etc.

In Harper's uniform edition of Mark Twain's works, the contents of the latest and seemingly last volume range over nearly twenty years, and embrace 'Tom Sawyer Abroad,' 'Tom Sawyer, Detective,' and a number of minor stories, fragments, and *jeux d'esprit*. The illustrations are humorous and occasionally something more.

Messrs. Putnam give two new forms to Irving—one as an addition to the "Heroes of the Nations" series, namely, his condensed Life of Columbus; another, a collection of stories and legends, with an eye to classes in literature. Both these volumes are illustrated, with pictures new and old; Darley's Rip Van Winkle outlines being reduced for the collection, and many plates from De Bry and Herrera and other old books of voyages appearing with the Columbus, which has besides a priceless frontispiece in "the authentic portrait" of the explorer; but we fear this claim will give rise to much contention.

'The Illustrated Bible Treasury,' which Thomas Nelson & Sons send us, should be a welcome aid to Sunday-school teachers and in general to Bible students with meagre libraries. It combines the advantages of a condensed concordance to both authorized and revised versions, a subject-index, a pronouncing dictionary of proper names, together with a good deal of matter relating to Biblical archæology and Orientalisms supplied by accredited writers. We need but add that an indexed Bible Atlas is included, and that the whole is clearly printed and beautifully bound in flexible covers.

A summary of Nansen's experience on the *Fram*, the results of our Presidential election, the progress of the Venezuela settlement, the Transvaal's course since Jameson's conviction—these are some of the signs of fresh, up-to-date editing of Hazell's Annual for 1897 (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney). "A cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day," it truly calls itself, and in its twelfth year it finds the demands on its space and the necessity of enlargement greater than ever. It is a mine

of compact information as to current matters, personal, political, parliamentary, legal, financial, and commercial. The maps are of the Sudan, Guiana, Armenia, and the Transvaal.

Extreme clearness of expression and accuracy of scientific statement characterize the late Dr. H. Newell Martin's 'Human Body' (Henry Holt & Co.), in the advanced course of the American Science series. This excellent seventh revised edition, dated only last May, accentuates the public loss in the author's very recent and much-lamented death. As he has expressed it, he tries to show the outposts and outlooks of physiology as they now are, and one wonders who will conduct, for the classes of the future, in this advanced work that for the past sixteen years he has carried on *pari passu* with the progress of science. His work is not ostensibly for students of medicine, but they may profitably study it; and the student of general science who intelligently accompanies the leader to this point, is well beyond the physician who may have stopped where his professor of physiology halted a dozen years ago. The arrangement of the book is excellent, and there are frequent summaries that make practical application of the principles as previously explained. The final chapter, on reproduction, is omitted from such copies as may be specially ordered, but the delicacy and purity with which this function is explained warrant its going before any minds, not in mixed classes, sufficiently mature to appreciate the rest of the volume. Ignorance and innocence are not twins, and knowledge as here conveyed leads only to physical rectitude.

Those who regard popular domestic medicine and the allied sciences and arts as either entertaining or serviceable will be gratified with 'In Sickness and in Health,' by the late J. West Roosevelt, M. D., and a group of colaborers (D. Appleton & Co.). This colloquial discussion, which runs over nearly a thousand large octavo pages, sets forth in everyday speech almost all the physical ills of man, and most of the measures suitable to combat them, and ranges from psychology to the preparation for the grave. Its matter is sound, and, for heads of families and mature persons who have the time and the inclination to prepare in this way for the evil days, it is as safe as any such treatise can be in untrained hands.

'Practical Points in Nursing,' by Emily A. M. Stoney (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders), has been specially prepared for those in charge of private as distinguished from hospital patients. It is neither redundant nor meagre in its injunctions, and not only admirably fulfils its proclaimed purpose, but would be a particularly valuable reference-book for families geographically or financially beyond the range of trained nurses.

Two small volumes, arranged for a didactic course covering two years, make 'A Text-Book for Training Schools for Nurses,' by P. M. Wise, M.D. (G. P. Putnam's Sons), whose peculiarity is the attention paid in it to the care of insane patients. It devotes a much larger space to what is commonly known as First Aid than seems necessary for pure and simple nursing.

A book of pleasing little poems reminiscent of childhood, by Louise Chandler Moulton, is called 'In Childhood's Country' (Boston: Copeland & Day). Unfortunately it is defaced rather than illustrated by its pictures of odd-looking children, some of them absolute caricatures. Better luck has befallen another collection of verses for and about children, 'The Child World,' by Gabriel Setoun (The Bodley Head), which gains distinctly in interest by the illustrations scattered profusely through its pages. The illustrator is Charles Robinson, who did the same kindly office for Stevenson's 'Child's Garden of Verses.' Mr. Setoun's verses are too much like Stevenson's in subject and manner to escape the comparison which the accompanying illustrations immediately prompt; but on the whole they endure it better than one would expect, though lacking something of the buoyant imagination which saved Stevenson's simplicity from the least touch of dulness.

'Les Trois Dumas,' by André Maurel (Paris: Librairie Illustrée) is mostly very thin stuff, especially in the portions which treat of Gen Dumas and the elder Alexandre. The third and larger part, devoted to Dumas *fils*, contains some information concerning his dramas which is neither very new nor very full.

Halpérine-Kaminsky's translation of Tolstoi's articles on Zola, Dumas *fils*, and Maupassant, which appeared in the *revues*, is issued in book form by Chailley, Paris. The speech of Zola and the letter of Dumas, which were the proximate cause of Tolstoi's expression of opinion, are prefixed, and a reperusal of them greatly enhances the pleasure felt on reading the Russian author's views. The Maupassant study is a remarkably sound one, though it is far from saying the last word on this gifted writer, who, with so much that is absolutely debasing in its immorality, has left so much more that is as absolutely moral, powerful, and superb.

The second volume of Charles Livet's admirable 'Lexique de la langue de Molière' (Paris: H. Welter) includes the words from "dadais" to "luxuriant." A general review of the work must necessarily be postponed until the remaining volumes are published.

Bibliographica, Part xi. (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners) has among its leading articles one on "Calligraphy in the Middle Ages," by Sir E. Maunde Thompson, who introduces a goodly number of facsimile specimens of choice hands, and concludes with pictures and some account of the furniture of a mediæval library, with pivoted desks and book-rests, shelving, presses, and other apparatus. In a larger plate, Petrarch and Boccacio are shown in debate near a revolving desk. Mr. F. Madan has some interesting notes on George Thomason's great collection of Civil War tracts, now in the British Museum, and concludes that Thomason's dates affixed to them are usually of the day he procured them, but sometimes (as is clear) of publication. Examination also reveals that the popular works generally used in their imprint the historical year (Jan. 1) rather than the calendar year (March 25) in issues between those dates; the class of official, theological, and learned stood by the calendar. Readable at once and substantial are papers on "English Armorial Book-stamps and their Owners" (including Pepys), by W. Y. Fletcher, and "Private Printing in France during the 15th Century," mostly ecclesiastical, by A. Claudin. The former is fully illustrated.

D. B. Updike (The Merrymount Press), Boston, gives notice of the discontinuance of the English periodical the *Quest*, of which he was the American publisher. He hopes to retain the services of some of the *Quest's* "Birmingham School" designers.

The account of German Philhellenism, by R. F. Arnold, which fills considerably more than one-half of the latest number of *Euphorion* (*Ergänzungsheft* ii.), may be of interest to others besides students of German literature, whose notice it would hardly escape. Philhellenism is perhaps the most striking manifestation in all history of what may be called international sympathy; and in Germany the movement extended over so long a period—more than three-quarters of a century—and so many of the most brilliant names were connected with it, that its rôle in the intellectual history of the people is by no means unimportant.

At the forty-fourth annual meeting of the Wisconsin State Historical Society on December 10 the new accessions to the library during the year were reported at 9,002, of which 5,247 were books and 3,755 pamphlets. There were, besides, gifts of some 3,000 duplicates. The entire collection contains about 94,000 bound volumes, with nearly as many pamphlets. A library building for which the last Legislature had appropriated $180,000 has been begun on an ideal site presented by the State University. The work has been retarded in order to ascertain the best architectural model, as well as that every detail may be made incombustible. It is hoped that the forty-sixth anniversary, in 1899, will be celebrated in the completed edifice. The whole estate of Lyman C. Draper was bequeathed to the society, of which he had been the chief promoter for a generation. This bequest has been formed into a fund the income of which will be devoted to paying for an exact and voluminous index to the Draper manuscripts. These consist of 400 folios relating to the history of our Northwest and Southwest from 1750 to 1815, already much resorted to by historical students. The peculiar feature of the meeting was a series of speeches commemorative of Lucius Fairchild, who was a principal benefactor of the society, and widely known as head of the Grand Army, a Government official in England, France, and Spain, and the first man who served six years as a Governor of Wisconsin.

The Atlas to accompany the official records of the Union and Confederate Armies concludes with three supplementary sheets (135 A, B, C) and the fore-matter of the complete work, namely, table of contents, plate by plate; references from the several volumes of the records to the Atlas plates illustrating them; an alphabetical list of authorities (*i. e.*, of the officers responsible for the sketches and their assistants); and finally a geographical index to the plates, filling more than a dozen folio pages in five columns.

The ninth annual meeting of the American Economic Association will be held at Levering Hall, Johns Hopkins University, on December 28-31.

Nothing with a more distinctive stamp, or better conceived and executed, in the way of a Christmas gift, especially for descendants of the Pilgrims, has come to us than the portfolio of six etchings, by Harold B. Warren, entitled 'Scrooby and Austerfield: The English Homes of Brewster and Bradford' (Boston: Damrell & Upham). The subjects of these excellent plates are a charming distant view of Scrooby from the Great North Road, proceeding south from Bawtry; the old mill of Scrooby; a farmhouse near the site of Scrooby Manor, the home of William Brewster; a still living tree contemporary with him, with Scrooby Church in the background; the church in Austerfield where William (afterwards Governor) Bradford was baptized; and Bradford's cottage birthplace. The letterpress is as praiseworthy as the etchings, supplying a topographical description so lucid in connection with them as

to make one feel that he had been upon the very spot.

Dean Bradley of course gave permission to erect in Westminster Abbey a memorial to Sir Walter Scott; and the committee, headed by the Marquis of Lothian, has chosen a copy of Sir Francis Chantrey's bust. The sum required for this purchase and for Abbey fees is estimated at £600 to £700, of which more than half has been subscribed in Great Britain. An opportunity for Americans to share in this pious work is offered, and subscriptions not exceeding $25 individually may be sent to the Boston Public Library, the Boston Athenæum; to Charles W. Sever, Harvard Square, Cambridge; to Mr. Fiske Warren, 220 Devonshire Street; or to Mr. James Murray Kay, 4 Park Street, Boston.

—Dr. William R. Shepherd has published, in the "Columbia University Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law," a six-hundred page 'History of Proprietary Government in Pennsylvania,' which he modestly characterizes as "merely an outline of its territorial and governmental institutions." He has used almost exclusively original and contemporary material, the chief of which is the great collection of Penn manuscripts in the possession of the Pennsylvania Historical Society. We can do little more than indicate the principal matters treated by Dr. Shepherd and commend his book to students. The work is divided into two parts. Part one comprises an account of the land system and land administration of Pennsylvania, including early stipulations concerning land grants, Indian affairs, and the boundary disputes with Maryland, Connecticut, Virginia, and New York. The account of the dispute with Maryland is much the best narrative we have of that complicated struggle. Part two deals with the government of the province, with separate chapters on the various frames of government, the Council, the "lower counties," the question of oath or affirmation, bills of credit, taxation of the proprietary estates, proprietary instructions, and the powers of the deputy governors, and the relations with the home Government. All of these topics are treated, notwithstanding the author's disclaimer, with great detail. We note that Dr. Shepherd finds "unsatisfactory" the commonly received opinion that Penn "intended to establish a commonwealth of which the governing body should be Quakers." As Proprietor, Penn represented the Crown, and could not at pleasure divest himself of the responsibility involved in that relationship; moreover, his writings show him to have been "distinctly paternalistic in his attitude and tendencies." Penn's later financial difficulties seem to have been attributable principally to his steward, Philip Ford, whose success in "bleeding" his employer emphasizes Macaulay's judgment that Penn "was not a man of strong sense"; but although he left to his sons a contested estate and a heavy burden of debt, making their relations with the province difficult and exposing them to misrepresentation and abuse, their correspondence with their officers in the province contains "few harsh and unkindly expressions," while on several occasions "they displayed a commendable public spirit." It is to be observed that much of the opposition to the younger proprietors came from the Quakers, who resented the desertion of Penn's sons from that sect.

—Franklin's reputation for accuracy and impartiality suffers somewhat at Dr. Shepherd's hands. As the latter shows, "from an early date the wildest ideas prevailed in Pennsylvania concerning the wealth of the Proprietors." In the appendix to the 'Historical Review of the Constitution and Government of Pennsylvania' (1759), published with Franklin's approval, if not actually written by him, is given "an authentic paper" purporting to be "a copy of an original paper drawn by Mr. Thomas Penn himself," in which the value of the Proprietary interest in the province was estimated at about £250,000, but to which the writer of the 'Review' adds other estimates sufficient to bring the whole amount up to £10,000,000 sterling. According to Dr. Shepherd (p. 84), "no authentic document of this origin or nature is known to exist." Into the account of events in 1688, in the same work, are introduced disconnected passages from an alleged "remonstrance" of the Assembly in 1704. Dr. Shepherd shows (pp. 303, 304) that this document was in reality "a series of studied insults and exaggerations," and that not only was it never read in the Assembly or formally approved by them, but the minutes of the alleged proceedings were actually interpolated by the Speaker, David Lloyd. There is no proof, also, to sustain the statement that at a conference between the Council and the Assembly, in May, 1689, "several members of the Assembly were induced by the Governor to refuse to give their attendance." In short, the 'Historical Review' not only is a partisan production, but, in Dr. Shepherd's opinion, has little value as authentic history. On the other hand, the Proprietors themselves had no love for Franklin. In 1748 Thomas Penn wrote: "He is a dangerous man, and I should be glad if he inhabited any other country, as I believe him of a very uneasy spirit. However, as he is a sort of tribune of the people, he must be treated with regard." Gov. John Penn wrote in 1764: "There will never be any prospect of ease and happiness while that villain [Franklin] has the liberty of spreading about the poison of that inveterate malice and ill nature which is deeply implanted in his own black heart." It was in the election campaign of that year that the Proprietary party, straining every nerve to defeat Franklin and Galloway and divide the Quaker vote, told the Germans how Franklin had said that "the great number of German boors herding together had a tendency to exclude the English language." Without denying that Franklin might have made such a statement, his friends explained it by saying: "'Tis well known that boor means no more than a country farmer, and herding signifies flocking or gathering together, and is applied by the best English writers to harmless doves and to ladies in distress."

—The second volume of the 'Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française' (Paris: Armand Colin) surpasses the first in two points—general uniformity of treatment and style, and interest of subject matter. Of its nine chapters, eight are devoted to literary topics (Roman du Renard, Fabliaux, Roman de la Rose, Drama, etc.), while the last traces the development and variations of the language during the corresponding period, namely, the end of the middle ages. Neglect of proportions appears, however, in the space allowed to one or two of the contributors. Unless bulk, rather than quality, is taken as the measure of literary importance, it is not easy to understand why the literature of edification (didactic works, sermons, translations, etc.) should occupy 109 pages, while the whole of later mediæval French poetry, from Guillaume de Machault to Villon, covering two centuries and including many distinguished names, is compressed into a single chapter of sixty pages, with very scanty quotations; and to Villon himself is allotted the rather niggardly share of five pages. Indeed, so far as this last-mentioned chapter is concerned, the reader will find that a good anthology (such as Crépet's 'Les Poètes Français,' for example) is an indispensable auxiliary if the originals are not available. No doubt the endeavor to treat the literature objectively, to suppress the personal note, has been conscientiously kept up; but the fact that the names of the contributors are, thus far at least, conspicuous in the learned rather than in the strictly literary world has certainly facilitated the task in this respect.

—The scholars have had their innings; we trust that the *littérateurs* will be given theirs with the Renaissance. For, after all, it seems chimerical to try to exclude personal feelings and taste from discussions full of human significance, and there is interest in observing how already the writers tend to break out of bounds so soon as enthusiasm gets the better of erudition. Thus the learning and critical accuracy shown in M. Bédier's admirable chapter on the Fabliaux are, in our opinion, enhanced by the not wholly objective import of the social and ethical conclusions of the writer. Further, no reader will regret that the editor (Prof. Petit de Julleville) has granted himself the luxury of the following original epigram for the purpose of pointing his explanation of the tendency of early comedies towards satire on feminine frailty, in what seems to us the most compact treatment possible of the mediæval drama: "Si toutes les femmes étaient infidèles, la comédie jouerait les femmes vertueuses" (p. 435). Elsewhere in the volume appear touches of amiable chauvinism which would do credit to a member of "L'Alliance Française." The work therefore bids fair to be much more than a record of facts, a compendium of scholarly hypotheses, and a summary of conventional or traditional judgments. As a mark of the scrupulous care given to details, it may be noted that the two volumes contain but one misprint of any consequence, the spelling of Gower's name as "Glower" (vol. ii., p. 526). Special attention must be called to M. Brunot's continuation of the philological part of the work, which is quite equal in thoroughness and accuracy to the introductory essay. The sight of such excellent results as collective scholarship has produced in these two volumes suggests that a union of American and English collaborators for a similar purpose might bear equally good fruit.

—The Royal Historical Commission of Belgium is following the example of the English Master of the Rolls, and is beginning to print the mediæval rentals and account-books of the great monasteries of the Low Countries. 'Le Livre de l'Abbé Guillaume de Ryckel (1249-1272)' has just been printed from a MS. in the Library of the University of Liège and issued as an "annexe" to the Bulletin of the Commission; and it is also published separately by Engelcke of Ghent. It contains what the editor, Prof. Henri Pirenne of Ghent, going back to the terminology of an earlier period, designates a "Polyptyque" of the great abbey of Saint-Trond; and that for an interesting period. M. Pirenne points out that the first half of the thirteenth century was an epoch of decadence for the Benedictine monas-

teries, owing to a diversity of causes, chiefly economic. This volume records the efforts, to a large extent successful, of the energetic Abbot, William of Ryckel, to recover the revenues that had been escaping from the grasp of his predecessors, and to establish a system of management more in accord with the changed conditions of the time. Incidentally it gives a good deal of information about mediæval finance and mediæval agrarian conditions. M. Pirenne, who is already favorably known to historical students for his brilliant papers on the origin of municipal constitutions in the *Revue Historique*, has carefully brought together in his introduction all that is known of the personal history of the abbot, and has given a lucid summary of the results of his administration. To those who knew what the like materials are for English history, the value of this Polyptyque can be best expressed by saying that it is worthy to be placed by the side of the 'Domesday of St. Paul's.'

—The latest items of information from the bulletins reporting advances in the higher education of women abroad should serve as a reminder to the more inflammable advocates of the cause that there are two opposite methods of arriving at the common end. While from Zurich, where the number of *Studentinnen* has already reached the respectable figure of 150, news comes of an agitation for the acquisition of the same rights as belong to the vested holders of the field, the *Studenten*, advices from Oxford show a strengthening of the foothold of women students upon university life without agitation or public discussion of any sort. Three years ago the liberal-minded Principal of the Cheltenham Ladies' College responded to a practical demand of the time by opening a house in Oxford for the use, primarily though not exclusively, of students from her own school. This house, which enjoys the honorable and significant distinction of being the first collegiate institution founded at either Oxford or Cambridge in close connection with a girls' school, has now twelve students in residence, has been formally recognized by the Association for the Education of Women in Oxford, and admitted to representation upon its Council for a period of five years, under the corporate title of St. Hilda's Hall. St. Hilda, it will be remembered, was that famous prioress of Whitby whose rule included both monks and nuns, at the time when the priory was celebrated as a school of learning, sending forth bishops and saints from its walls. There is something both conciliatory and stimulating in this association, by a name, of the work of the modern young woman at Oxford with one of the honored traditions of the past. It has doubtless been necessary in many instances to take the kingdom of heaven by violence; but the women students to whom it is freely offered are to be accounted fortunate in being spared the marks and scars of the assault.

—Educated Jews in Europe are determined that the history of their race shall be written by Jews and from a Jewish standpoint. Many books upon branches of the subject have lately appeared, as, for instance, Reinach's 'Fontes Rerum Judaicarum,' to which we gave an extended notice about a year ago. It is evident that the ground must be cleared by numerous monographs before a general history of the Jews in Europe, or even in any one country, can be properly written. To this preliminary task Hebrew scholars and societies are devoting themselves, and one of the latest results is comprised in Drs. Vogelstein and Rieger's 'Geschichte der Juden in Rom' (Berlin: Mayer & Müller), of which the first volume has reached us. The intention of the authors is to give in the briefest possible space (this volume consists of more than 500 pages) accounts of all the material available for the history of the Jews in Rome, and in particular to present a careful study of the inner life of the oldest Jewish community in Europe. This volume covers four periods, the first being that of the Jews under heathendom, 139 B. C. to 312 A. D., and the other three ending respectively with the years 1000, 1304, and 1420. Following the accounts of the sources for each period are chapters on the private life, manners and morals, finance and literary productiveness of the community. There are several appendices, one of which contains inscriptions from the Jewish cemeteries in Rome. The book is written in a simple, straightforward style, and is a thoroughly scholarly production. Its dispassionate treatment, for example, of the evidences about the individuals who are said to have suffered martyrdom or persecution in Rome under the early emperors may be recommended to certain archæologists of a different creed, whose enthusiasm has sometimes carried them out of the bounds of scientific argument.

THE PAINTINGS OF MEISSONIER.

Meissonier: His Life and his Art. By Vallery C. O. Gréard de l'Académie-Française, Vice-Recteur de l'Académie de Paris. With Extracts from his Note-books, and his Opinions and Impressions of Art and Artists, collected by his Wife. Translated from the French by Lady Mary Loyd and Miss Florence Simmonds. With 34 plates and 236 text illustrations. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1896.

THIS is a splendid and, in many ways, an interesting volume, but it is almost the worst and most confused piece of book-making that we have ever seen. First in its table of contents is the memoir by M. Gréard, which, in the words of the author, is neither a continuous biography nor a detailed appreciation of the master's work. It is avowedly founded on the notes and conversations collected by the artist's second wife, and is largely made up of direct quotations from them. It occupies 119 of the 395 pages of the book. Then come 220 pages of the notes themselves, under the general title of "Meissonier's Wisdom," arranged with no discoverable system. They are, indeed, supposed to be arranged topically, under such headings as "Man," "Art," etc., but there seems no reason why almost any of these notes might not as well appear in any other section as in that in which it is to be found. Not only are all the sayings which have been quoted in the memoir to be found again here, but many of them are given several times over in slightly different forms. If Meissonier happened to tell the same story or repeat the same criticism half a-dozen times, as might well happen, down it went into the note-book and out it comes again in these pages. There is no indication when the sayings were uttered, and the few letters are undated. After the "Conversations" comes an appendix of 17 pages of smaller type, consisting of a "Notice" by the Perpetual Secretary of the Academy, and this again is founded on the "Conversations," and quotes from them freely. Finally come some thirty pages devoted to a "Catalogue of Meissonier's Works," which is the only workmanlike thing in the volume. There is no index, and only a rudimentary table of contents. The result is confusion worse confounded. In the labyrinth of repetitions, with its total lack of arrangement and almost total lack of dates, it is impossible to find anything that is wanted. Even in the catalogue of works we have spent a half hour looking in vain for the "1807." A vague general impression of a not very eventful life and some sense of an individuality are all that remain with one.

Neither is the material thus "edited with a pitchfork" very valuable in itself. Meissonier was not a profound critic of art or of life, and his "wisdom" is not of an astonishing sort. He was a man of sound common sense, and of immense strength of purpose and capacity for labor; very vigorous, very determined and tenacious, and very vain; but his mind was neither a deep nor a subtle one. His bulldog pluck and energy carried him to the highest point of material success in his profession, but what he had to say to the world is said in his pictures, and he had nothing to add through the medium of language that is of importance.

It is in the 270 illustrations of this volume, then, that its real importance lies. These illustrations are, on the whole, admirable. Meissonier's works are easy to reproduce, and lose little in the process, nearly all his best qualities being as visible in these cuts as in the originals. Many of the "text illustrations" are as large and almost as good as the photogravure "plates," and Meissonier's detailed and clear-cut style is specially suited to half-tone reproduction. As a collection of reproductions of Meissonier's pictures, therefore, this volume is most interesting, and affords an admirable opportunity for a review of his career.

By the average person who possesses some small knowledge of modern paintings, extreme minuteness of detail is probably considered as the most pronounced characteristic and the greatest merit of Meissonier's art. "Finished like a Meissonier" is a proverbial phrase with such persons, and they are apt to imagine that the qualities of eye and hand which rendered such minuteness possible, and the vast industry which achieved it, are the principal elements in Meissonier's fame and the cause of the phenomenal prices his works have attained. That minuteness and laborious finish are a part of the commercial value of these works it would be absurd to deny, but it may be affirmed that they have practically nothing to do with the painter's artistic reputation. Mere minuteness and the evidence of labor will always have their effect on prices, but they will never make a man Member of the Institute, Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor, or President of the Société Nationale des Beaux-Arts. The extreme "finish" of Meissonier's work is in reality merely the outcome of a physical peculiarity or defect—extreme shortness of sight. In his essay on Bonnat in Vandyke's 'Modern French Masters,' Mr. Blashfield relates how that master, sitting next to M. Maspero at a great dinner one night, said to him:

"'Maspero, you who are so near-sighted, tell me how does M——, away down there at the foot of the table, appear to you?'

"'Well,' replied M. Maspero, 'I see a white spot, which I know is his shirtfront, and a flesh-colored spot, which I know is his face.'

"'Ah,' cried Bonnat, 'how I wish my pupils could see things in that way!'"

Now it is noticeable that the near-sighted men who really "see things in that way"

never paint them so, and the reason is not far to seek. Their manner of painting is conditioned less on what they see in nature than on what they see upon their canvas. All "broad" work in painting—all free and large handling—is intended only for distant effect, and becomes unintelligible when seen near by. The near-sighted painter cannot see his picture at all at the distance for which such painting is intended, and all his work is therefore calculated for close inspection, and is consequently clean, smooth, and detailed in the extreme. If the painter is exceptionally near-sighted, it may even happen that he paints pictures calculated for a nearer vision than is possible to the average human eye, and which can be seen properly only by the aid of a glass. So we have the paradox that those who see least detail in nature, with unaided vision, are precisely those who paint most, and it is the short-sighted and purblind painters who astonish us with their amazing sharpness of delineation. The lengthening of the visual focus in age, as well as growth of mastery and impatience of little things, may well be one of the reasons for the greater breadth of style in the late work of all great painters. Certain it is that even Meissonier's miracles of minuteness are works of his early time, and that while he never became a broad painter (in the purely technical sense), yet his later works seem more capable of imitation by a normal human being than do his earlier. Boldini, though always much freer in touch, was once as fond of a small scale and almost as minute as Meissonier himself. He now paints the size of life and with a large brush.

While the small scale and microscopic workmanship of Meissonier's pictures may therefore be treated as, in a sense, accidental, and while his real merits would have been the same if he had habitually worked in the size of life, yet it is also true that the scale reacted on the manner, and in a way peculiarly suited to the genius of the artist. Meissonier has himself stated with great clearness a truth familiar to all painters, but perhaps not so well known to the public. He says:

"The smaller the scale of one's picture, the more boldly the *relief* must be brought out. The larger the scale, the more it must be softened and diminished. This is an absolutely indispensable rule. A life-size figure treated like one of my small ones would be unendurable."

He does not attempt to give any reason for this rule, nor have we time and space to attempt to find one now. The reader must be content, for the present, to accept the fact that this rule exists. Its acceptance will help in the understanding of Meissonier's work, and of the way in which the accident of scale coöperated with the temperament of the painter to produce the style we know so well.

This style was formed in all its essentials singularly early. From the very first the great little pictures seem as masterly as anything their author afterwards produced. His life was a long one, and was filled with untiring study and industry, yet he never did things better than he did at first; he only did other things as well. How this quite prodigious mastery was attained so early is a mystery. It would almost seem as if this artist had never had to learn, had had no period of uncertainty and struggle—had almost been born a master. In the present volume the dates of his work are hardly ever given, and the quality of his production is so even that internal evidence is of little avail. The subjects change, but not the manner. From the beginning of his career to the end the conception of art is identical, the methods are the same, the achievement is almost uniform.

It may even be doubted if some of Meissonier's earlier work is not the best that he has left, merely because the subjects and the scale of that work are admirably fitted for the display of his qualities and the minimizing of his limitations. It is the admirable series of "Smokers" and "Readers," "Painters" and "Connoisseurs," which give the fullest measure of his powers and the least hint of his shortcomings; which made his reputation and perhaps are likeliest to maintain it. These pictures are in the purest vein of genre painting, and immediately suggest comparison with the wonderful little masters of Holland. At first Meissonier was considered as a reviver of Dutch art, and that he was a great admirer of that art there can be no doubt. Upon examination, however, it soon becomes visible that the differences between him and his models are as great as the resemblances. First of these differences is a fundamental one of point of view. The Dutch masters were pure painters, and their subjects were strictly contemporary. They contented themselves with looking about them and painting what interested them in what they saw. Meissonier only two or three times treated contemporary subjects, and then when something intensely dramatic or historically important attracted him. You would look in vain in his work for any such record of the ordinary life of the nineteenth century as the Dutchmen have given us of that of the seventeenth. Meissonier was such a master of the antiquarianism he practised—he managed to enter so thoroughly within the skin of his two or three favorite epochs—that he almost deceives us at times; but he was nevertheless essentially an antiquarian, and, therefore, his work never has the spontaneity of the old work.

Another difference is in the quality of drawing. Meissonier was a wonderfully accurate draughtsman. His drawing is composed of equal parts of astonishingly clear and accurate vision and of deep scientific acquirement. It is not the drawing of the great stylists, the masters of beautiful and significant line, but it is marvellously forceful and just. The drawing of Terburg is equally accurate, but seems to have no formula, no method, no ascertainable knowledge behind it. It seems unconscious and naïve in a way which that of Meissonier never approaches. Finally, in color and in the management of light, Meissonier cannot be compared to any one of half-a-dozen Dutch painters. His tone is almost always a little foxy, his handling a little dry. Sometimes in interiors with only one or two figures his realistic force of imitation of that which was before him almost carried him to a fine rendering even of light and color. He had built his picture before he painted it, and had only to copy what was directly under his eye, and he did this so well as almost to become a colorist and a luminist. It is only when he tries to paint open-air subjects and larger compositions that his defects become very apparent.

His merits are all to be included in the two great ones of thoroughness and accuracy. He never shirked any difficulty or avoided any study, was never sloppy or formless or vague. His knowledge of costume and furniture was only less wonderful than his grasp of character and his perfect rendering of form. He was a thorough realist, with little imagination and less sense of beauty, but with an insatiable appetite for and a marvellous digestion of concrete fact. His work is amazing in its industry, but his industry never becomes mere routine. His detail is never mere finikin particularity of touch, but is patient investigation of truth. At his best he is hardly sufficiently to be admired; but he awakens only admiration, never emotion. His drawing is absolute, his relief startling, he almost gives the illusion of nature; but he never evokes a vision of beauty or charms one into a dream.

Meissonier's qualities are fully sufficient to account for the admiration of the public and the universal respect of his brother artists; and as long as he was content to be a genre painter they were sufficient to make him easily the first genre painter of his time, if not quite (as an artist has recently called him) the "greatest genre painter of any age." In his later work they are less sufficient. He became ambitious, he wanted to be a great historical painter, to paint a "Napoleonic Cycle," to decorate the walls of the Pantheon. He transferred his personages to the open air, he enlarged his canvases and multiplied his figures, he attempted violent movement. His methods, which had been admirably suited to the production of almost perfect little pictures of tranquil indoor life, were not so adequate to the rendering of his new themes. His prodigious industry, his exhaustive accuracy, his vigor and his conscientiousness were as great as ever, but the most exact study of nature in detail would not give the effect of open air, the most rigorous scientific analysis of the movements of the horse would not make him move, the accumulation of small figures would not look like an army. It was in vain that he built a railway to follow the action of a galloping horse, or bought a grain field that he might see just what it would be like when a squadron had charged through it. What he produced may possibly be demonstrably true, but it does not look true.

The best of these more ambitious works is perhaps the "1814." The worst is certainly the "1807," which has found a home in the Metropolitan Museum. This picture is almost an entire failure, and yet it possesses every one of the qualities which made Meissonier's greatness in as high a degree as any earlier work. The industry, the strenuous exactness, the thoroughness, the impeccable draughtsmanship, the sharpness of relief, are all here at their greatest. The amount of labor that the picture represents is simply appalling, and it is almost all wasted because it is not the kind of labor that was wanted. On all these figures not a gaiter-button is wanting, and the total result of all this addition of detail is simple chaos. The idea of the composition is fine, but the effect is missed. Looked at close at hand, each head, each hand, each strap and buckle is masterly, but, at a distance sufficiently great to permit the whole canvas to be taken in at one glance, nothing is seen but a meaningless glitter. It is not only true that a life-size figure treated like one of Meissonier's small ones "would be unendurable," but it is equally true that a great number of such small figures will not make a large picture. The sharp and hard detail which was in place in his early canvases, is fatal to the unity and breadth necessary to a large composition. It is equally fatal to the sense of movement. The "Smokers" and "Readers" were doing as little as possible, and one felt that one had plenty of time to notice their coat-buttons and the smallest details of their costume; the cuirassiers of "1807" are dashing by at a furious gallop, and the eye resents the realization of detail that it could not possibly perceive. Even

if the action of the horses in the picture were correct (and, for once, it is not), nothing could make them move when the eye is thus arrested by infinitesimal minutiæ.

Such was Meissonier: within his limits an almost perfect painter, and, even when he overstepped them, one whose terrible conscientiousnes in the exercise of amazing ability will always merit deep respect. He thoroughly earned the honors he received, the fortune he acquired and squandered, and the immortality of which he is reasonably certain.

THE BRONTË CIRCLE.

Charlotte Brontë and her Circle. By Clement K. Shorter. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896. Pages xi, 512. Portraits and other illustrations.

"THIS is not a biography, but a bundle of correspondence," writes Mr. Shorter in bringing his work to a conclusion. It is, however, a bundle of correspondence exceeding in interest most such collections brought to light forty years after the death of the central figure to which they relate. The book owes its inception to the "kindly pressure" of a friend, and its value mainly to the material put at the editor's disposal by the Rev. Arthur Bell Nicholls, husband of Charlotte Brontë (now incumbent of a parish in Ireland), by Miss Ellen Nussey, and by the family of the late Mr. W. S. Williams.

"It has been with extreme unwillingness that Mr. Nicholls has broken the silence of forty years, and he would not even now have consented to the publication of certain letters concerning his marriage, had he not been aware that these letters were already privately printed and in the hands of not less than eight or ten people."

We have here altogether about 380 letters, separated and classified under seventeen different heads, with entertaining biographical introductions, such as "Patrick Brontë and Maria his Wife"; "Childhood," "Brussels," "Patrick Bramwell Brontë," "Emily Jane Brontë," "Anne Brontë," "Ellen Nussey," "Curates at Haworth," "Charlotte Brontë's Lovers," "Literary Ambitions." Over 300 of the letters are from Charlotte herself—160 of them to her bosom friend Ellen Nussey, 100 to one of her publishers, Mr. Williams. In these pages Charlotte, and Emily, and Anne appear to live again—more ordinary mortals, perhaps, than those limned by Mrs. Gaskell; not less interesting, perhaps more lovable. A certain weight is lifted off our minds concerning them. Their lives, if short, were full of occupation and intensity to themselves; less sad, apart from the tragedy of Bramwell's intemperance, than we had hitherto been led to suppose. Their father was not at all the bear we had pictured; if he did not invite much confidence, he inspired love and respect. It is no small tribute to his true character and disposition that Mr. Nicholls, whose suit for Charlotte he had repulsed for more than a year, and whose resignation of a curacy under him he practically compelled, after Charlotte's death, lived on alone with him until his death in 1861. Mr. Shorter pays ample tribute to Mrs. Gaskell:

"In the whole of English biographical literature there is no book that can compare in widespread interest with the Life of Charlotte Brontë by Mrs. Gaskell. . . . She brought to bear upon the biography . . . all those literary gifts which had made the charm of her seven volumes of romance. . . . Apart from these letters, a journey in the footsteps, as it were, of Mrs. Gaskell, reveals to us the remarkable conscientiousness with which she set about her task. . . . She spared no pains to find out facts. . . . She visited every spot associated with the name. . . . She wrote countless letters to her friends."

He then goes on to give the other side of the picture. Her work was undertaken largely at Mr. Brontë's desire, yet

"although we, who read Mrs. Gaskell's memoir, have every reason to be thankful for Mr. Brontë's decision, peace of mind would undoubtedly have been more assured to Charlotte Brontë's surviving relatives had the most rigid silence been maintained. The book, when it appeared in 1857, gave infinite pain to a number of people, including Mr. Brontë and Mr. Nicholls; and Mrs. Gaskell's subsequent experiences had the effect of persuading her that all biographical literature was intolerable and undesirable."

The humiliations to which Mrs. Gaskell was subjected, having, through her solicitors, publicly to apologize for certain statements, and to excise in subsequent editions portions of the first, arose from her having implicitly, without inquiry, taken as truth statements made to her by Charlotte Brontë. (It reminds us of the case of Mrs. Stowe and Lady Byron.) This is all now matter of literary history. No trained writer like Mrs. Gaskell would act so now. This is only one of the respects in which a careful perusal of Mr. Shorter's book has reminded us of the manner in which the world has sobered and been made more cautious than in 1857. Mrs. Gaskell paid heavily for her mistake. We confess we believe Mr. Shorter would have shown better taste in not again raking up and going over the story. He appears to us too much inclined to seek occasion for blaming her. The insertion on page 130 of the *Athenæum's* repudiation of her is quite unnecessary. At page 49 we read concerning portions of a letter: "The passage in brackets is quoted, not quite accurately, by Mrs. Gaskell." On comparison, the only difference we can find is the presence of an extra word, "being," which was wanting in the original and in no degree alters the sense. At page 294 we are given a letter which we are told was "partly printed in a mangled form in Mrs. Gaskell's memoir," and at page 432 "is a portion of a letter upon which Mrs. Gaskell practised considerable excisions." Again, on comparison, we find that in both these instances it would have been impossible, with the persons then living, for Mrs. Gaskell to quote more than she did.

The correspondence of which the book is composed might well have been broken into chapters according with different phases in the lives of Charlotte Brontë and her family, and introducing sketches of the different personalities as they came into her life. As it is, the letters are arranged, not in order of date, but of subject, often but of one subject of the many of which they treat. The narrative is thus broken up and confused. Again and again, at long intervals, the same incidents and interests come up. In one chapter the illness and death of persons are referred to, and in subsequent chapters they are alive and well. Taking the century of letters from Charlotte to Mr. Williams, we find them upon or between the following dates in chapters in the following order: 1849-1850, 1848, 1847-1849, 1850, 1849 1852, 1847-1851, 1848-1853, 1847-1849, 1847-1850. Those to Ellen Nussey are in tolerable order: 1832 to 1849 up to chapter vii.; then we have 1831-1852, 1833-1849, 1851, 1840-1844, 1844-1852, 1851, 1849, 1850-1851, 1844-1855.

Enough of criticism. In the rich treat Mr. Shorter has laid before us the only difficulty is to select the best portions. The book cannot but lead to renewed interest in the Brontës, their works, and everything that has been written about them. Charlotte Brontë's friendship with Ellen Nussey was perhaps the most enduring element in the web of her life.

"Of all her friends, Ellen Nussey must always have the foremost place in our esteem. Like Mary Taylor, she made Charlotte's acquaintance when, at fifteen years of age, she first went to Roe Head School. . . . Ellen Nussey and Charlotte Brontë corresponded with a regularity which one imagines would be impossible had they both been born half a century later. The two girls loved one another profoundly." "Ellen Nussey, as we have seen, accompanied Anne Brontë to Scarborough, and was at her death-bed. She attended Charlotte's wedding, and lived to mourn over her tomb. For forty years she has been the untiring advocate and staunch champion, hating to hear a word in her great friend's dispraise, loving to note the glorious recognition, of which there has been so rich and full a harvest. That she still lives to receive our reverent gratitude for preserving so many interesting traits of the Brontës, is matter for full and cordial congratulation."

In a letter to Mr. Williams, under date of January 3, 1850, Charlotte writes:

"Friendship, however, is a plant which cannot be forced. True friendship is no gourd, springing in a night and withering in a day. When first I saw Ellen I did not care for her; we were school-fellows. In course of time we learned each other's faults and good points. We were contrasts—still we suited. Affection was first a germ, then a sapling, then a strong tree. Now, no new friend, however lofty or profound in intellect—not even Miss Martineau herself—could be to me what Ellen is; yet she is no more than a conscientious, observant, calm, well-bred Yorkshire girl. She is without romance."

Charlotte Brontë had no illusions regarding herself. Declining an offer of marriage in 1839, she writes: "As for me, you do not know me; I am not the serious, grave, cool-headed individual you suppose; you would think me romantic and eccentric; you would say I was satirical and severe." She took no interest in and understood nothing of her father's country. "With the French and Irish I have no sympathy." Her letters from Brussels, apart from 'Villette,' show she was incapable of seeing the good in a Catholic people. She exhibits practical good sense in business matters. Writing to Miss Woolner in 1846: "The York and Midland is, as you say, a very good line, yet I confess to you I should wish for my part to be wise in time. I cannot think that even the very best lines will continue for many years at their present premiums, and I have been most anxious for us to sell our shares ere it be too late, and to secure the proceeds in some safer, if, for the present, less profitable investment." Yet she does not appear to have succeeded in making particularly remunerative bargains with her publishers. A footnote tells us: "Miss Brontë was paid £1,500 in all for her three novels, and Mr. Nicholls received an additional £250 for the copyright of 'The Professor.'"

In connection with an incident that appeared in a subsequent novel, we are tempted to quote the following somewhat long extract from a letter to Emily from Brussels in 1843. Charlotte spends a holiday afternoon wandering about the suburbs, and proceeds:

"When I came back it was evening; but I had such a repugnance to return to the house which contained nothing that I cared for, I still kept threading the streets. I found myself opposite to Ste. Gudule, and the bell, whose voice you know, began to toll for the evening salut. I went in quite alone, . . . wandered about the aisles till vespers began,

. . . I stayed until they were over; still I could not leave the church. . . . An odd whim came into my head. . . . I felt I did not care what I did, provided it was not absolutely wrong, and that it served to vary my life and yield a moment's interest I took a fancy to change myself into a Catholic and go and make a real confession, to see what it was like. . . . I had to kneel there some ten minutes waiting. . . . At last that [penitent] went away, and a little wooden door inside the grating opened. . . . I was obliged to begin. . . . I commenced by saying I was a foreigner, and had been brought up a Protestant. The priest asked if I was a Protestant then. I somehow could not tell a lie, and said 'Yes,' He replied that in that case I could not 'jouir du bonheur de la confesse'; but I was determined to confess, and at last he said he would allow me, because it might be the first step towards returning to the true church. I actually did confess—a real confession."

The letters to Mr. Williams are from a literary point of view the most interesting. They abound in good sense.

"Do not wish to keep them [his daughters] at home. Believe me, teachers may be hard worked, ill paid, and despised; but the girl who stays at home doing nothing is worse off than the hardest wrought and worse paid drudge of a school. . . . Give their existence some object, their time some occupation, or the peevishness of disappointment and the listlessness of idleness will infallibly degrade their nature."

"I smile at you again for supposing that I could be annoyed by what you say regarding your religious and philosophical views; that I could blame you for not being able, when you look amongst sects and creeds, to discover any one which you can exclusively and implicitly adopt as yours. I perceive myself that some light falls on earth from heaven—that some rays from the shrine of truth pierce the darkness of this life and world, but they are few, faint, and scattered, and who, without presumption, can assert that he has found the *only* true path upwards?"

In closing this book, as in closing Mrs. Gaskell's memoir, the reader will perhaps exclaim, "Oh! had she lived!" We are inclined to agree with Mr. Shorter: "It is not easy to believe that the future had any great things in store." "More she could not have done with equal effect had she lived to be eighty."

The Ship's Company, and Other Sea People. By Lieut.-Com. J. D. Jerrold Kelley, U. S. Navy. Harper & Bros. 1896.

"SIR," said Dr. Johnson, "no man will be a sailor who has contrivance enough to get himself in jail." Dr. Johnson uttered this aphorism from a knowledge of the nature of a sailor's life of the period in which he lived. Then the career of a mariner was the very sum of hardships and privations. In England the press-gang was in vigorous operation to procure recruits for ships of war. Not only were the highways and byways raked to secure men, but ships homeward bound, in sight of port, after a voyage of two or three years, were boarded and their crews seized and consigned to naval vessels, to serve for years without once putting their feet on shore. Moreover, merchant ships were small, ill equipped, and inadequately provisioned; and scurvy, against which no safeguard was instituted, decimated the crews of vessels engaged in long voyages. Nor on ships of war were any precautions taken to avert the attacks of this terrible disease. In the Seven Years' War, in which only 1,512 English seamen and marines were killed or wounded, 133,000 died of disease or were missing. Moreover, flogging was the recognized mode of punishment for sailors in the naval and merchant service. In both, hardly a day elapsed that men were not triced up to the gratings and their backs furrowed with the cat-o'-nine-tails.

In our time all this is changed. Seamen are now protected by adequate laws from cruel treatment, ships are large, well equipped, and amply provisioned. Moreover, steam has so largely superseded sails as a means of propulsion that voyages are short and stops in port much prolonged. The use of steam has also greatly changed the character of both officers and crews. While seamanship so long as men float upon the ocean will be a necessary qualification, a wider and more scientific knowledge is requisite. Quick decision, iron will, and unfaltering courage are, under the new dispensation, no less obligatory. Indeed, the strain entailed upon the faculties of officers in charge of our swift ocean liners, moving at a speed of twenty knots an hour or more, with the responsibility for the safety of from 500 to 1,000 human beings, demands in the highest degree the qualities above mentioned.

Lieut.-Com. Kelley, in his 'Ship's Company,' graphically describes the nature of the duties of the officers, above and below, on our swift ocean liners. He reveals the dangers that encompass the vessel, and the ceaseless vigilance and intelligence required to bring to a successful conclusion a voyage of only from five to seven days' duration. In the chapter entitled "The Squadron Cruise" he employs a different note. This relates to the pleasures of yachting, its even, uneventful, and joyous life. In "Midshipmen, Old and New," he records the difference in training of naval youngsters in the past and to-day. He emphasizes the multitudinous accomplishments necessary to those who man the modern ship of war. The naval officer of to-day not only must be a seaman, but must be equipped with a thorough knowledge of mechanics.

The remaining chapters of Mr. Kelley's book are replete with interest. Altogether he reveals how far present conditions of the sea are dissevered from those of the past, from those of Marryat, Cupples, and other writers. Even with the handicap of the loss of picturesqueness that formerly attached to the sailor man (though more in the imagination than in reality), Mr. Kelley is by no means inferior to his distinguished predecessors in delineating with vigor and force all that relates to the modern ship's company. He finds in them ample material to compose a volume which, from the point of view of contrast and literary merit, elevates him to a high level as a writer on sea topics.

The illustrations are very numerous, interesting, well drawn, and reproduced. They add largely to the attractiveness of the book.

Grasses of North America. By W. J. Beal, Ph.D., Professor of Botany and Forestry in Michigan Agricultural College. Two volumes. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

THE first volume of this useful work was published ten years ago. It deals with the general physiology of grasses and with the application of physiological laws to profitable cultivation. The management of grass-lands is discussed in a practical way, and a good deal of attention is given to the foes of the grass-family, such as insects and fungi. To make the volume of even greater use to farmers, the matter of clovers is brought within the scope of the work.

In the volume just issued Professor Beal has considered the grasses from a descriptive and systematic point of view, and he closes his work by a short account of their geographical distribution. There is also a bibliography. The whole treatise represents an immense amount of labor carried on under exceptional difficulties. The author says in his preface that he found it "necessary to limit the time for study to a few weeks each year. Little opportunity could be found for this work while college classes were to be instructed; besides, a considerable portion of the long vacation was claimed for participating in farmers' institutes." The treatise, therefore, embodies disjointed studies which have been coördinated and united as best they may. In such a work we must not look for the qualities which characterize systematic descriptive botany prosecuted without a break.

When the construction of a volume extends over so long a period as ten years, we expect naturally to find some lack of proportion and perspective, and we may not hope with confidence that all of the latter portions will be wholly consistent with the earlier parts. Professor Beal has, however, reduced these faults to a minimum, and, considering his absorbing duties in another field which is emphatically his own, he has made a substantial contribution to agrostology. This contribution consists chiefly in the enormous number of measurements of different parts of grasses which he has most patiently and conscientiously conducted. The treatise will be valued as a useful record of accurate work in this direction, and will long serve as a treasury from which compilers will be likely to draw.

From a hint in the preface we infer that the author was disappointed in the matter of illustrations. Those which are given are only 126, to illustrate 151 genera; a scant supply at best. They are mostly accurate and telling, but in mechanical execution are not worthy of the text. A few of them look as if they had already done yeoman service in agricultural bulletins, and the lettering of the figures seems to secure distinctness at the hazard of destroying all artistic effect.

The two volumes must be taken together in order to show the true character of the task accomplished by Professor Beal in this department of botany. The author is an intensely practical man, who has devoted his energies untiringly to the improvement of agriculture in Michigan, and he has had the satisfaction of knowing that his work has told wholly for good. It must be a great relief to him to realize that this treatise is now happily off his hands, and that he can apply himself to forestry, a crying need in his State, while his two volumes can do their own work in a wider field than a single commonwealth. He can feel assured that the completed work will be acceptable especially to those whose interest in grasses is largely industrial.

In Buncombe County. By Maria Louise Pool. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. 1896.

THIS book is Miss Pool's gage flung down before Miss Murfree. She challenges her boldly by name. "Does Miss Murfree know? Are those people on the Tennessee side different from the men and women here? She has a glamour, a mist from her much-described hills and valleys that obscures clear sight." The unclouded vision of Miss Pool then reports to us such characterizations as these: "a vile, low, licentious, sly people, . . . singularly devoid of any capability to understand anything different from themselves." This cool filching of the only possession of the North Carolina mountaineers—their good name—tempts a reviewer who has lived among

them to question whether the snap-shot photographs of a scamperer like Miss Pool are really more accurate than the idealizations of a lifelong devotee. Certainly the friendly mountain folk, who show by so many traits the Scotch-Irish stock from which they are sprung, and who exhibit in no small degree the virtues traditionally ascribed to those who breathe mountain air, would be puzzled to recognize themselves in the product of Miss Pool's kodak. It is comforting to reflect that they will never be called upon to make the identification—though one cannot be too sure of this in these days when they have their college settlements, and hold weekly debates on free silver and the Armenian question.

For the hardened realist that Miss Pool professes herself to be, a singular gleam of romance illumines her page. She does not venture to discover a living mountain beauty among the "thin-lipped, lascivious-mouthed, bony-faced women," but to the dead mother of 'Ristus is granted a posthumous praise. From her the boy had his "warm-tinted, lovely eyes," and the artist who had loved her for a summer and then ridden away, is brought back by a scrupulous Providence to die under the haunting eyes of his unacknowledged son. It is to be feared that a bit of Miss Murfree's mist got over to the North Carolina side and into Miss Pool's eyes.

For the rest, her book is pleasantly written, with slight descriptive touches that are admirable in their restraint. It betrays its date by being of that time long since past when there was an Asheville Junction. A millionaire's touch has now transformed that into something rich and strange, and, as nearly as we can make out, on the spot where Amabel's redbird made its dash for freedom, now rises a millionaire's church with its New York tenor and choir-master.

Constitutional History of the United States. By George Ticknor Curtis. Vol. II. Edited by Joseph Culbertson Clayton. Harper & Bros. 1896.

THE first volume of Curtis's 'History of the Constitution of the United States' was published in 1854, and the second in 1858. In 1889 a revised edition in one volume appeared, with the promise of a second volume covering the period from the adoption of the Constitution to the close of the civil war. The task was left unfinished at the author's death in 1894, but the more or less complete manuscript of thirteen of the proposed seventeen chapters was found among his papers, and has been edited by Mr. Clayton at the request of Mr. Curtis's family. The editor has confined himself, so far as the body of the work is concerned, to "putting the posthumous material in condition for publication," although he has taken the trouble to verify dates and citations, and has corrected some manifest clerical errors. A few of the latter have escaped his attention, and one or two of the later chapters show lack of the revision to which the author would doubtless have subjected them. In the main, however, the completed portions of the volume, though but a fragment, probably stand substantially as they were intended to appear.

From the first, Curtis's History of the Constitution was held in deservedly high repute. Without parade of details, its judicial air, its dialectic skill, its broad generalizations, and its earnest and rather formal style made especial appeal to lawyers and judges, and secured for it the honor of frequent citation by the courts as a "standard authority." To a considerable extent these qualities characterize the posthumous volume before us; nevertheless, we can but think that most readers will lay down the book with a distinct feeling of disappointment. The reason is not far to seek. With the exception of the first two chapters, which are a luminous setting forth of the contrast between the development of political opinion concerning the nature of the Constitution and the judicial views of it, there is little that has not been said more than once before, and, it must be confessed, said rather more interestingly. One realizes afresh how much the Constitution has been studied, and how clearly it has been expounded, when a historian of Curtis's ability can improve so slightly upon the old and tell us so little that is new.

The chapters treating of the acuter phases of the slavery struggle, of secession, and of the Reconstruction legislation are hardly of a piece with the earlier parts of the book. They are able and vigorous, but they befit the advocate rather than the impartial and philosophic historian. The severe criticism of the abolitionists for their attitude towards the Constitution recalls the denunciation which Curtis himself had to endure from the abolitionists in 1851, when, as United States Commissioner in Boston, he caused the fugitive slave Thomas Sims to be returned to his master. Curtis is convinced that the civil war might have been averted if the North had but made the concessions that it ought to have made, while the conduct of the Republican party during the Reconstruction period, and the creation of the Electoral Commission in 1876, are unsparingly condemned. Truly, some ghosts die hard. No doubt there was quite enough in the political events of that troublous time for which it would be hard to find either constitutional or moral justification, but only a narrow and technical view of constitutional principles can approve wholesale disparagement of the acts of a government suddenly compelled to fight for its life, and afterwards feeling its way, with no sufficient precedents to guide it, to a readjustment of the relations of the rebellious States to the Union. Lawyers have never had much difficulty in proving that Secession was illegal and Reconstruction unconstitutional, nor political philosophers in showing how both might have been avoided. The problem of the United States, however, was to prevent Secession from becoming effectual, and, after that had been accomplished, to restore normal conditions; and if, in the struggle, much was done which is now difficult of defence, it was demonstrated that, in times of great national exigency, the lawyer's view of constitutional powers and limitations must often yield somewhat to the force of sheer necessity.

Somewhat less than half of the 780 pages of the volume are devoted to an appendix, consisting chiefly of documents designed, as Mr. Clayton says, "as an apparatus for students." Most of these are so readily accessible that the propriety of reprinting them here is not obvious. Special interest, however, attaches to Curtis's argument for the plaintiff in the Dred Scott case, a note in reply to criticisms of his views of the Constitution by John G. Tyler, and his much-censured oration of July 4, 1862, before the municipal authorities of Boston. The analytical index to the Constitution appears to be taken from the Revised Statutes of 1878, although no source is indicated, and the same work seems to have been drawn upon for the text of the Constitution with references to judicial decisions, although Mr. Clayton has cited many additional cases. The volume has a full index.

Shakespeare's Heroes on the Stage. By Charles E. L. Wingate. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

MR. WINGATE'S 'Shakespeare's Heroes on the Stage' is a companion volume to his 'Shakespeare's Heroines on the Stage,' and is constructed upon a similar plan, which consists in putting the name of a celebrated character at the head of a chapter, and grouping under it biographical sketches, anecdotes, and criticisms of the most famous actors who have appeared in it. The manifest disadvantage of this system is that it is necessarily fragmentary and disconnected. The players of different eras are all mixed up together—the same names appearing over and over again in different parts of the book—and the mind of the reader is confused by a vast amount of repetition and a chronological tangle which is not resolved by the faithful insertion of dates. These faults are all the more serious because the book, presumably, is intended only for persons possessing little or no general knowledge of dramatic history, the material which it contains being, for the most part, a digest from such familiar authorities as the *Tatler*, Pepys, Dr. Doran, Hazlitt, Macready, Barry Cornwall, George Henry Lewes, Leigh Hunt, Dunlap, and others. These excerpts and paraphrases are good enough in their way, but are not particularly valuable except as an inducement to the reader to go to the original source. The interpolated anecdotes, when they are not apocryphal, are exceedingly venerable and well worn. What original matter there is consists mainly of reflections by the compiler which can be regarded only in the light of padding.

If Mr. Wingate was in want of matter to fill up his allotted number of pages, he might have extended his researches with profit to his readers, if not to himself. His "heroes" are *Othello*, *Iago*, *Lear*, *Shylock*, *Coriolanus*, *Macbeth*, *Hamlet*, and *Richard III.* He has nothing to say about famous impersonations, old or modern, of *Falstaff*, *Benedick*, *Romeo*, *Mercutio*, *King John*, *Wolsey*, *Brutus*, *Antony*, or other less prominent Shaksperian parts. The mention of these omissions is, perhaps, a sufficient comment upon the incompleteness of his work and the misleading comprehensiveness of his title.

It is only fair to add that his record, as far as it goes, appears to be fairly accurate and full. Indeed, the trouble which he has been at to preserve the names of a host of forgotten or insignificant players is wholly superfluous. Among the most interesting features of his book are the old portraits, some of which are uncommon, while all are well reproduced. All that remains to be said is that his literary style is agreeably fluent, if rather reckless—easy writing without being hard reading—and that he has taken the pains to prepare a good index.

Intermezzi: Kunstgeschichtliche Studien von A. Furtwängler. Leipzig and Berlin: Giesecke & Devrient; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1896. 4to, pp. 92.

THE present volume, the latest from Professor Furtwängler's tireless pen, consists of four short essays and an excursus. The first essay presents, with the help of four fine photo-engravings and several half-tones, a hitherto un-

known bronze head, the property of the Duke of Devonshire. This head is regarded by the author as an unquestionable Greek original of about 460 B. C., and as in all probability the work of Pythagoras of Rhegium, an artist of first-rate importance, the mint marks of whose genius Prof. Furtwängler believes himself to have discovered. The second essay is devoted to the Minerva Medici of the École des Beaux-Arts. This statue was discussed by the author in his recent 'Masterpieces of Greek Sculpture.' It was then for him a Roman copy of a bronze original, the Athena Promachos of the Athenian Acropolis, which, as he then argued, was the work of the elder Praxiteles. Now, after a renewed examination under more favorable conditions, it has become for him a Greek original, the long-lost central figure of the eastern pediment of the Parthenon. The third essay brings to light an all but unnoticed frieze in the Louvre, shows convincingly, so far as one can judge without independent examination, that it is a pendant to the well-known frieze in Munich with the nuptial procession of Poseidon and Amphitrite, and assigns the two to an altar before the temple of Neptune, built by Cn. Domitius Ahenobarbus, between 35 and 32 B. C. The fourth essay vindicates an Augustan date for the Roman monument at Adamklissi in the Dobrudja, first made known to the world in 1895, and treats of types of Germanic and other barbarian tribes represented thereon. The excursus brings a powerful battery of arguments into the field against the genuineness of the "Tiara of Saltapharnes" and the associated gold objects purchased by the Louvre last spring, of which M. Salomon Reinach has well informed our readers.

These papers exhibit Professor Furtwängler's characteristic and extraordinary qualities —his unparalleled familiarity with Greek and Roman monuments of every class, his ingenuity, audacity, and self-confidence in hypothesis, his admirable faculty of lucid and telling exposition. Like everything that he writes, they are full of invaluable instruction for students sufficiently advanced to know how to judge them. To mere amateurs, unable to distinguish between break-neck conjecture and demonstrated certainty, they are likely to do as much harm as good.

Mere Literature, and Other Essays. By Woodrow Wilson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

THIS volume contains eight essays, all but one of which, that on Burke, had already been printed in magazines and reviews. This new essay, with the one which precedes it on Bagehot, are the only really substantial contributions to criticism in the volume. Mr. Wilson is primarily a political writer, and in his study of Burke he writes about what he understands. Most of the other essays belong to a species of writing of which there is still a good deal published every year, chiefly in this country, and which is on this account worth a brief analysis.

The first essay is on "Mere Literature," and is a protest against scientific contempt for literature as such. What Mr. Wilson wants to show is that there is something in literature above and beyond science. The idea is an old and, we should have supposed, an outworn one. But, waiving this, the method of treatment is also antique and imitative. It is a specimen of the half-rhapsodical, half-metaphysical essay transmitted to us from an elder day — let us say, the day of De Quincey or of Coleridge. It deals much in abstractions; it consists, in fact, in great measure, of statements, preferably antithetical, about abstractions such as Wit, Humor, Invention, Fancy, Imagination, Literature, Poetry, Scholarship, etc. "Seers" are often referred to as a superior order of men into whose intimacy the author has been admitted, and he himself writes a little as if seated upon a tripod. This method of writing has never had any tendency to convert the scientific man from thinking meanly of "mere literature"; it inclines him rather to laugh at the whole thing as a *reductio ad absurdum* of literature. Such literature, he would say, consists mainly of a collection of logical fallacies. What the author actually does is to take an abstract noun, define it in such a way as to suit a preconceived theory, and then, from the definition, demonstrate the truth of the theory. If, after the theory is demonstrated, facts suggest themselves which are at war with it, then there must be something doubtful or wrong about the facts, because the theory is already established.

For instance, Mr. Wilson, wishing to contrast literature and scholarship, declares that the groundwork of the former is "not erudition, but reflection and fancy." Scholars "*do not reflect;* they label, group kind with kind, set forth in schemes, expound with dispassionate method." It would necessarily follow that scholars are incapable of producing true literature. But, having established this, Mr. Wilson suddenly remembers that Gibbon, who was a scholar, was the author of a book commonly regarded as having the marks of literature, and who certainly was capable of reflection. He gets over the difficulty very neatly by declaring that "if we continue Gibbon in his fame, it will be for love of his art, not for worship of his scholarship"; *i. e.*, it may be that it is all a mistake to think Gibbon a great writer; but, if a great writer, we must remember that it was not through scholarship, but through literary gifts, that he was a great writer. This is very complete, but we greatly fear that, among the maliciously scientific, it will be derided as an excellent specimen of what might strictly be called mere literature.

But we have a more serious fault to find with Mr. Wilson than this. It is that he systematically teaches principles which we believe to be radically erroneous. In his second essay, "The Author Himself," he undertakes to encourage individualism in literature, and recommends a "certain helpful ignorance" as tending to foster it. "It is best for the author to be born away from literary centres, or to be excluded from their ruling set if he be born in them. It is best that he start out with his thinking, not knowing how much has been thought and said about everything." Now this is written under the idea that in literary centres there is a set which is hostile to novelty and individuality, and is doing its utmost to stifle both. Such may have been the fact once, but it long since ceased to be true. There is a high premium on individuality in the literary market, and any one who can open a new vein need not despair of attracting attention. To tell him, however, that ignorance will help him is to give him the very worst advice in the world. He cannot know too much of what others have done. His knowledge will no more take away the edge of his individuality than it will take away his appetite for dinner.

But Mr. Wilson is one of those who think that all "centres" are bad. His philosophy is eminently rural. He thinks that all the best lawyers are to be found "in the country." We hardly know of a single lawyer of distinction in the Northern United States who is a product of country life, and the tendency to the cities is so strong that we could mention country districts where the places made vacant by the death of country lawyers of the old school are filled by the scum of the profession. It is an inevitable corollary of views like these that, for the critic and reviewer, Mr. Wilson has nothing but contempt. The critic is the enemy of freshness and originality, and, "set on" by the fashionable coterie which rules the town, he harries the poor young author, and disables him from earning a livelihood. And so it goes on. These essays are an echo of the past. No such world exists as that which Mr. Wilson describes. Individuality is not what needs stimulation, but excellence. Of ignorance there is enough, Heaven knows, already.

Impressions and Experiences. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros. 1896.

THE distinction is not very well defined, but we prefer Mr. Howells's experiences to his impressions. His earliest memories concern a country printing office wherein and whereof he had practical experience, and his narrative of the manner of creating and distributing a "local" newspaper fifty years ago is sufficiently entertaining. The "country printer" whom he describes was his father, and perhaps he is restrained by modesty from saying too much in his praise, but he might have gone much further in this direction without offending against good taste. The early Free-Soilers were interesting and often noble men, and the glimpses that we get of the elder Mr. Howells make us wish that we knew more of him. If it is true, as Mr. Howells says, that "the old-fashioned country newspaper formed almost the sole intellectual experience of the remote and quiet folks who dwelt in their lonely farmsteads on the borders of the woods," why should he doubt if his father's paper influenced its readers at all?—since it was a sincere attempt at conscientious and self-respecting journalism, addressing itself seriously to the minds of its readers, and seeking to form their tastes and opinions. Carlyle's readers are not repelled by his hearty laudation of his father's stone-masonry, and we are willing to believe that the honest and earnest Free-Soil editor out in the Western Reserve built himself a monument more lasting if less visible than a stone bridge.

It may be that the somewhat atrabilarious temperament which Mr. Howells displays of recent years has made him doubtful whether any earnest work is worth while. If everything is for the worst in the worst possible world, what is the use of struggling? Why not fold our hands and let the crash come—the sooner the better? To be sure, Mr. Howells's pessimism has not practically carried him so far as this. He still encourages mendicancy by promiscuous almsgiving; but he frankly confesses that he does not believe that his action has any tendency to reduce the aggregate of human misery. He apparently justifies himself by subjective considerations: he is afraid that if he does not give to street beggars his heart will become hard, and he thinks it of more importance that it should be kept soft than that the efforts of the Charity Organization Society to suppress mendicancy should be successful. We do not know by what process of reasoning this conclusion is justified; but we cannot assent to it. We do not believe that Mr. Howells's heart would become ossified if

he never gave another penny to a street beggar, and we are quite sure that any slight cardiac induration that resulted from this course of action would be more than made up for by the arrest of cerebral tendencies in the opposite direction.

For it appears to us to admit of no question that Mr. Howells has suffered from the bad company that he has been keeping. We do not impugn his literary judgment—an artist can find material anywhere: George Eliot's early sketches of plain people rank with the best work that other writers have done in describing aristocratic life. But the exclusive contemplation of morbid specimens of humanity, without any defined purpose or expectation of improving their condition, is necessarily demoralizing. Physicians are not demoralized by dealing with disease, because they deal with it only to cure or relieve; but Mr. Howells has no hope for his patients. He describes a poor woman in Central Park (whom he conjectures to be out of work), listening to a shabbily dressed man (whom we conjecture to be professionally out of work), who shows her that it would make no difference if she had work, because, "in the nature of things as we have them, it could only be a question of time when she must be thrown out of any place she found." Such wisdom Mr. Howells says he cannot gainsay, and then goes on to tell us that if the poor became rich they would only be unkinder for it. One feels like asking, in the name of common sense, what will Mr. Howells have. He does not want things as they are now, he thinks things would be worse if the poor became rich; and we cannot imagine any arrangement that would content him except to leave the poor as they are, and to reduce the rich to the same condition. This has often been proved to be the logical outcome of Socialism; but few socialists come so near to admitting it as Mr. Howells.

As was explained in the 'Bab Ballads' in the case of Baines Carew, Esq., excessive sympathy and sentimentality are disqualifications for serious work. But they have had even more serious effects in Mr. Howells's case. We may treat as a venial offence his thrusting upon us the hideous and sordid aspects of humanity. He has become so accustomed, perhaps, to the company of vagabonds and outcasts who display their amputations and imposthumes for professional purposes, that he feels no impropriety in showing the world by ocular and nasal demonstration that its righteousness is literally nothing but wounds and bruises and putrefying sores. This is not in accordance with Horace's theories of good taste; but Horace was of the Romantic school. Yet when it comes to the bold assertion that the rich do not wish to see conditions bettered, even for their own sakes, and merely to escape being confronted by the loathliness of poverty, we must protest. The imputation is so outrageously unjust as to require no comment. That Mr. Howells should make it, shows, we fear, that the poison of Socialism has reached his moral sense. Does he really suppose that he is the only person that is distressed by the existence of poverty and misery? Does he not know that thousands of rich people are agonizing over these evils and sacrificing themselves in a hundred ways to alleviate them? Because these people decline to rob the deserving poor by encouraging fraudulent mendicancy, are they to be condemned as heartless? And because they are not willing to surrender themselves to sentimental imbecility and helpless pessimism, are they to be assured that in justice they should be reduced to the level of the offscourings of mankind?

It may be thought that we take Mr. Howells's "impressions" too seriously; that it does not make much difference what he says. But it does at least make a difference to him what he says, especially if it is not true; and it makes a difference to him what he does if it is not wise. He has carried his pathological studies far enough; let him come back to wholesome conditions, and once more show us some sound specimens of humanity, even if he has to idealize a little in doing it.

The Adventures of My Life. By Henri Rochefort. Edward Arnold. 1896. 2 vols., 8vo.

M. ROCHEFORT has abridged his Life for English readers, and if the portions which he has excided are more offensive to good taste than those retained, they must be curiosities. He begins the narration of his "adventures" by filling several pages with odious and utterly unvouched for scandals about Marie Antoinette and Napoleon I. which have nothing whatever to do with his life. His unrivalled gift for coarse vituperation is displayed on every possible occasion, and the whole book appears to be principally a medium for paying off old scores by pouring unmeasured abuse upon nearly every public man with whom Rochefort's virulent journalistic methods brought him into conflict. While there are many interesting passages in these volumes, their principal interest is in furnishing a "human document"; in the unconscious exhibition which the author makes of his childish vanity, his reckless untruthfulness, the petty meanness of his character, combined with a ferocity that is almost ludicrous. Although he deserves credit for the courage with which he assailed the corrupt and demoralizing government of Napoleon III., his subsequent career in connection with the atrocious Commune and with that ridiculous impostor Boulanger awakens a suspicion that he opposed the Empire not so much because he hated despotism as because he needed a target for abuse. He has not been able to make his peace with any of the numerous governments that France has had in his time, and, if we take his word for it, there is hardly a respectable man in France except Henri Rochefort, Victor Hugo, and the Communards, who displayed their patriotism by murdering priests and destroying works of art.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Book of Offices and Prayers. Compiled by two Presbyters of the Church. James Pott & Co. $1.

Almanach de Gotha. 1897. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Azuzara, Gomes Eannes de. The Chronicle of the Discovery and Conquest of Guinea. Vol. I. London: The Hakluyt Society.

Babyhood. Vol. XII Dec., '95-Nov., '96. New York: *Babyhood* Publishing Co.

Baden-Powell, B. H. The Indian Village Community. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.

Barrie, J. M. Sentimental Tommy. Vol. II. My Lady Nicotine, and Margaret Ogilvy. [Thistle Edition.] Scribners.

Batterson, Rev. H. G. Vesper Bells, and Other Verses. James Pott & Co. $2.

Bibliothecas Americana: A Handy Book about Books which relate to Books about America. Indianapolis: George Watkins.

Burton, Alma H. Massasoit: A Romantic Story of the Indians of New England. New York: The Morse Co. $1.25.

Clairmont, Col. Ralph de. Reform. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.

Craig, R. M. A Widow Well Left: An Anglo-Indian Story. London: Roxburghe Press.

Curtis, G. W. The Public Duty of Educated Men. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 12c.

Davenport, Cyril. Royal English Bookbindings. [*Portfolio* Monographs.] London: Seeley & Co; New York: Macmillan.

Davis, Mrs. Rebecca H. Frances Waldeaux. Harpers. $1.25.

Delitzsch, Friedrich. Die Entstehung des ältesten Schriftsystems; oder, Der Ursprung der Keilschriftzeichen. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs.

Du Maurier, George. English Society. Harpers. $2.50.

Ellis, E. S. Phantom of the River. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.

Études d'Histoire du Moyen Age. Dédiées à Gabriel Monod. Paris: Alcan.

Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 50c.

Gollancz, Israel. Wordsworth's Prelude. [The Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.

Gould, Dr. G. M. An Autumn Singer. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Groves, Lieut.-Col. Percy. "Scotland Forever!" or, The Adventures of Alexander McDonell. London: George Routledge & Sons.

Guerber, H. A. Legends of the Virgin and Christ. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Hains, T. J. Captain Gore's Courtship. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c.

Hall, Rev. C. C. The Gospel of the Divine Sacrifice: A Study in Evangelical Belief. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.

Hamlin, Lieut.-Col. A. C. The Battle of Chancellorsville. Bangor, Me.: The Author.

Hamlin, Myra S. Nan at Camp Chicopee. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.

Harald, H. J. The Knowledge of Life: Being a Contribution to the Study of Religions. London: A. Constable & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

Hazell's Annual for 1897. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney.

Herkless, John. Richard Cameron. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.

Hodges, Almon D. Genealogical Record of the Hodges Family of New England. Boston: Printed for the Family.

Hodges, Fosfina H. Edward Hodges. Putnams. $2.50.

Hooker, Margaret H. Ye Gentlewoman's Housewifery. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Horner, Susan and Joanna. Walks in Florence and its Environs. New ed., revised and enlarged. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Scribners. $4.

Houston, Prof. D. F. A Critical Study of Nullification in South Carolina. [Harvard Historical Studies.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.

Hueffer, F. M. Ford Madox Brown: A Record of his Life and Work. Longmans, Green & Co. $12.

Hugo, Victor. Correspondance. 1815-1835. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's.

Hutchinson, Rev. H. N. Prehistoric Man and Beast. Appletons.

Ideals. Compiled by S. C. James Pott & Co. 75c.

Janes, L. G. Samuel Gorton: A Forgotten Founder of Our Liberties. Providence: Preston & Rounds. $1.

Jebb, Prof. R. C. Sophocles. Part VII. The Ajax. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.25.

Jensen, Wilhelm. Karine: A Story of Swedish Love. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.

Keasbey, Prof. L. M. The Nicaragua Canal and the Monroe Doctrine. Putnams. $3.50.

Kelly, Mrs. M. A. B. Short Stories of Our Shy Neighbors. American Book Co.

Kinross, Albert. A Game of Consequences. Merriam Co.

Kirby, William. The Golden Dog: A Romance of the Days of Louis Quinze in Quebec. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.25.

Knapp, Arthur M. Feudal and Modern Japan. 2 vols. Boston: Joseph Knight Co.

Koopman, H. L. The Mastery of Books. American Book Co. 90c.

Krehbiel, H. E. How to Listen to Music. Scribners. $1.25.

Latimer, Elizabeth W. Italy in the Nineteenth Century, and the Making of Austria-Hungary and Germany. $2.50.

Le Gallienne, Richard. The Quest of the Golden Girl: A Romance. John Lane. $1.50.

Litchfield, Mary E. Spenser's Britomart. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70c.

Loomis, E. J. An Eclipse Party in Africa. Boston: Roberts Bros. $4.50.

Lord, Prof. J. K. Livy. Book I. and Books XXI. and XXII. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.20.

Lord, W. S. Blue and Gold. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.

Mason, W. L. Phonographic Lesson Cards. New York: Isaac Pitman & Sons. $1.

Mathews, C. T. The Story of Architecture: An Outline of the Styles in All Countries. Appletons. $3.

Mathews, William. Getting on in the World. New ed. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.

Mathews, William. Literary Studies. 3 vols. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. $5.

Mayor, J. B. Guide to the Choice of Classical Books. New Supplement (1879-1896). London: David Nutt.

Meadowcroft, W. H. The A B C of the X-Rays. New York: American Technical Book Co. 75c.

Miles, Gen. Nelson A. Personal Recollections and Observations. Chicago: The Werner Co.

Miller, William. The Balkans: Roumania, Bulgaria, Servia, and Montenegro. Putnams. $1.50.

Mitteil. Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt. 1896-97. Strassburg: Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Mitchell, J. A. That First Affair, and Other Sketches. Scribners.

Morris, Charles. Half-hours of Travel at Home and Abroad. 4 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Morris, R. T. Hopkin's Pond, and Other Sketches. Putnams. $1.25.

Moscheles, Felix. In Bohemia with Du Maurier. Illustrated. Harpers. $2.50.

Moulton, C. W. In My Lady's Name: Poems of Love and Beauty. Putnams. $1.50.

Moulton, Louise C. In Childhood's Country. Illustrated. Boston: Copeland & Day. $2.

Munkittrick, R. K. The Acrobatic Muse. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.

Palgrave, R. H. L. Dictionary of Political Economy. Vol. II. F-M. Macmillan. $6.50.

Peck, Wallace. The Story of a Train of Cars. New York: Authors' Publishing Association. 50c.

Peek, Hedley. The Poetry of Sport. [The Badminton Library.] London: Longmans, Green & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.50.

Perkins, Lucy F. Fairy Starlight and the Dolls. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.

Perkins, Mary E. Old Houses of the Antient Town of Norwich, 1660-1800. New London: The Author.

Phipps, Col. R. W. Bourrienne's Memoirs of Napoleon Bonaparte. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.

Pierce, E. L. Addresses and Papers. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.

Plummer, Rev. Alfred. Commentary on St. Luke. [International Critical Commentary.] Scribners. $3.

Pope's Poetical Works. Complete edition. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.

Poulsson, Emilie. Through the Farmyard Gate. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.

Poulton, Prof. E. B. Charles Darwin and the Theory of Natural Selection. Macmillan. $1.25.

Price, L. L. Economic Science and Practice. London: Methuen & Co.
Quill, A. W. The History of P. Cornelius Tacitus. Translated into English. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.
Ramsay, Prof. William. The Gases of the Atmosphere: The History of their Discovery. Macmillan. $2.
Rathborne, St. George. Her Rescue from the Turks. F T Neely. 50c.
Rays of Sunshine. Compiled by S. C. James Pott & Co $1.
Reed, Elizabeth A. Primitive Buddhism, its Origin and Teachings Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. $1.
Renan, E. Caliban Translated by Eleanor Grant Vickery. New York: Shakspere Press.
Rhoades, James. The Æneid of Virgil. Books VII–XI. Translated into English Verse.
Richards, Mrs. Laura E. Isla Heron. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 75c.
Richardson, Martha W. Royal Helps for Loyal Living. Whittaker. $1.
Riley, J. W. A Child-World. Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.
Robbins, Prof. A. G. An Elementary Treatise on Surveying and Navigation. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 50c.
Robertson, Rev. Alexander. Through the Dolomites: From Venice to Toblach. London: George Allen; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Robinson, Edith. A Loyal Little Maid. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. 50c.
Robinson, Edith. Penhollow Tales. Boston: Copeland & Day $1.25.
Rogers, R. C. Old Dorset: Chronicles of a New York Country-Side. Putnams.
Rosen, Lew. Napoleon's Opera-Glass: An Histrionic Study. London: Elkin Mathews.
Ross, Clinton. The Scarlet Coat. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Rousiers, Paul de. Le Trade-Unionisme en Angleterre. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Rupp, A. J. Sonnets. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co
Russell, R. H. The Delft Cat, and Other Stories. R. H. Russell & Son.
Sales, Pierre. Fille de Prince. Paris: Flammarion; New York: Brentano's.
Sanford, Katharine L. A New Book of Charades. New York: J. T. White & Co.
Sanborn, A. F. Meg McIntyre's Raffle, and Other Stories. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1 25.
Scollard, Clinton. A Boy's Book of Rhyme. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Seaman, Owen. The Battle of the Bays. John Lane. $1.25.
Seawell, Miss Mollie E. A Virginia Cavalier. Harpers. $1.50.
Setoun, Gabriel. The Child-World. John Lane. $1.50.
Sewall, Frank. The Angel of the State; or, The Kindergarten. Boston: E. A. Whiston.
Sharp, Evelyn. Wymps, and Other Fairy Tales. John Lane. $1.50.
Sherman, Francis. Matins. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1 25.
Shiel, M. P. Shapes in the Fire. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Shinn, G. W. Friendly Talks about Marriage. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.
Sibbree, Rev. James. Madagascar before the Conquest. London: Unwin; New York: Macmillan $4.
Sidney, Margaret. The Gingham Bag: The Tale of an Heirloom Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.
Simpson, Eve B. Sir James Y. Simpson. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Simpson, William. The Buddhist Praying-Wheel. Macmillan. $4.
Skinner, C. M. Myths and Legends of Our Own Land. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B Lippincott Co. $3.
Sollal, A. H. Petite Histoire de Napoléon le Grand. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 25c.
Southey, Robert. The Life of Horatio Lord Nelson. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Spencer, Herbert. The Principles of Sociology. Vol. III. Appletons. $2.
Steevens, G W. Monologues of the Dead. London: Methuen & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 31, 1896.

The Week.

It is not easy to make out what the political or financial prospect is. Senator Wolcott has just come back from Canton in high feather. In fact, everybody who comes back from Canton is in high feather. Mr. Wolcott's feather is due to Mr. McKinley's cordial approval of his bill providing for the sending of delegates to another international conference about currency. Says Mr. Wolcott:

"Major McKinley is cordially in favor of making good the promise of the party, and he seemed profoundly interested in the bill and in what was said about it. He is in thorough harmony with the party, and his main purpose is the good of the country. He is taking a very broad view of his duties and responsibilities. I think that the bill is likely to be passed in a short time after the holiday recess, and, of course, Major McKinley can arrange for a conference soon after his inauguration, if he so desires."

In fact, Major McKinley appears to approve of everything proposed to him for "the harmony of the party" and "the good of the country." His profound interest in the idea of an international conference, and in everything that is said about it, shows what a fresh mind he has, for a good deal of what is said about it is afflicting to a real lover of his race.

In the last *Review of Reviews* there is an account by Mr. Walter Wellman of a visit to Major McKinley by Mr. Kohlsaat, the editor of the Chicago *Times-Herald*, before the convention, to urge on him the necessity of calling for the gold standard in the St. Louis platform. Mr. McKinley, Mr. Kohlsaat says, was opposed to the 16 to-1 ratio, but decidedly objected to the use of the word gold in the platform. And why? Because

"He depended less upon his own opinion in this matter than upon the testimony offered by his numerous correspondents in the party. The Governor exhibited hundreds of letters received from prominent Republicans in all parts of the country bearing upon this very point. The great majority of these writers said the word gold should not be in the platform."

So, you see, he could not be expected to have an opinion about the national standard of value till his mail came in, or any opinion about it after the mail came in except the one supplied by his correspondents. The convenience of having a President of this description in troublous times must be plain to the meanest understanding.

Chairman Dingley's paper, the Lewiston *Journal*, argued some days ago that it was undesirable for Congress to reduce appropriations, and now Mr. Dingley himself takes the same view in Washington. He is "astonished" at Secretary Carlisle's contention, in his report, that Congress has been extravagant and should retrench. To be sure, as the Secretary pointed out, there has been an annual average increase, during the past seven years over the preceding four, of $58,000,000 in the pension bill; but Chairman Dingley says that few grumblers over this increase can be found. So of the increased expenditures on the navy and on fortifications. If the people do not rise up to denounce them, the proof is clear that there is no extravagance. Mr. Dingley discreetly leaves out of the account one of the heaviest items—the increase of $18,518,845 in "civil and miscellaneous" expenditures. Here are the public buildings, so dear to the heart of the log-roller, and the useless offices, so precious to the spoilsmen. In a single department of the Treasury a committee of Congress found it possible to effect a saving of $200,000 a year simply by introducing business methods and dispensing with superfluous employees. Did Mr. Dingley never hear of this retrenchment? Does he imagine that fifty others like it are not possible and urgent? It is discouraging to find a Congressman of his character and standing indifferent to public waste. As either chairman of the ways and means committee or Secretary of the Treasury—one of which he is thought certain to be after March 4—he would be in a position to do much for economy in public expenditures. That is a crying need of the times in both nation, State, and city. But Mr. Dingley argues that because we have been lavish and wasteful, we must for ever keep on being so.

The annual attack upon civil-service reform in the lower branch of Congress was made on the day before its adjournment for the holiday recess. The defenders of the spoils system brought forward their familiar arguments—that, in the words of Mr. Gibson, a Tennessee Republican, "life tenure of office is not democratic, it is not republican, it is not American, it is not right, it is aristocratic and monarchical"; but there was plainly evident a lack of confidence, and a perception that their cause is a losing one. Mr. Baker, a New Hampshire Republican, went so far as to declare that "under the spoils system the public business had been better handled than now, when clerks are kept under secret espionage, and are not better off than factory hands"; but Mr. Brosius, a Pennsylvania Republican, who, as chairman of the civil-service committee, has made a thorough study of the subject, easily disposed of this charge, and defended the President's recent order extending the scope of the civil service as "a thoroughgoing merit-system order." Mr. Settle, a North Carolina Republican, moved to strike out the whole appropriation for the Civil-Service Commission, explaining that "this would cripple the law a great deal, and I wish I could cripple it a great deal more." This statement, we are told, "was heartily applauded by many Republicans on the floor and was vociferously hailed by the galleries"; but when it came to a vote, the spoilsmen of both parties could not rally a third of the House to their support. Worse still, an amendment was adopted further extending the reform, by providing that "all persons employed in the Library of Congress shall be appointed solely with reference to their fitness for the particular duty, and without reference to their political or party affiliations, and shall be removed for cause only."

An interesting feature of the discussion was the straightforward statement made by Chairman Brosius as to the proper attitude of the Republican party and its incoming President towards this matter. He characterized it as most remarkable that a proposition to starve out the Commission should be made by a Republican member, when the party's national platform, adopted last June, contained a resolution stating that "we renew our repeated declaration that the civil-service law shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced and extended wherever practicable." He quoted Mr. McKinley's commendation of this resolution in his letter of acceptance, and his statement that "the Republican party will take no backward step upon the question." He recalled Mr. McKinley's treatment of an attempt to cripple the reform by cutting down the appropriation for carrying it into effect in 1890, and endorsed the position then taken by the man who will become President next March:

"It is a Republican measure, and is in accord with the highest and best sentiments of the country, and no party will have the courage to wipe it from the statute-book or to amend it save in the direction of its improvement. The Republican party must take no step backward. The merit system is here, and is is here to stay, and we may just as well understand and accept it now, and give our attention to correcting the abuses, if any exist, and improving the law wherever it can be done to the advantage of the public service."

The net result of the spoilsmen's assault was thus an extension of the reform and the committal of the next Administration to still further extensions.

The decision of Justice Keogh, in the civil-service case which was raised in Brooklyn, should impel the Civil-Service Reform Association of this city to begin proceedings at once to bring the office of District Attorney within the regulations of the law. Justice Keogh's opinion follows exactly the lines of the Court of Ap-

peals decision quoted by us the other day, to the effect that the Constitution of the State, requiring competitive examinations wherever practicable, is self-operating and must be carried out, no matter whether there be express laws directing it to be or not. The only question at issue is, Are competitive examinations practicable? The Mayor of Brooklyn held, in regard to certain places in the municipal service, that they were not. The court decides that the Mayor has no authority in the matter, since the question of practicability is not subject to the opinion of any mayor, or governor, or other executive officer, or of the Legislature. This covers the District Attorney's office here completely. That office has not been brought within the regulations by the Governor's act, but it is within them under the Constitution, and exception by the Governor is of no validity. Mr. Olcott ought to be compelled to select all his minor subordinates from the eligible lists, after competitive examination. His choice of Van Allen and young Lauterbach for two of his chief assistants gives alarming evidence that he cannot be trusted to fill the minor places without some restraining power which will protect him against the demands of the machine.

The Choate meeting last week was thinned by the inclemency of the weather and the condition of the streets, but it had the very great value of drawing from Mr. Guthrie the first positive description we have had from Platt's Republican associates of the system by which he has debauched and degraded his party, and now proposes to make himself Senator. Mr. Guthrie asserts positively that this system is founded on contributions received from corporations; that these contributions are concealed from the stockholders by false entries in the books; that there ought to be legislation making it a penal, as it is a moral, offence to use the funds of the companies in any such way, and that there ought now to be a legal investigation of the whole matter. The thing has now gone so far that such an investigation can hardly be avoided sooner or later. Before these investigators every corporation officer in New York ought to be summoned, and so ought Platt himself. Platt would undoubtedly deny everything, but there must be among the officers of the corporations a large number, at least, who will not under any circumstances lie or prevaricate. We are also indebted to Mr. Guthrie for an exposure of the fraud which Platt has so successfully practised on a portion of the public, in giving out that he "had waged a splendid and most statesmanlike fight against timorous and quibbling Republicans who sought to keep out of the St. Louis platform the word gold." This is pure fiction. Mr. Guthrie showed clearly by indisputable evidence that the gold plank was settled on, just as it was adopted, by McKinley's Western friends days before Platt reached St. Louis. Platt was occupied at this time in getting money from corporations to lead his fraudulent delegation to the convention.

We call the attention of all persons who have doubts as to the real sources of Platt's power and the secret of his ownership of the Legislature to an interview with Mr. E. C. Benedict published last week in the *Evening Post*. There are few men in the city who are familiar with the "inside workings" of more large corporations than Mr. Benedict is. It is expert opinion of the first rank, therefore, which he gives when he says that the "government of this State is in the hands of three houses"; that "the third house does business on the principle of 'Stand and deliver'"; that "that is the way the Legislature treats corporations"; and that "the present ruler is as much more expensive than the former one of a different political stripe as an educated, skilful, high-priced man is than an ignorant and low-priced one." Does anybody have any doubt as to what two men Mr. Benedict refers to in these utterances? Does anybody have any doubt as to whom he refers when he speaks of a man who at present "acts as a clearing-house for boodle"? Yet when the man thus characterized is about to elect himself, because of his boodle power, to the Senate of the United States, it is with great difficulty that the press and people can be persuaded that they ought to protest against it and prevent it.

The train is now laid. It must before long be fired by some one. The Republican party in New York cannot longer with safety carry Platt and his system, which would have damned it beyond redemption in its most victorious days. It can still less carry them in these days of doubt and anxiety. It cannot meet the issue in 1900 with a Legislature elected and controlled by a boss, and with the boss himself in the United States Senate, and modelled on Tweed. Tweed, too, had planned the transfer of his ring to Washington when he was cut off untimely. The party has allowed his system to be set up in Pennsylvania also, and the foundations are being laid in other States. If this republic is to last, this mode of government must be abandoned. It contains every defect and abuse in the monarchies of the old world against which the United States was intended as a protest.

The principal argument against the retirement of the greenbacks is that they save to the Government the interest on $346,000,000 of bonds. The Comptroller of the Currency in his recent report controverts this assertion, and shows that as an economical proposition it would have been cheaper for the Government if it had issued bonds for the full amount of the outstanding greenbacks in 1879, called these in and cancelled them. If that had been done, the cost to the present time would have been, in round figures, counting principal and interest, $742,000,000, whereas the cost and liability of maintaining the redemption of the notes has been, in principal and interest, $1,100,000,000, showing a difference of over $300,000,000 in favor of paying off and cancelling the greenbacks in 1879, when specie payments were resumed. This does not make any account of the cost of maintaining the Bureau of Engraving and Printing and of keeping the notes in good condition. It may be said that a part of the money obtained from the later issues of bonds has been used to pay current expenses of the Government, and is therefore not chargeable to the cost of greenback redemption. On the other hand, it is reasonably certain that but for the greenbacks no new issues of bonds would have been made. They could not have been made without new legislation. The Government would have worked along somehow without borrowing. Bond issues for current expenses would not have been tolerated. Congress would have been compelled to cut down current expenses or to increase current income. It might have made some small temporary loan when the deficit first showed itself, but it would not have issued bonds running a long term of years to meet a temporary deficit. Public opinion would not have tolerated such waste.

It may be asked why it was necessary to issue long-time bonds for greenback redemption. The reason is that there was no law authorizing temporary loans, and that Congress refused to pass one, although frequently asked to do so by the President and the Secretary of the Treasury. The only way open for the Executive to meet the Government's liabilities was to issue bonds which had been authorized long ago under other circumstances and when the rate of interest was higher than it is now. Congress was willing to avail itself of the money borrowed in this costly way. It could appropriate money recklessly when the Treasury was full of borrowed money, and at the same time shed crocodile tears over the sinfulness of the Executive in borrowing it. So shameless a spectacle has rarely been witnessed in the annals of representative government as that offered by the Fifty-third Congress, and repeated by the Fifty-fourth, in dealing with this question—refusing the power asked for by the President to borrow on the best terms, denying practically his power to borrow at all, yet plunging both hands up to the elbows into the money so obtained. Add to this the refusal to increase the revenue by other means than borrowing, and we have the result to which reference was made

above, namely, that the existence of the Government's legal-tender notes, and the necessity of redeeming them on demand, have been the cause, not only of the recent bond issues, but of the extravagance in public appropriations. Is there any reason to expect better things hereafter?

The failure of the National Bank of Illinois came as a great surprise to the public last week because it had been considered for a quarter of a century one of the most conservative financial institutions in the country. Anybody familiar with the business affairs of Chicago would have included it in any list of the panic-proof banks of that city. It was this reputation, slowly built up, that gave it the very large deposit account of $13,000,000. Under these circumstances the failure becomes absolutely inexcusable. It is the old story of speculations inside the bank; that is, excessive and apparently unlawful loans to speculative undertakings, such as the Calumet Electric Street Railway. The national banking law forbids the lending of more than one-tenth of a bank's capital to one person, corporation, or firm, directly or indirectly. If the published reports are correct, it would seem that this law must have been violated in a glaring manner, and even after the Comptroller of the Currency had given the officers and directors warning. It may be asked why the bank examiners did not find out this condition of things in time to put a stop to it. The answer probably is that the books of the bank were kept in such a way as to conceal the facts. No system of public examination of books can be depended upon if the examiner must go behind the books, for then he becomes a detective officer, and detection requires time. If it were necessary to put detectives on the 5,051 national banks of the United States, an army would be required instead of the handful now employed, and their work would in most cases be obstructive instead of helpful to legitimate business. After the Comptroller was made acquainted with the internal condition of this bank, his action appears to have been both prompt and prudent. It is very hard to decide whether a bank shall be put in the hands of a receiver as soon as information reaches the Comptroller that it is shaky, or whether opportunity shall be given to rehabilitate it, even at the risk of its becoming worse. Generally the latter course would be approved by nine business men out of ten, regard being had to the circumstances of each case.

The official canvass in two States shows overwhelming majorities for amendments to the Constitution making more difficult the exercise of the suffrage by immigrants. Hitherto Texas has allowed a man of foreign birth who had resided in the State for one year to vote upon declaring his intention to become a citizen at any time before an election. The last Legislature submitted a proposition that such a declaration must be made not less than six months before the election, and it was ratified by a vote of about five to one. Minnesota has permitted a foreigner to vote upon a declaration of intention to become a citizen, provided he has resided in this country one year and in the State four months before an election. The last Legislature submitted an amendment requiring that an alien shall become naturalized before he can exercise the suffrage, which means that he must have resided in the United States at least five years, and the proposition was carried at the polls by a large majority. A noteworthy feature of this vote in Minnesota is the fact that six men out of ten in the State are of foreign birth, and that only about two-thirds of these are naturalized, so that a measure restricting the foreign vote was submitted to an electorate of which a majority at present are of foreign birth. Nevertheless, no issue of nationality was raised, and the result shows that the amendment must have been supported by many foreign-born voters.

The Galveston (Texas) *News* notes the facts that a mob of white men attacked negro laborers employed in a saw-mill at Canfield, Ark., a few nights ago, shot twenty of them, and left the wounded men without attention all night; that a similar assault was made on negroes in Frostville, Ark., on another night—nine of them were shot, and none of the murderers was arrested; and that the editor of a weekly newspaper published at Ashland, Ala., while sitting in his home one evening recently, was shot dead by an assassin who fired through the window, because he had made war in his paper on certain lawless gangs that have been operating in the country. The *News* says that the American people sympathize very deeply with the Armenians and with the Cubans, which it considers all right; that they are moved by an ardent desire to suppress the cruelty of the Kurd and of the Spaniard, which it also considers all right. But it holds that their first duty is to prevent the brutalities that are perpetrated in their own land, and it thus forcibly applies the obligation of which it speaks:

> "There are evidently some scaly Kurds in Arkansas. Why not demand of the Governor some much needed reforms? Alabama has some assassins quite as black in the heart and as dangerous as those who are said to have slain Maceo. Why not begin the great work of humanity and justice at home? After we have put down our armed clans of midnight murderers, our Kurds and Macheteros, if you please, it will then be time enough to test our powers on the outlaws of foreign lands."

Kentucky is one of the oldest of the States, the first to come into the Union after the original thirteen, and yet, by the confession of Kentuckians themselves, the end of more than a century as a commonwealth is a condition scarcely better than general anarchy. Not only life but also property is unsafe. For weeks mobs have been destroying toll-gates and overthrowing vested rights without hindrance from the authorities, while other mobs have been taking men accused of crime from sheriffs and jailers who made little effort to thwart the schemes, and putting them to death. Such outrages as these, the *Courier-Journal* well says, "reflect not only upon the cowards who constitute the mobs, but upon the entire communities in which they take place; for they would soon be checked, if they had not been wholly prevented, were local public sentiment wholly out of sympathy with them." Senator Blackburn is an excellent type of the demagogue who is overflowing with indignation against Spanish outrages upon the Cubans; but what sort of a defence could Blackburn's State make if Spain should address to our Government a protest against the anarchy that prevails in Kentucky and endangers the lives and property of any Spaniards who may settle there?

Mr. John Morley made an address on education, a couple of weeks ago, before a London technical school, in which the casual overflow of his full mind contained many wise and witty things. He began by admitting that speeches on education were among the most tiresome in the world to listen to—as he could testify from having both made and listened to many—and the reason was that there were not two sides to the question. When everybody was agreed about the advantages of education, it was hard work arguing without any opponent. However, a fresh practical turn had been given the subject lately in the alarm over German trade competition, whose formidableness (if real) proceeded from the superior technical education of Germans. But there were signs that the great English manufacturers and captains of industry were awaking to their remissness in this particular, and would speedily remedy it. Still, he thought the difference between the young German business man and the young English business man was not wholly one of advantages to be had in schools. In Germany the young men who were to succeed to the family business were in the habit of travelling and acquiring languages and getting a broad knowledge of the conditions of international commerce. In England it was too often true that the sons of the house passed their waiting and preparatory years in devotion to pleasure—especially to sport. In Germany the father said, "Thank God, I have a son!" In England the son said, "Thank God, I have a father!" There is a great truth in this, though it never dawned on the mind of the author of that alarmist book, 'Made in Germany,' which so frightened Lord Rosebery.

THE TARIFF REOPENING.

Nobody can envy the committee of ways and means the task they have set themselves of "giving hearings" on the tariff. They have (or had) a theory that half-a-dozen well-meaning men in Washington city could put their heads together and construct a tariff affecting some two thousand articles directly, and as many more indirectly, on reasonable principles. Nothing is more beautiful in theory than a judicious tariff such as *we* would make if we were not bothered by other people. But other people will not let us alone. Not only do they come rushing in and taking up our time when we ought to be at work putting our benevolent and disinterested views into shape, but they bring in all sorts of outlandish views. For example, quinine has been free of duty for more than twenty years, and the production of it in this country is greater now than it was before the duty was removed; yet here come the quinine-manufacturers and want to have the "blood tax" renewed. They can give you more reasons for it in one hour than you can answer in six months, because they know all about the business and you know nothing about it except the naked fact that they are making more quinine now than they ever did before; and you end by yielding to them.

Next comes somebody who wants to make chlorate of potash. This has always been on the free list. It is one of the raw materials of several branches of manufacturing industry, such as calico dyeing, blasting-powder, friction matches, etc. This individual thought he could make it without any tariff. He invested $150,000 in the business, hired fifty men, and went to work. The price of chlorate went down and he was obliged to close his works. Now he wants a duty on chlorate of potash to enable him to make a profit. Some folks must pay this, of course, and we happen to know just who they are because he has told us. They are not the millions of consumers, who are not worth considering, because the amount that each one has to pay is so very small, but the calico printers, the blasting-powder men, and the friction-match men. They have protection. Why should they not divide with the chlorate-of-potash man; or, better still, why should not the duties on calico, blasting-powder, and friction matches be raised so as to cover the tax on chlorate of potash? Look at chromate of potash, a first cousin to chlorate of ditto. There is a duty of 25 per cent. on chromate, which so stiff a protectionist as the late William D. Kelley declared to be an outrage. If we have a duty on chromate, we ought to equalize matters by having one on chlorate. Few would think of equalizing the other way—that is, by repealing the duty on chromate. The house that has the monopoly of that article in the United States would find plenty of reasons to the contrary.

Next in the procession comes the cattle-grower, or the butcher, or both, who want a duty on hides. Hides have been on the free list twenty-five years, and not even McKinley dared to offend the boot-and-shoe interest of Massachusetts to the extent of putting a duty of 10 per cent. on them. It was the opinion of shrewd politicians that if hides had been made dutiable at that time, Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge would have been retired to private life. It is not improbable that a similar result would follow a similar measure now, or as soon as Mr. Lodge's present term expires. If anything could prevent it, it would be the direful consequences of having George Fred Williams in his place. A correspondence is published between J. R. Leeson, President of the Boston Merchants' Association, and Congressman Joseph H. Walker on the subject of the proposed duty on hides, which shows that such a duty is seriously contemplated, and that it would, as Mr. Leeson says, "do more to alienate confidence in the management of the Republican party than possibly any other single fact throughout this entire section." Mr. Walker seems to admit this, but he thinks, nevertheless, that there is much to be said on the other side. In order to make protection consistent with itself, the hide-producer must have his share. If he has not had his innings for twenty-five years, perhaps that is an added reason why he should have them now. Evidently Mr. Walker would like to have this cup pass from him, but if he must drink it, he will—for the sake of principle. We note this proposed duty on hides as perhaps the most ominous thing in the whole list, not excepting wool. There are not many people in Massachusetts, or in the leather-producing interest of the country, who take the same view of the principle that Mr. Walker takes. They will say that the principle of tariff and trade in general is to get one's bread and butter; and that whatever takes bread and butter away from them is a false principle.

There are many others in the procession who will call for comment as the hearings proceed. The only additional one that we have room for now is anthracite coal. Anthracite has been on the free list for twenty-six years. It was put there because we were the only producers of the article on a commercial scale in the world. But latterly anthracite has been found in the Rocky Mountains on the line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, in Peru, and in some other places of convenient access to the San Francisco market, to which it is introduced free of duty. In fact, it is carried thither from Swansea, Wales, as return cargo of grain-carrying ships. The necessity of putting up the price of coal in San Francisco for the principle of the thing is obvious. So we are to have a serious and sober argument (as serious and sober as Mr. Walker's on the subject of hides) in favor of a duty on anthracite coal. Time must not be counted against this any more than against the other.

In good earnest, these hearings are probably the greatest scandal connected with the whole tariff system. There is hardly a rule of evidence or of good morals which they do not violate. In the first place, the witnesses are not examined on oath, so that they can make any statement, however false or reckless, without fear of penal consequences, and nevertheless the object of these hearings is to furnish a basis for legislation. In the next place, they are interested witnesses; that is, they have a strong pecuniary interest in the effect they produce on the mind of the committee. In other words, a well-told lie or exaggeration may bring them great wealth. In the third place, they are examined in the absence of the opposing party. The consumers, whose interest it is that the protectionists should not get what they want, are not represented at all. It may be said they might be represented if they chose, but few consumers have a direct interest in the tariff. The possible effect on prices is in each individual case too small to warrant the expense of going to Washington and staying there, and the vexation of appearing before a hostile committee to be worried and browbeaten by the high-tariff men. This fact alone ought to make the committee an investigating committee acting solely in behalf of the country at large. This the committee never is. It sits, not to ascertain whether a manufacturer ought to have any protection at all, or to inquire into his reasons by the methods of a hostile or suspicious cross-examiner, but as friendly patrons to take his own account of the amount of protection he needs. It must be remembered that the presumption is against any protection at all. The right to buy and sell where he pleases is the *prima-facie* civic right of every human being. If this right should be for any reason curtailed or taken away, the burden of showing that this curtailment or abolition is just or necessary is on the person proposing it; and when he proposes it for his own private profit, no cross-examination can be too severe for him. We did hope that after the scare of last summer this scandal would not reappear.

THE INDIANAPOLIS CONVENTION.

It is understood that twenty delegates will go from New York and an equal number from Brooklyn to the coming Indianapolis convention, all of them being appointed by organized commercial bodies. Philadelphia and Boston will be represented in like manner. The movement, although exclusively Western in origin, has attracted the attention of the East in such a way as to insure all the participation and coöperation here that could be desired. The dominant feeling among the originators of the movement, and among all who are now taking an in-

terest in it, is that unless those who won the victory in the recent campaign improve the opportunity by putting our monetary system on a firm foundation, so that it will "go alone," the other side will take that work out of our hands and put it on a very different foundation. What it will be, nobody can now tell, but it will probably be something even worse than silver at 16 to 1. At all events it will not stop after touching that goal. If the friends of sound money do not find out what they want and make the effort to reach it, they will be left behind in the election of 1898, and still more so in that of 1900.

The fact that prosperity has not come to the extent expected must be faced. The reason why it has not—one of the reasons at all events—is that the situation has not changed except in the one particular that the Bryanites were defeated for the time being. Everything else stands exactly as before. The party that supported Bryan is in full panoply ready for another bout. The game of 16 to 1 is only adjourned four years, perhaps not so long. The business community on both sides of the water know this, and they will use the intervening time to fortify themselves for it. They will govern themselves by the prospect, as they see it, of the security and certainty of investments. If public opinion and legislation move in the direction of sound money, the spirit of enterprise will revive. If not, the torpor of the past will supervene, and the Republican party will be answerable, as it ought to be, for the consequences. So far as the politicians are concerned, they have thus far shown themselves absolutely helpless. It is not to be supposed that they are unwilling to do something to get the country and themselves out of the present rut: they simply don't know what to do. They have been "doing something for silver" so long that they cannot think of anything else now but another international conference, which is very much like taking a hair of the dog to cure the bite. They need an impulse from behind to prompt them to an imperative duty.

The present financial needs of the country could not be formulated more clearly and concisely than they have been in Mr. Carlisle's recent report. One paragraph especially ought to be burned into the thoughts of all men who are in any way responsible for the business prosperity of the land. A part of this we reprint, viz.:

"So long as the United States notes remain in circulation, questions as to the mode and manner of their redemption, and as to the means of procuring and maintaining a coin reserve for that purpose, will be made political issues; and so long as these questions remain in politics, public confidence in the stability of our currency must be more or less disturbed. Even if the agitation of these questions affected only the value of United States notes, the consequences would be sufficiently serious to justify a demand for their permanent retirement; but the character of our currency is such that whatever creates a doubt or suspicion concerning their prompt redemption in gold, on presentation, necessarily impairs confidence in the whole volume of our circulation, and inflicts much greater injury upon the public than could possibly result from the failure of ordinary banking institutions to redeem their paper. Every menace to the gold reserve, and every manifestation of a formidable public sentiment in favor of the redemption of our notes otherwise than in gold coin, at once alarms the whole business community, depresses trade and industry, and impairs the value of our public and private securities in all the markets of the world."

From this undeniable premise he argues the absolute necessity of retiring these disturbing notes and getting rid of them, not by hoarding them in the Treasury, where they constitute an ever-present temptation to extravagance in public expenditures, to currency inflation, and to renewed gold exports, but by blotting them out of existence.

Under present arrangements the Government is responsible for the gold reserve of the nation. In other words, it has assumed a banking function of the highest importance without having the means which banks possess of providing themselves with gold when the demand for it arises. A gold reserve belongs to the mercantile machinery of a nation, of which banks constitute a part. By means of their discounts and deposits the banks are enabled to procure gold when they need it, and to let it go when they do not need it. Such a method of regulating the reserve is in use in all countries except ours, and was in use here until we fell into our present Slough of Despond, in consequence of a war that ended more than thirty years ago. With us the gold reserve can be replenished only by selling bonds; and whether bonds shall be sold or not at any time depends on politics—that is, it depends on politics whether public and private bankruptcy shall supervene at any time or not. Just now the state of politics is such that bankruptcy may be forced at any time by an excess of expenditures over receipts, since there is no power to pass a bill for increasing the revenue, although everybody says that more is needed. This is over and above the ordinary difficulty of maintaining the reserve—the difficulty due to greater or less demand for gold to meet the requirements of international trade.

The aim of the Indianapolis convention is to give direction and strength to public opinion in favor of taking the Government out of the banking business, to formulate a plan for that purpose, and to form an organization to fight for it. It deserves the support of all intelligent, public-spirited, patriotic citizens.

A MACHINE CHARTER.

It is intimated by the committee which has prepared the proposed charter for the greater city of New York that they have designed a system of administration which will "render the city self-governing," that they have endowed it, "in general and in detail, with every right, power, and privilege essential to municipal independence, subject to the sovereignty of the State." When their work is examined, nothing of this kind can be discovered. They have created a new municipal assembly, of 141 members, and say they have proposed for it a "multiplicity of powers," but when those powers are examined they are found to be so restricted as to be deprived almost entirely of the self-governing or home-rule idea. Thus, the first principle of self-government is control of expenditures, of appropriations. The new Assembly has no power over these whatever beyond the power to cut down an appropriation fixed by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. It cannot increase or enlarge any item, nor insert a new one. It can put in operation no new plan of public work, involving the expenditure of over a million dollars, without first submitting it to a vote of the people.

Moreover, for this Assembly two houses are proposed, a lower one of 104 members elected from senatorial districts, and an upper one of 36 members to be elected from council districts, with a President to be chosen on a general ticket. These council districts are to be ten in number, of which five are within the present city of New York, and these five are to elect 20 of the members. Brooklyn is to have three districts, with 12 members, and the remaining sections are to have four members. The members of both houses are to be chosen for two years, all to go out at the expiration of their terms. They are given powers which we have been forced to take away from our present Board of Aldermen, but certain restrictions are added to the exercise of them. The assumption of the commission seems to be that, by increasing the size of this municipal body, its quality can be improved. All experience points to the contrary conclusion, for, in so large a body as this would be, responsibility would be more difficult to place than ever. What the quality of the lower house would be we can judge by the quality of our present boards. That the upper house would differ much from this is very doubtful, considering the way in which it is to be chosen. If all its members were to be elected on a general ticket, there might be hope of improvement, but, with the district division proposed, it is not easy to see how much improvement could be expected. Then, too, if the upper house is to act as a check on the lower, and is to attract a better type of legislator, the term ought to be longer than that of the lower house. No great city in the world with a successful system of administration has a municipal assembly constituted on such principles as this one is.

Under this Municipal Assembly, again, and more or less distinct from it and independent in action, are several great administrative departments, each with powers of its own. Then, too, there are five boroughs and twenty-two local boards,

all with powers of their own, as well as powers which they share with the Municipal Assembly. Was there ever such a complex system of divided responsibility as this? First we have the State Legislature at Albany, with sovereign powers over local or municipal matters. Then we have the Municipal Assembly, which in its composition will be simply another Legislature, with certain powers, more or less restricted, but all subordinate to the State body. Then we have thirty or more other smaller bodies, working under both the State and the municipal bodies, with some independent powers of their own. How would the people ever be able to fix responsibility for any particular act upon anybody? It would be passed from one to the other in a way that would delight the soul of every political trickster in the city. In fact, nothing more delightful in the shape of irresponsible or political machine rule could be devised. The Boys could carry on their operations amid constant roars of laughter, for no reformer would ever be able to pin one of them down to responsibility for a single act.

What the charter proposes to do is to magnify and aggravate incalculably the evils of legislative rule from which the city suffers now. Instead of one Legislature we should have two, nearly equal in size and undoubtedly similar in the quality of membership. What boundless possibilities of log-rolling these two would possess, with the local political bosses of the borough and district boards all working together to put through jobs for their own benefit! This city, with its great wealth, would be the object of all attacks, and we should find the boroughs of the Bronx, Brooklyn, Richmond, and Queens combining against that of Manhattan with a regularity that would make our taxpayers regret that a Greater New York was ever conceived.

It is impossible to find in this elaborate scheme for divided responsibility anything except a plan for purely partisan government. What is proposed is the creation of a state within a state, under such conditions as will give the politicians who now rule us from Albany greater powers and opportunities than they enjoy at present. If we could have a state of our own here, with real and full self-governing powers, we should all have reason to rejoice, but this is the last thing which the machine politicians of the State at large desire. They want to keep the wealth of the great cities at this end of the State in their power, in order to fleece them for the benefit of the other sections of it; but they should have a care lest, by making a subordinate state here now, they pave the way for separation hereafter when the evils of rule from Albany shall become too grievous to be tolerated longer.

The whole spirit of the new charter is revealed, in fact, in the bi-partisan police board provision. It is this spirit which appears in the elaborate system of divided responsibility, and we are sure also it will be found in nearly or quite all other provisions when these shall have been subjected to expert examination. Lauterbach has found it there, for he says it is a charter for which the people should be deeply grateful, and that he is sure it will be adopted by the Legislature virtually unchanged. Lexow has found it also, for he says it will be "hustled through" the Legislature without delay. This will be the result unless the people of the city who really care for good government, and think that the enlarged city should have the best measure of such government possible, decide to assert their right to be heard in the matter.

A PRINCE OF IMPOSTORS.

One of the most extraordinary cases of successful mendicancy on record was brought to light in a trial which came to an end in London on December 17. It was an action for damages for libel brought against Mr. Labouchere of *Truth*. The plaintiff was one Brooks, formerly a Nonconformist minister, but for the past eight years a swindler and impostor of amazing effrontery and still more amazing success. By means of begging-letters and other forms of fraudulent pretence, he had obtained in the course of seven or eight years no less a sum than $40,000. He lived in fine style, setting up a carriage and pair, with horses besides for his wife and daughter, and keeping several servants, gardeners, grooms, etc. Finally, his impudence growing by what it fed on, he made a dead set at Mr. Balfour, and succeeded in wheedling out of that astute First Lord of the Treasury a grant of $1,000 a year from the national fund for deserving authors. Thus brought before the public eye, he was also brought before the eye of *Truth*, in the columns of which journal he was mercilessly shown up. Hence his libel suit, and hence his complete snuffing out when the case was heard.

He had to undergo a cross-examination at the hands of Sir Frank Lockwood, and the career of imposture, fraud, and canting hypocrisy he was forced to confess to, so long continued and so astounding in its results, can scarcely have been rivalled since Cagliostro's day. He began as a fierce Radical in politics. One of his early letters averred that "trusting to the mercy of a landowner is like trusting to the honor of a brigand or the mercy of a tiger." Asked by Sir Frank if that was his style, he replied, "That's my Radical style." But his Radical style brought in little money, and he soon saw a great light and became the stiffest kind of a Tory. Pressed as to where he got the addresses of the thousand gentlemen to whom he sent out his letters, he finally admitted that they came out of Debrett. It was mainly with the quality he dealt, and it must be confessed the quality came down handsomely. Like our Tammany statesmen, Mr. Brooks kept several banking accounts, and their production in court showed balances of from $600 to $3,000 at the very moment he was assuring the dukes and first lords that he had not a penny to live on. Of course, he was always engaged in a "great work" of some sort. Now it was an elaborate refutation of Socialism—this appears to have been what caught Mr. Balfour. Then it was a work in defence of the Constitution—"Your own constitution, I presume you mean?" interjected Sir Frank Lockwood. Brooks was an author and very fond of authors. One of his benevolent schemes was to found a home for decayed authors. He certainly did it in the case of one author. A part of his defence was that he had earned a good deal of money by his pen. Thus, he read one item from his private accounts: "Magazine article, 'Why I Became a Liberal Unionist,' £18." "Is that question and answer?" interposed the nimble Sir Frank.

Brooks did, in fact, a good deal in the political line. His pious hatred of home rule seems to have been worth thousands of pounds to him. He got up some sort of a conference in Glasgow with "ministers and farmers" in the interest of Scottish agriculture. This netted Brooks £350, but what good it did Scottish agriculture does not appear. The fellow actually came to this country to "investigate social questions"—his expenses and salary paid, of course, by certain gentlemen "interested in social movements." But he compliments our shrewdness by saying in his testimony that he "soon found that he was too much of an Englishman to get on comfortably with the people of the United States." Nevertheless he wrote his article on the United States, and it naturally attracted a "great deal of attention," one earl even having "pointedly referred to it."

One cannot but be struck, in reading the names of Brooks's victims, with the extraordinary array of bimetallists that figure in it. There is Mr. Balfour to begin with. Brooks had a whole series of letters from him about his "work." These were not allowed in evidence, which is a pity. They would have been a good commentary on the foundations of Mr. Balfour's belief, both social and economic. A statesman taken in by so arrant a knave is hardly the man to deal successfully with what Bagehot called "the commerce of imperceptibles." Then there was that other tower of strength to the bimetallists, Mr. Lidderdale. Brooks had marked him out for an easy prey. So he had the other great authority, Hucks Gibbs. This is the sort of stuff he wrote to him:

"While meditating to-day, this Sunday morning, on the exceeding goodness of God, it was borne in upon me that I should apply to you for assistance for the execution of my literary work, which is done with the object of advancing the glory of God, to whom I have dedicated my pen. I am wholly without

money, and am entirely dependent on my pen."

Does not the fact that a man could be caught by such transparent humbug argue that there is something wrong with his head? The fine lot of bimetallists that Mr. Brooks bagged is a strong corroboration of our ancient thesis that bimetallism is, in many of its victims, a form of mental strabismus. Moreton Frewen escaped Brooks, but this was doubtless only because he was not in Debrett and was in this country.

Short work was made of the lying prince of begging-letter writers by the jury. They would not even hear him out, but found for Mr. Labouchere, with costs, without leaving their seats. So Brooks will probably give up his carriage and his work for the nobility and turn Radical again. His success for eight long years is an appalling thing, and his final exposure ought to serve a useful end. The moment one of his lying letters was turned over to the Charity Organization League, the man was investigated, and his whole scheme of hypocrisy and fraud laid bare; yet think of the easy way in which he laid his hands upon $40,000 of the money of the charitable. The only defence left them is the one that Mr. Howells urges for indiscriminate and unblinking charity—namely, that it makes the giver "feel good."

THE HOLY MOUNTAIN.

ALLAHABAD, November 12, 1896.

INDIA is a very uncomfortable country, but so interesting that one does not notice discomfort until there is leisure to think about it. This year is worse than common. Drought makes every road a river of dust; other rivers are dried up. Grain is poor as well as scarce, and garden products are sapless. As for food, the traveller is in a bad way. If he eats meat or fruit, he is threatened with cholera; if grain or vegetables, he is reminded that the bubonic pest (which is fatal, though the hotel-keepers discreetly allude to it as the *chota bimâli*, "little sickness" of Bombay) chiefly affects vegetarians. Fish is forbidden by taste as well as by prudence. Milk must be rigorously eschewed, and butter is not less baneful. Bread and tea are both poor stuff in India, and water of course is always dangerous. The only good and sure thing is whiskey. The Anglo-Indians have, indeed, two curious theories in regard to *bilâti pâni*, "soda water"; first, that if whiskey (brandy is now tabued) be added to it, every deleterious effect of the water will be offset; and, second, that, if allowed to stand a few days, the soda water becomes harmless, no matter what its source: "The impurities settle to the bottom of the bottle." "Including the germs?" I asked. "Germs," said my informant, an English officer, "are a figment of the physicians." What with natives who will not be segregated when attacked by the plague, and Europeans who will drink soda water made out of the local stagnant pool, it is no wonder that the shrines of the disease gods are reaping the only harvest of the year, and that a few Europeans have lately died of cholera. The autumn's temperature has been abnormal, though for an American 95° to 100° in the shade is still quite endurable, but it is moderating and now seldom goes over 90° at noon. It is the sudden drop to 45° at night that affects the health.

Apropos of the famine (for when the price of grain is advanced from 100 to 200 per cent. the expected famine may fairly be said to have arrived), a curious instance of the relations between Government and the natives was unwittingly recorded this week by the Government organ, the *Pioneer*. On one page the reader was told that Lord Elgin, the Viceroy, in the course of a facetious after-dinner speech made at Ulwur, said that, although he had been advised to give up his annual tour of inspection and devote himself to the work of relieving starvation, yet he should not do so, for there was as yet, so far as he could see, "no famine at all"; in confirmation of which he read a telegram from "some one" which stated that there was no real distress. On the next page of the same paper it was reported that several wretched creatures in the central provinces had been found too weak to make use of anything save cooked food; that they were dying of starvation, and not a few had perished ere their friends (they themselves being too listless to make the effort) could convert into food the tardy coins destined for their relief. The Viceroy spoke largely of his "duty of inspection," but, though it is doubtless true that the tour is not wholly one of pleasure, the account of junkets, dinners, shows, and illuminations (at Ulwur the Viceroy spent the whole evening "enjoying the brilliant spectacle") is not calculated to make more loyal the impoverished natives, who are already restless and discontented with English "indifference."

That Government has refused to limit in any way the export of grain, and adheres strictly to the principle of non-interference with trade, is another popular grievance; but this is a question of polity, which may be defended. The result, however, as the natives point out in very strong language, is that nothing now can check the rapacity of the crafty *bunnias*, dealers, who hold their grain, sell it by handfuls, and daily force up the price, hoping that it may not rain, while every one else in India is praying that it may, speedily withal; for, given water within a fortnight, and famine may be averted; but otherwise—and as yet there are no indications of rain—there will be a sad tale to tell of the coming year.

Of these things, when I sat down, I did not intend to write, but out of the fulness of the heart the mouth naturally speaketh of the present rather than of the past; and the present condition of India, not only in respect of material needs but also as regards her changing attitude toward England, is one of absorbing interest. It were easy to be indiscreet, and for the nonce I shall say no more on this point, except this, that there is more thought than is spoken, and that the annual "Indian Congress" but faintly reflects the feelings of high-caste Hindus. As an American I have received confidences from lips that were sealed or gave only smiling answers as long as I was supposed to be English; and from these confidences it has become clear that the sentiments voiced by the "truculent Bengalese," as English papers style them, are not confined to any one district of India, but, if they have found no loud echo, are already reëchoing softly in the hearts of all the people.

I have endeavored to obtain some information in regard to the moribund trade-guilds of Gujarat, but my notes are not yet sufficiently systematized. I found, however, as I expected, that Rajputana showed a less developed organization of guilds. Strictly speaking, these corporations are not guilds but trade-unions, both in Rajputana and in Gujarat. Though I must reserve till another time a discussion of these antique unions, let me give of the powers assumed by them one amusing example, which I got the other-day from Dhraugodar in Kathiawar. It appears that two or three years ago cholera broke out in this little state, starting among a colony of sweepers. The Mahâjans, or chief men of all the unions, thereupon assembled together and decided that the sweepers had been exercising bad magic, and that, to remove the evil spirit of disease, the culprits' homes must be burned. The Mahâjans then marched in a body to the sweepers' quarter and personally set fire to the latter's houses, which were destroyed. No one thought of making a stand against the Mahâjans, not even the sweepers, till some meddling European informed the sorcerers that they could get damages in court. Eventually the Mahâjans were amerced in the estimated value of the burned buildings, and the fine was paid out of the local funds of the union. It is evident that a few years ago this last act in the comedy would never have been played. The Mahâjans ruled the town. The sum paid out of the funds as a fine was entered in the account-book of the union as "moneys disbursed for the suppression of cholera"; and the joke after all was rather with the Mahâjans, for the drastic means employed actually stopped the cholera!

To visit the Holy Mountain of the Jains, which rises steeply above the plain of Palitana, was one of the secondary objects of my trip to Kathiawar. I was informed that few Englishmen and no American had ever before ascended the Holy Mountain, and though the latter statement is doubtless incorrect, yet the necessary preliminary—a long, tedious, and dusty drive in a *shigram*, or bullock-cart—has probably prevented most tourists from abandoning the railroad and taking the journey across the plain to Palitana; so I may perhaps venture to hope that to many of your readers a description of this wonderful town may prove of interest.

The river Shatrunjaya waters, or tries to water, a broad prairie. Over this rises a lofty double crested hill, from the summit of which one can see the Gulf of Cambay to the east, to the southwest the veiled form of the giant of the Gir; while west and northwest stretches a vast plain; but southwards lesser hills modify the abruptness with which, as one approaches from the north, the Holy Mountain seems to spring directly out of the low level beneath it. On this mountain is the silent city of the gods. From crest to crest, and filling all the cup between, are streets and squares of temples, while around them all circles the high wall which guards the whole. Save the few priests, who daily tend the gods, no man lives there. At sundown the only gate closes behind the last pilgrim, as he is hurried through the battlemented rampart, and the Holy Mountain is left to the divinities and their appointed servants. The city is one huge sanctuary, for within it no layman is permitted to eat or drink. At the very gate of the town itself, as elsewhere at the gate of a temple, the shoes must be put off. One enters quietly among the gods. The accompanying priest speaks in low tones; there is no bustle within or noise of any kind, save the tinkle of temple bells, the soft twit-

tering of birds about the door, and the fervent prayer of some passionate pilgrim kneeling before his chosen shrine and calling on his god, as he sways his body backwards, and again forwards till his forehead rests upon the marble floor. The long streets of individual temples are broken only by great courts, each having a separate wall and gate, and fashioned within after the type of Hindu houses. One grand temple rises in the middle of each court, while little jewelled shrines line all the sides.

The effect of the whole is impressive but peculiar. The place seems not so much like a city of living gods as like a cemetery of the dead. And some of these gods are indeed dead, for even the Five Pandavas, the heroes of the great Epic, have here a temple, and stand up in a row, very fierce and straight, with their mother and mutual wife on either side. But they get no flowers now. On the other hand, although most of the temples are devoted to the deceased Tîrthankars, or Saints of the Jains, yet there is a pleasing catholicity about this modern pantheon, and in fact one of the shrines most frequented is a Mohammedan tomb, while a Shivaite goddess has perhaps the most popular porch of all; so that the mountain is holy to Jain and Mussulman, Shivaite and Vishnuite alike, and the gods of the latter-sects are as alive now as ever they were.

The finest temples here are naturally those built by the Jains, and these afford a good opportunity to study historically Jain architecture, which differs almost as much from the ordinary Hindu temple architecture as it does from that of the Mussulmans. The priest that accompanied me said that the earliest temples on the mountain were built about 8000 before the Christian era, and that is as near as one usually gets to an exact date when one asks a native. The oldest of these shrines dates in fact from the eleventh century A. D., and the place was evidently used at first as a refuge and defence, what time the Mussulmans swept Kathiawar and ravaged rich Somnath. All these marble and inlaid palaces are kept in good repair, and it is still fashionable for wealthy Jains to erect here and there new shrines; but the place is already so crowded that few more can be built, and I noticed that one of the latest temples is erecting on the road up the mountain. If devotion continues, there will doubtless be in course of time a row of stately temples from the bottom to the top of the Holy Mountain.

As the morning advanced and the sun began to pour directly down upon the glittering pavements and flash reflected from every marble wall, the temperature grew unbearable. Each narrow lane of shining stone became an open oven, wherein the passenger struggled against glare and heat, but felt that he was approaching dissolution. I gave at last the order to descend, and, after being decorated with a garland of flowers, graciously offered to me by the courteous attendant (terms cash), got into the *dooly*, a swinging seat borne on the shoulders of four coolies, and descended to the plain below, where even then, though it was still early, great heat waves seemed to undulate in misty whiteness across the arid waste: but it was only the glare and dust ascending.

This letter, I fear, is overgrown already, but may I add to its heterogeneous contents two rather interesting philological items? As is well known, the addition of *eka*, 'one,' to ten or hundred is often said to give a "depreciatory" sense to the Sanskrit numeral. Now I am not aware that this has been brought into connection with a fact in modern Hindustani, to wit, that *das-ek* does not mean 'eleven' (this is *igârah*), but 'about ten.' May not the older meaning also have been not "depreciatory" but simply indefinite? The second item is a fact I observed in the vicinity of Bhaunagar. In this State, pure Gujarati is spoken in the capital, but every village has its local dialect. In Bhaunagar city the Sanskrit initial *s* remains intact, as it does everywhere in pure Gujarati, but among the villages in the neighborhood it is the practice to substitute for this *s* the *spiritus asper*. Thus, for *samjânte*, 'Do you understand?' the villagers say *hamjânte*, making the same change as obtained regularly in Avestan and occurred on occasion in Greek.

E. Washburn Hopkins.

JEAN FOUQUET.

Paris, December 18, 1896.

M. Gruyer, a member of our Academy of Fine Arts, published last year, at this period, the first volume of his description of the picture galleries of Chantilly. This magnificent volume, illustrated with fine photogravures, was dedicated entirely to the foreign schools. M. Gruyer promised to give us another volume on the French School, which is so magnificently represented at Chantilly. He found out that one volume would not suffice; in all likelihood three volumes will be necessary.

This year a single painter has filled the volume which M. Gruyer now offers for our admiration. Jean Fouquet occupies the first place among our French *primitifs;* his work was considerable, but it has become very rare. The Duke d'Aumale has been so fortunate as to be able to add to his collection of French painters no less than forty authentic paintings of this old master. "Les Quarante Fouquet" are famous miniatures, which were detached two centuries ago from a book of Hours, made for Étienne Chevalier, Treasurer of France in the reign of Charles VII. Each of these large miniatures is a picture in itself, a composition with numerous figures and with a dramatic effect. The photogravures in M. Gruyer's book have, of course, not the ideal charm which is found in the miniatures themselves, so remarkable for their color; in them we can appreciate only the beauty of the composition, the variety of the attitudes, the expressions of the personages. We lose much, yet enough is left to give a true idea of the genius of the painter.

About Jean Fouquet himself we really know very little. He was born between 1410 and 1425 (it is impossible to give the date with exactitude) in Touraine. The city of Tours and the landscapes of Touraine, "the garden of France," as it was then called, are constantly found in his landscapes. It is evident that he learned his art from the Flemish painters, the masters of Bruges, who had acclimatized their naturalistic art in the Duchy of Burgundy; but it is also evident that he learned much from Italy. M. Henri Bouchot, in the *Gazette des Beaux Arts*, has recognized the hand of Jean Fouquet in some miniatures of the 'Bible Moralisée.' These miniatures seem to have drawn the King's attention to Fouquet, then a young man, and to have led to the making of the King's portrait now in the Louvre. It represents Charles VII., about the age of forty, in the year 1444; already worn and old-looking. The Pope sent for Fouquet in 1445, and also wished to have his portrait painted by the French artist. It was Eugene IV., who had just reëntered Rome after his expulsion in 1434 by the populace, at the instigation of the Colonnas. This portrait, which must have been very interesting, as Eugene IV. was represented in company with two dignitaries of the Papal Court, was placed in the sacristry of the church of Minerva; it remained there till the middle of the eighteenth century. Nobody knows what has become of it since that time. After he left Rome, Fouquet remained some time at Florence, where he became acquainted with Gentile da Fabriano, of whom Michael Angelo said that his style was as sweet as his name, and where he was able to study the pictures and the drawings of Vittore Pisano.

On his return to France, Fouquet found at once a most powerful patron in the person of Étienne Chevalier, who ordered him to paint a diptych for the Church of Notre Dame, at Melun, in memory of his wife, Catherine Budé, whom he had lost some time before, and who was buried in that church. Étienne Chevalier owed his fortune to Agnes Sorel, the famous mistress of the King; he had always remained a friend of hers, and was chosen by her as the executor of her will. He buried her, according to her will, at Loches, the place nearest to the village of Fromenteau, where the favorite was born. One of the sides of the diptych shows the Virgin Mary, with the features of Agnes Sorel; the other is the portrait of Étienne Chevalier, with his patron Saint Stephen at his side. At the same time Chevalier ordered Fouquet to illustrate for him a book of Hours, in which Jesus Christ, the Virgin, and the Saints were to be glorified. This work occupied the painter for nearly ten years, from 1452 to 1460. It marks the finest period of the life of the painter, and is a real monument of art. The influence of Italy is clearly felt in it. If its heavy furs, hats, and accoutrements remind one still of the Flemish school, Italy is easily recognized in its porticoes, pilasters, domes, in its groups of angels which take the mind back to the purest pre-Raphaelite schools. The anatomy of the bodies is still a little cold and dry, but there is a marked effort toward the exact reproduction of nature.

Charles VII. died on July 22, 1461, and his successor, Louis XI., cared very little for art, and was occupied only with ambitious schemes. Fortunately for Fouquet, Chevalier outlived Charles VII. seven years, and continued to protect the painter to the end. In 1469 Fouquet illustrated for him a Boccaccio which is one of the jewels of the Royal Library at Munich. M. Gruyer cites carefully the following works of Fouquet: the Hours made for Jean Moreau, a citizen of Tours, and those of Marie de Clèves, Duchess of Orleans. Both are lost for the present, but they may some day emerge from an unknown library.

Fouquet began in 1458, by order of Charles VII., an illustration of the 'Great Chronicles of France.' We possess in the National Library at Paris these Chronicles, in which Fouquet appears as a painter of battles, and shows us Paris during the struggle between the Bourguignons and the Armagnacs, with its gibbet of Monfaucon, its tower of the Templars, Tours surrounded by its walls. Unfortunately the 'Great Chronicles' extend no further than the beginning of the reign of Charles VII.; we can therefore not look in this work for Joan of Arc and her romantic exploits. In 1470, Louis XI. founded a new order of chivalry, the order of Saint-Michael;

and on this occasion he had his portrait painted by Fouquet, surrounded by the new knights. Shall we call it a portrait? "We know," says M. Gruyer, "that Louis XI. did what he pleased with his portrait painters. Once he charged Colin of Amiens with this task, ordering him to suppress wrinkles and whatever was ugly and old, to give him an aquiline nose, a round face, hair in abundance. He asked him to paint very minutely the insignia of the Order of Saint-Michael, to take particular pains with his coat, his hunting-boots, and his horn. And this is what we call 'historical evidence'!" The legendary face of Louis XI. is so different from the portrait by Fouquet that the latter was for a long time taken for the portrait of Louis XII.

Jacques d'Armagnac, Duke de Nemours, was also one of the great patrons of Fouquet. It was for him that he made the illustrations for the 'Antiquities' of Josephus. The Duke de Nemours was beheaded in 1477 at the age of forty years; his daughter, Catherine d'Armagnac, married the Duke de Bourbon, and the last admirable work of Fouquet thus came into the possession of the house of Bourbon. It is now in the National Library at Paris. After the tragic death of the Duke de Nemours, Fouquet lived three years longer at Tours, where he died in 1480.

The Hours painted by Fouquet for Étienne Chevalier show us in three miniatures the portrait of the Treasurer of France; and his initials, E. C., are spread everywhere in this incomparable work. Gaignières, the famous collector, had copies made of them and of the portrait of Charles VII. for a great collection which bears his name and is in the National Library. The manuscript was mutilated only towards 1700. Forty great miniatures were bought at Bâle by George Brentano La Roche of Frankfort, and are now framed and hung in the galleries of Chantilly. Besides these only four more are known; two are in the museum of the Louvre; the third was found in 1881 by M. George Duplessis, the keeper of our gallery of engravings at the National Library, and offered by the Duke de la Trémoille to this library; the fourth was in the collections of the poet Rogers, and was offered by him to the British Museum. It is not impossible that a few others may be found hereafter.

M. Gruyer describes with great minuteness the forty miniatures of Chantilly, and enters into many interesting details on their subjects. The first shows Étienne Chevalier and his patron saint attended by angels and doing homage to the Virgin and the infant Jesus. "Under the brush of Jean Fouquet, we see the art of the Middle Ages giving way to the art of the Italian Renaissance." If the dress, the attitudes, the instruments of music of the angels recall to us the statues of the cathedrals of the Middle Ages, the Italian Renaissance triumphs in a portico with gilt woodwork, in pilasters of the Corinthian order, in the various details of architectures, in the genii which smile over a cornice, holding in their hands garlands of foliage and fruit. We see at once that Fouquet found all the elements of his decoration in the churches of Florence; he remembers Brunelleschi and Michelozzo. We see in almost all these charming miniatures the happy marriage of the traditions of the Middle Ages and of the reviving admiration for the pure and magnificent works of antiquity. As M. Gruyer says: "Jean Fouquet, though he has his domicile on the banks of the Loire, always lives in thought on the banks of the Tiber and the Arno."

Those who, after having admired the exact reproductions obtained by the modern processes of the forty miniatures of Fouquet, read the pages which M. Gruyer writes on each of them, will have much to learn from one who has made it the object of his life to study the Italian and the French schools, and will admire also the historical knowledge which has enabled him to make many interesting remarks on the work of the painter of Charles VII. and Louis XI.

Correspondence.

A MEMORIAL TO THOMAS HUGHES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may interest some of your readers to know that a subscription has been started in England to erect a permanent memorial to the late Thomas Hughes, Q. C., author of 'School Days at Rugby.' A meeting of old Rugbeians was held in the Jerusalem Chamber at Westminster, on June 10, when the following resolutions were passed:

"That a personal and permanent memorial to Tom Hughes should be established at Rugby; that the subscription list should be opened to the friends and admirers of Tom Hughes all the world over; that the first object to which subscriptions should be applied should be a life-size statue of Tom Hughes by a first-rate sculptor, and that any surplus of subscriptions after the provision of the statue should be devoted to assisting the Home Mission work identified with Rugby."

A committee headed by the Rt. Hon. G. J. Goschen is in charge of the work. They have ascertained that such a statue as is desired may be procured for £1,800. Subscriptions may be sent to the "Tom Hughes Memorial Fund" at Messrs. Prescott, Dimsdale & Co., 50 Cornhill, E. C., London. The writings of Thomas Hughes have exercised so extensive and healthy an influence in the United States, that it hardly can be doubted that many Americans will feel like responding to this call. On the circular in my possession subscriptions are announced of all amounts from £100 to half-a-crown—that is, from $500 to sixty cents. It is not improbable that this appeal has already been brought to the notice of the American friends of Hughes; but the circular reached my hands only a short time ago.

I may add that the Rugby School Mission, in which Tom Hughes was greatly interested, is doing admirable work in London and Birmingham among the lowest class of boys.

William Everett.

Quincy, Mass., December 22, 1896.

A CASE OF PIRACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to call attention, through your columns, to a new development in the pirate's trade in the United States? In 1894 Messrs. Macmillan published in their "Cranford" series a version of 'Æsop's Fables,' retold by myself, with introduction and notes derived for the most part from my larger edition in the "Bibliothèque de Carabas." The book was intended for children (and their parents), and was illustrated by Mr. T. Heighway.

I have recently come across an entirely unauthorized reprint of this work, reproducing by some photographic process the whole work except the notes, and professing to be published by a Boston firm, which modestly veils its identity under the title of "The Rodgers Company" (significant name—why not the "Jolly Roger Company"?).

So far all is according to the professional etiquette of the pirate. But it is, I think, unusual with him to entirely remove all reference to the author's name, as has been done in the present instance. One cannot, perhaps, be surprised if some publishers fly the Jolly Roger, but they might not, at least, change the ship's name.—Yours faithfully,

Joseph Jacobs.

December 28, 1896.

THE BIOGRAPHIC TERROR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Augustus J. C. Hare's 'Story of My Life' occurs the following sentence: "It would be interesting to know if we are entering on a series of biographies and autobiographies of which the terrible frankness of this and Purcell's 'Manning' and Hamerton's autobiography are notable examples." There is no question that, from the æsthetic standpoint, such books are to be condemned; but can the same be said from the ethical point of view? Many a man whose moral character is weak is kept reasonably close to the path of rectitude by the fear that a wide deviation therefrom may become publicly known. For the same reason most men refrain from public display of infirmities of temper. The restraining force of public opinion is all the stronger if it sits in judgment upon a man not only during his life, but after he has passed away. If a man knows the weak points of his own character, he will probably take the necessary precaution to prevent, not only contemporaries, but posterity, from criticising adversely any acts of questionable morality that he may be tempted to commit. He will take the advice of the prudent Scotchman—

"If there's a hole in a' your coats,
I rede ye tent it;
A chiel's amang ye takin' notes,
And, faith, he'll prent it."

It is the vice of most biographies, as of most funeral sermons, that they are too eulogistic; that they show us only the good side of their subject and pass in silence over the bad ones. There is often a wide difference between a man as his neighbors and friends knew him, and the mental picture of him intended for the larger public after his death. The prime requisite of a good biography, as of a good history, is that it shall be truthful. A man's life may be worth writing as an example for, or as a warning to, posterity, or as a mixture of both. In any event the truth should be told. For we may feel sure, with Sir James Mackintosh, that the whole of truth will never be detrimental to the whole of virtue. If a man's career has been such that it will not bear public scrutiny, it is better that it be buried in oblivion. If his position in life be so conspicuous that this is impossible, let him see to it during life that no stain be placed upon his memory by his own acts. It will do the world no good, and it may do much harm, to look upon the past through the distorting medium of personal feeling or of national pride.

The disagreeable frankness of some recent biographies is in accordance with the scientific spirit of the age, and we may expect more of them. This spirit is unmerciful in its search for facts. It is no longer content to explore the hidden recesses of the physical universe; it has invaded the mysterious depths

of the human mind. There is nothing hid that shall not be revealed, is a prediction that is in process of fulfilment, not as theologians understand it, but as the undaunted searchers for truth have willed it. CHAS. W. SUPER.

DECEMBER 24, 1896.

"ORGANIZED LABOR" AND THE MERIT SYSTEM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Indiana should not be named as the only State in which the leaders of "organized labor" have advocated the adoption of the merit system. When the civil-service reform bill was pending before the last Ohio Legislature, its passage was urged by a resolution of the Cincinnati Trade and Labor Assembly, and the President and Secretary of that organization went before the Committee to which the bill was referred and spoke effectively in its favor. The Ohio trades-unionists are civil-service reformers so far as heard from.

C. B. WILBY.

CINCINNATI, December 21, 1896.

ECONOMICS IN EARLY AMERICAN COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The unanimity with which the graduates of our colleges rallied for the defence of the national integrity and honor during the recent Presidential struggle, has had wide recognition. This fact may lend general interest to a brief statement of the length of the campaign which these colleges have carried on for the economic education of the American people. The meagre records of our earliest colleges and their vague language would make it difficult to apportion the degree of honor which each deserves for its early and continuous offer of such education.

The University of Pennsylvania (College of Philadelphia), one of whose founders was Franklin, appears to have been the first to offer instruction not only in law and in civil government, but also in economics. In 1756 this college adopted a plan of liberal studies framed by its Provost, William Smith, in which, after prescribing a "preliminary training in logic and metaphysics to develop his powers of thought, the student was to be brought to a knowledge and practical sense of his position as a man and a citizen, and this by a course embracing ethics, natural and civil law, and an introduction to civil history, to laws and governments, to *trade* and *commerce*." William and Mary College in 1779 added to its curriculum the subjects of law and police and the law of nations, and sometimes it has been assumed that economics was taught from that date in connection with the last-named topic. An old copy of the college laws without date, but showing that it was printed in the early part of this century (about 1807, according to President Lyon G. Tyler), mentions Smith's 'Wealth of Nations' among the text-books then used. Considerable search and personal inquiry has failed to discover economics in the curriculum of any other college before 1820, when it was enumerated among the subjects to be taught at Harvard. Its addition to the curriculum of the rest of our older colleges soon followed—at Yale in 1824; at Columbia in 1827; at Dartmouth in 1828; at Princeton in 1830; at Williams in 1835. The accessible evidence tends to prove, and correction is asked if the keepers of original records find reason for it, that the professorship of Moral Philosophy and Political Economy established in Dartmouth College in 1828 was the first chair so named in the United States.

The almost simultaneous introduction of this study by Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Dartmouth, Princeton, and Williams probably was due to the industrial revolution which the inventions of Arkwright, Hargreaves, and Fulton had wrought, the expansion of commerce which followed the close of the Napoleonic wars, the growth of our population, and the increasing mobility of labor and capital, which before 1820 gave rise to new political issues in the United States—tariff, Bank, slavery, and internal improvements. The addition of economics to the curriculum of these colleges undoubtedly was facilitated by the appearance, as early as 1821, of an American edition of Say's 'Political Economy.' This was the first text-book upon this subject used in most of these colleges, and presented it in clear, orderly, and attractive form.

JAMES F. COLBY.

HANOVER, N. H., December 18, 1896.

HOW TO BUILD UP A UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The last official list of the accredited schools of the University of California enumerates sixty-seven secondary schools, the pupils of which are privileged to enter the University without undergoing the formality of an entrance examination.* Such an educational Utopia might indicate—to the initiated, at least—an almost miraculous development and progress in our public-school system within comparatively a few years. But those in a position to judge best are not a little alarmed at this diffusion of higher education at the expense of lowering the standard of attainment. No doubt the almost boundless extension of accredited schools has been partly resorted to as a compromise measure. For many years the University was languishing and the attendance defective. Only ten years ago there were hardly 300 students in the different departments of Berkeley, while there are at present nearly 1,500, with a freshman class of over 500 members.

The founding of the Leland Stanford, Jr., University at Palo Alto caused considerable stir among the supporters and those depending directly upon the success of the University of California. With the institution of the present system of accredited schools the flood-tide in favor of Berkeley has set in, as far, at least, as quantity is concerned. While the University gained by the new system a certain beneficent supervision over the secondary schools, not originally provided for by any organic law, the final result of the plan has so far proved detrimental to the cause of thorough higher education. Year after year the number of students in our State University has increased, as there is almost no barrier to keep them out. After a secondary school once has been accredited, the future university student need apply himself only moderately in order to insure his or her matriculation upon the recommendation of the high-school principal, considering that to such principals (who, with their assistants, are almost without exception elected annually) it is of vital importance to make a good showing by recommending and inducing their pupils to enter the University. In many cases the preparatory work is most superficially and wretchedly done, as the Berkeley professors are ever ready to admit. The writer knows of cases where the whole Latin course, covering nominally four years, was completely finished by boys of average ability within one year—of course somewhat in the fashion in which Arthur Pendennis galloped through the classics with his tutor, while preparing at his mother's home for Oxford.

Now, as we here in California are continually assured that the entrance conditions of our State University are essentially those of leading Eastern colleges, it would be interesting for the advocates of a higher educational standard to know what percentage of the pupils from our accredited schools intending to enter the State University in the fall of '97 could pass the prescribed entrance examinations of Brown, Amherst, Bowdoin, or Dartmouth, or even the examinations exacted from a certain class of applicants for Berkeley and Palo Alto. The leading universities and colleges of this country, foremost of all Johns Hopkins, Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, and a score of others, do not approve of the accrediting system, and, as a rule, adhere to a strict entrance examination. That, of course, implies hard and earnest work for any applicant, who can easily measure his eventual chances of success beforehand by a close study of the examination papers of previous years at his disposal.

After careful inquiries, I find that not a single country in Europe has ever dispensed with the university entrance examinations. The pupils of the great English grammar schools, such as Eton, Harrow, Rugby, and others, must pass the matriculation examination before entering the universities, no matter how elegant the Latin verses and the Greek composition of the applicants may previously have been. The French lycée admits no student to the university without a severe test before a board of Government examiners, and the same rule applies also to the German gymnasium. Here the examining board will only in exceptional cases excuse an applicant of high standing from the oral examination; from the written, *never*.

The university entrance examinations throughout Europe mark an important epoch in the career of those who wish to undergo this severe ordeal, and no examination that may follow afterwards is regarded as of equal importance and severity. It is essentially the separating of the wheat from the chaff. Were we here in California to apply these principles to our secondary schools, the University of California would not have to descend to the level of the high schools, and make up the deficiency in the proper preparation during the freshman and even sophomore years. It is not so much quantity as quality that should be expected of the State University, established by the people, for the people, in the interest of higher education. However, this aim is not reached—to use the homely truism of one of our California university presidents—"by placing every fifty-cent boy or girl within reach of a two-thousand-dollar college education"; and the inevitable result of such a policy must be to bring about a condition of affairs to which Bulwer-Lytton refers in one of his works with an almost prophetic pathos, when he

*For a number of years past the University of California has annually sent members of its faculty to the different high schools throughout the State to ascertain whether or not the work of these schools should be accepted by the University. So far, these examiners have added every year to the number of accredited schools, and at present only a few small secondary schools of the State have not yet been placed on the favored list. In a few cases only, privileges already granted have been partly withdrawn from some of these accredited schools.

writes: "It is not from ignorance henceforth that society will suffer—it is from over-educating the hungry thousands who, thus unfitted for manual toil, and with no career for mental, will puzzle wiser ministers than I am." A CALIFORNIAN TEACHER.

DECEMBER 17, 1896.

"A DUNGEON OF LEARNING."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of Nov. 26 occurs, in p. 409, col. 2:

"There is a vast difference between 'a mine of learning' and 'a dungeon of learning.' The lucidity implied by the former phrase," etc.

The fact is, however, that, as ordinarily used, the latter phrase is exactly an equivalent of "a mine of learning," and connotes no deficiency whatever of "lucidity." We have, in it, a provincialism, the currency of which is chiefly confined to Scotland and some parts of the north of England. And in no way or degree is it depreciatory. The lady who, according to Boswell, spoke of "a dungeon of wit," intended to be highly complimentary; and no Caledonian would think himself disparaged, but quite the contrary, by being called "a dungeon of wisdom."

"A dungeon of learning" is "a magazine, treasury, or storehouse of learning"; the metaphor being based, presumably, on an arbitrary retrenchment of the secondary import of *dungeon*, namely, 'a receptacle both deep and dark.' It may be noted, in this connection, that *dungeon*, to signify 'abode,' 'habitation,' high or low, as it sometimes did of old, is not known to have survived to recent days. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, Dec. 12, 1896.

Notes.

THE turn of the year brings us in sight of the beginning of the complete Byron—Prose and Poetry—to be edited by his grandson, the Earl of Lovelace, and published in conjunction by John Murray, London, and Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. All other texts, it is said, will be put to shame by this, which nearly all the original MSS. and proof-sheets are extant to verify. Moore's letters will be greatly filled out and extended.

If the number and beauty of illustrations, excellence of typography, and sumptuousness of general appearance are to be regarded as the prime requisites for a Christmas gift-book, the palm must be borne off this year by Prof. Sloane's 'Life of Napoleon Bonaparte' (The Century Co.), of which the first volume has just been published. This volume goes only to 1797, and is occupied mainly with a narrative of Bonaparte's early life, and of the political disturbances in Corsica in which he played a part before he became an actor on a larger stage. The author's style and method of treating his subject are already familiar to readers of the *Century Magazine*, and need no comment at this stage of the publication of his articles in book form. But a few words must be said about the illustrations. Several new ones, reproduced in color from famous pictures, have been added to those which originally appeared in the *Century Magazine*. In excellence of workmanship it would be difficult to surpass these reproductions, among which is the frontispiece, Meissonier's celebrated "1814." Still, we think a protest should be entered against the practice of adorning professedly historical work with fancy pictures. The ideal way of illustrating volumes of history or biography is to insert only contemporary portraits and pictures, facsimiles of documents, and illustrations affording the reader additional information from the standpoint of actual observation. It is in this fashion that most of the best modern histories published in Europe have been illustrated, notably Duruy's celebrated histories of the Greeks and Romans, and Erdmannsdorfer's admirable history of Prussia to the accession of Frederick the Great. The Century Co. and Prof. Sloane do, indeed, supply some contemporary portraits, but their most elaborate illustrations are reproductions of fancied scenes in the life of Napoleon and in the history of his time, which possess not the slightest historical value—such pictures, for example, as "Bonaparte Pawning his Watch" and "Bonaparte as a Frequenter of a Six-sous Restaurant in Paris."

Few, if any, more brilliant narratives describing life in Paris during the Reign of Terror have been written than M. Edmond Biré's 'Journal d'un bourgeois pendant la Terreur,' which has just been translated into English as 'The Diary of a Citizen of Paris during the Terror' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The author is a distinguished historical scholar, whose reputation as a critic rests upon his excellent little work 'La Légende des Girondins,' which is so far the most valuable contribution towards a true knowledge of the aims, policy, and personalities of the group of brilliant young orators whose pathetic fate has obscured their shortcomings. Steeped as this work and his 'Paris en 1793' show him to be in Revolutionary lore, M. Biré resolved to depict the daily life of a middle-class inhabitant of the capital during the most dramatic epoch in French history. His minute knowledge enabled him to use a wealth of detail after the fashion of Defoe, and events live in his pages as vividly as in those of actual contemporaries. But he has an advantage over contemporaries in that he can insure the presence of his fictitious hero at all scenes of importance. The book is not to be confused with ordinary historical fiction of the Weyman type, for M. Biré backs up his statements with constant citations from primary authorities, and his learned notes make his volumes a first-rate guide to the bibliography of the French Revolution. To any one who desires a correct and vivid knowledge of the circumstances of the Reign of Terror, and who is disinclined to work through Schmidt's 'Tableau de la Révolution Française,' M. Biré's volumes may be commended as far superior to the abstruse and specious wordiness of Carlyle's 'History,' or the tawdry inaccuracy of Dickens's 'Tale of Two Cities.'

In the third and concluding folio volume of Cathedral Cities, etched by R. Farren, and published by Macmillan & Bowes of Cambridge, is terminated a publication dealing with the four eastern and the two northern cathedrals of England. The Minsters of the North, York and Beverly, together with Lincoln, a minster of the East, occupy this volume, to which is prefixed a most workmanlike and painstaking introduction by the late Prof. Edward A. Freeman. "I do trust it will come out some time," he wrote to the publishers in 1887. "I spent a good deal of good work upon it." The minute pains bestowed upon the subject, which may be said to have been for a long time the one nearest to Freeman's heart, lends an interest to his introduction only less than that which attaches to his similar introduction to the first volume of the series dealing with Ely and Norwich. Lincoln and Beverly are not intrinsically so interesting as York, as Ely, or as Norwich, and our writer has devoted especial pains to Beverly. As for Mr. Farren's etchings, they are up to the mark of those in the previous volumes. Long since, his view of Ely from the flooded fen, and of Peterborough from the river Nene, proved him to be a worthy representative of Old Crome, and in the present volume his view of Lincoln Minster from Holmes Common must be called his masterpiece, worthy to rank with those earlier visions of the fens and broads.

Under the title 'Fireside Stories Old and New,' Henry T. Coates & Co., Philadelphia, publish a collection of short stories of approved excellence, including such classics as "Father Tom and the Pope," Poe's "Purloined Letter," Balzac's "Chef-d'Oeuvre Inconnu," "A Dog of Flanders," O'Brien's "What Was It?" and others. To younger readers these volumes will be an acceptable holiday gift, while the older will not grudge them a place on the library shelf.

Under the title 'Papers Presented to the World's Congress of Ornithology,' the Charles H. Sergel Co., Chicago, have issued, in an attractively printed octavo volume of about 200 pages, the papers read before the congress held in Chicago Oct. 16-21, 1893, under the auspices of the World's Congress Auxiliary of the Columbian Exposition of 1893. These papers, twenty-seven in number, are all of a popular character, and from the Presidential address by Dr. Coues on to the end of the volume approach the subject very largely, almost wholly, in its æsthetic and humanitarian aspects. The papers are varied, mostly well written, and many of them exceedingly interesting, not only for the every-day reader, but for students of bird-lore. They can but serve a useful purpose in awakening a more general interest in the subject of bird protection, and deepen desire for the study of one of the most beautiful and attractive classes of animals—already a fascinating recreation to so many amateurs seeking a closer contact with nature.

The multiplication of editions of Horace shows the never-dying appreciation of this poet, who has something for every man, in spite of the paradoxes as to his lyric genius promulgated in our own day. The edition of Messrs. Page, Palmer, and Williams, abridged for the use of English schoolmasters (Macmillan), is greatly to be commended as presenting the result of the soundest researches in an elegant form and lively style. It is not, like some recent editions, given up to reviving Bentley's wildest vagaries in the text, and coupling them with Kiessling's no less wild vagaries in interpretation, but is everywhere sensible and sympathetic. The matter of quotations from both ancient and modern poets is, in accordance with the prevailing fashion, somewhat overdone; but the editors have deserved well of Horace and his readers to-day.

Lemcke & Buechner send us the *Almanach de Gotha* for 1897. The editor's preface, always readable and always read, is this year livelier than usual, displaying the extent of silent labor bestowed upon the present issue of the venerable annual, while giving a gentle pat to the critics who find "unexplainable omissions"; nearly all of them having reference to the Princess Alice of Great Britain, mother of the present Empress of Russia, who, however, is not omitted after all. The past

year, say the editors, has been a good one for reigning princes and potentates, among whom and even among ministries changes have been extremely few. The stability is reflected in the four regulation portraits, two being of the Duke and Duchess of Orleans, and two of petty German princes. Next year we may look to see the Italian-Montenegrin alliance thus commemorated. We cannot indicate all the overhaulings or new features of the *Almanach*. One, of great practical utility, is a list of national holidays (but Labor Day is inexactly put down as national with us); another is the chapter on English protectorates, and here we note the accented *e* in "Rhodésia," in place of Rhodes-ia.

The same firm sends us the long and eagerly awaited index volume to Le Soudier's 'Bibliographie Française,' or French Publishers' Trade-List Annual. More than 600 octavo pages are occupied by a single-line alphabetic subject-author index, with name of publisher; and sixteen pages by a "table systématique," or a classification *by publishers—i. e.*, if you are interested in works on Anarchy or Heraldry or Athletics or Dreams, you will find the names of publishers whose catalogues are classified for those subjects. This is reasonable, if it is not what the English 'Reference Catalogue' has given us. But the subject-author index is the main thing, and who can be too thankful to M. Le Soudier for such a comprehensive glimpse of the present literary productiveness of his country? We have here not only a key to the catalogues in the other five volumes, but even (to some extent) to those of publishers not embarked in this enterprise; and account is taken of catalogue omissions and of some publications subsequent to the printing of the catalogues. The beautifully clear typography invites much surface browsing; *e. g.*, Victor Hugo fills nearly a whole page (one six-hundredth) of the index, with seventeen publishers to his name. Racine, with more publishers, falls a good deal short of this; so do Voltaire, Rousseau, Chateaubriand, Lamartine, Sue, Zola, etc., etc. The elder Dumas slightly exceeds Hugo.

'L'Islam,' by the Comte Henry de Castries (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), is not intended by the author to be a history of the Mahometan religion. His aim is far more modest; he undertakes simply to discuss the problems which the French have to face in their administration of Algeria, for instance. This portion of his work may not appeal to American readers, but there is a great deal more in his very fascinating book. M. de Castries has endeavored, and not unsuccessfully, to clear away many misconceptions as to the facts of Islamism; he has traced the origin of many of these to their source in the opposition, at once political and religious, of the Christian Powers in the Middle Ages. He shows how modern views of Islamism are erroneous in many important respects, such as, for instance, the question of polygamy, the doctrine of fatality, and the usual conception of the Mahometan paradise. His view of the causes of the wide and rapid extension of the new creed preached by Mahomet is set forth in a soundly written chapter: the chief cause, he concludes, is neither the appeal to sensuality, the attractiveness of fatalism, nor mere blind fanaticism, but "unquestionably the extreme simplicity of its dogmas." The book has very full appendices and a complete index, so rare a feature of French works that it merits special mention.

M. Yves Guyot's book 'L'Économie et l'Effort' (Paris: Colin) is a very serious and well-studied presentation of important economic truths. In the ten chapters which are formed of the ten lectures from which the book has grown, the author treats successively economics, exchange, property, capital and labor, the currency, protectionism, and Socialists. His pages are well worth reading and pondering on both sides of the Atlantic.

M. Léon Bourgeois, in a small volume of one hundred and fifty pages, 'Solidarité' (Paris: Colin), maintains that this word expresses a new idea and is indicative of an evolution of human thought. The actual idea of solidarity, he affirms, is the resultant of two forces—the scientific method and the moral idea. He examines in detail the opposing theories of the economists and the Socialists, discusses the laws which govern solidarity, and defines the doctrine which goes by that name. This doctrine tends to increase the liberty and power of each individual in the common action, freely accepted by all. Though the book is not a long one, it is full of matter, and provides abundant food for thought and reflection.

We mention Prof. R. von Schubert Soldern's lecture 'Über den Begriff der allgemeinen Bildung' (delivered as an inaugural at the University of Leipzig, and published by H. Haacke of the same city) as a contribution to a problem of ever-growing interest in modern times; a step towards its solution the address can hardly be called. A condition most difficult of realization stares us in the face—the need of a common *Weltanschauung* (theory of the universe), which alone can furnish a uniform standard and connecting bond for the various elements of general culture and make it common. But, concludes the lecturer, this theory has gone to pieces, and therein lies the canker of our general culture.

An essay entitled 'Wie sollen wir Heinrich Heine verstehen?' by I. E. Poritzky (Berlin: Duncker), has for its object the psychological explanation of Heine's character and inner antagonism by the influences of his childhood and youth, with their extraordinary contrasts and peculiar anomalies. The local surroundings of the poet's birthplace, the Jewish orthodox family, the Bible, the period of Romanticism and the vicissitudes of the Napoleonic era—the parents, relatives, and friends, the school life and private reading—these and other influences, which often evoked the strangest conflicts of thought and feeling in the youthful mind, are separately considered in the essay. The author's tone is sympathetic but fair and dispassionate—qualities in which critics of Heine are so often lacking that, for this reason alone, though for others as well, the little work is to be commended.

The new illustrated monthly magazine of local biography, genealogy, history, and antiquities, the *Essex Antiquarian*, has already been issued with the January imprint at Salem, Mass. The editor, Mr. Sidney Perley, well known for his proficiency in all these branches, opens the number with an article on the commercial history of Salem. The most prominent feature is the beginning of a list of all soldiers and sailors of the Revolution accredited on the official lists to Essex County; but more important still is the first instalment (Abbe) of a Genealogical Dictionary of the county down to 1800, also the work of Mr. Perley. The magazine should have an assured support.

The strength of an institution of learning is measurable by its losses, and such a measure is afforded by the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for December, which chronicles the death of two eminent teachers, Profs. Josiah Dwight Whitney and Francis James Child, and one eminent statesman, the late William Eustis Russell. Of the ex-Governor an excellent photographic portrait is given, and for a full characterization of the man the memorial address of Prof. Norton leaves nothing to be desired. It deserves to be widely circulated as a tract for the times. The rest of the number presents the usual miscellany exhibiting the life of the University, and possessing an absorbing interest for the alumni, while well calculated to impress and instruct all college-bred men.

The *Geographical Journal* for December contains an interesting summary of the work of the Jackson-Harmsworth Polar expedition during the past year, which consisted mainly in the exploration of Franz-Josef Land, with the result of revolutionizing "our ideas and maps" of this country. As the accompanying map shows, it is a region of islands, straits, and seas, and accordingly hardly suitable as a point of departure for higher latitudes. The dramatic incident of the meeting with Nansen, who "was as black as a stoker from head to foot," is described at length. This is followed by an account, by Prince Henry of Orleans, of his remarkable journey from Tonkin to Assam, in the course of which he opened up 1,500 miles of entirely new country, presenting extraordinary difficulties to travellers. "In three months we crossed seventeen chains of mountains. Roads, in the true sense of the word, there were none." One mountainous district passed through was partly cultivated as rice-fields. Capt. Purey-Cust, R.N., describes an eruption of Ambrym Island in the southwest Pacific, which he witnessed in October, 1894. Observing that a lava-stream was approaching the shore, he steamed to the place, and "presently the head of the stream appeared—a red-hot, rapidly moving mass of molten lava, some thirty yards wide, with lumps of clinker tossing about on the surface. In another moment it entered the sea, and then . . . a dense pillar of steam rapidly rose straight up to a height afterwards measured by sextant and found to be 4,600 feet. There was no explosion as the lava touched the water, but a few seconds later enormous bubbles of water commenced to rise some 100 feet or more, like the explosions of heavy submarine mines, and then burst violently outwards in radiating tongues of water and black masses of presumably lava." Classical geography is represented by Mr. Myres's "attempt to reconstruct the maps used by Herodotus," illustrated by several diagrams.

There is a noteworthy demonstration in progress at the English universities apropos of the changed management of the *Academy*. An Oxford committee, consisting of Prof. Robinson Ellis, Mr. F. C. Conybeare, and two ladies, has undertaken, on behalf of some friends of Mr. J. S. Cotton, and of various contributors to the *Academy* during his late editorship, to "attest their gratitude to Mr. Cotton for the unwearied devotion with which he has acted as editor, by raising a sum of money which may form a slight, though inadequate, memorial of their feeling towards him and the journal he has so ably conducted." They have so far raised the very respectable sum of £125, but the names of their contributors are specially interesting, since they include the Vice-Chancellor of Oxford, three other heads of leading Oxford colleges, six Oxford professors, various dignitaries of the church,

and a number of Cambridge scholars, as well as Dr. Garnett of the British Museum, and other people of weight. The task of the committee has been a rather delicate one, since they have naturally desired to express no opinion as to the present management of the *Academy*—only to express approval of Mr. Cotton. All this has been successfully achieved in an amended circular, and in due time Mr. J. S. Cotton, who is about to leave England for India, will receive a mark of friendly appreciation of which he may well be proud.

Mr. F. C. Conybeare of University College, Oxford, has discovered, in an old Armenian version which he is translating for the *Expositor*, a controversial dialogue, the Greek original of which he thinks exists in the Royal Library at Vienna. It contains a discussion of Christian doctrines between a Christian and a Jew, and the arguments as to the divinity and the Messianic character of Christ are remarkable for their bearing upon various utterances of Philo. These, and an allusion to the "grandsons of the apostles," make it necessary to assign a very early date to the original.

—Mr. Laurence Hutton's 'Literary Landmarks of Venice' (Harpers) is a small volume of sixty-three pages, based upon an article which appeared in *Harper's Magazine* last summer. It belongs to a series dealing with literary landmarks of historic cities, and contains a great deal of useful information such as cannot be found in ordinary guide-books, or indeed anywhere between the covers of a single book. When the traveller arrives in Venice for the first time, he is aware of a certain confusion and oppression which comes from the contrast between the extraordinary familiarity of the scene presented to the eyes and a sense of vacuous debility proceeding from a failure to recall distinctly and definitely the hosts of associations, with persons and events, which seem to rise before the memory only to mock and elude its grasp. This is owing in great measure to the fact that Venice has so long been a Mecca for literary tourists, each one of whom, if of any importance, has left some slight Venetian association clinging to his name. Mr. Hutton has done a benevolent and pious act in looking them all up, identifying their residences, and giving us a list of their names, with just enough of anecdote and information about their Venetian lives or visits to make a book. From Petrarch and Erasmus to Browning and A. J. C. Hare, the list is long, memorable, and heterogeneous. Mr. Hutton's list contains nearly a hundred names of persons and more than twice as many names of places.

—Two unpublished letters of Rouget de l'Isle appeared in the *Journal des Débats* of November 8, having been sent to that newspaper by M. Georges Michel. They date from the period when the author of the "Marseillaise," ruined and held in suspicion by the Government of the Restoration, was living at Choisy-le-Roi in the house of General the Baron Blein, another suspected person, whose charitable hospitality poverty had forced him to accept. Both these letters are addressed to Alexandre Duval, Academician and dramatic author, who had shown himself a friend in De l'Isle's need, and had taken some steps towards its relief. The most interesting thing that the letters bring to light is a brief glimpse that is given, in the second of them, of the Revolutionary poet in the midst of the first tumultuous outbreak of Romanticism. This letter is dated May 4, 1830, and it is a very vivid bit of letter-writing and full of movement. The Revolution of July brought Rouget de l'Isle relief and some years of comparative ease. Louis Philippe, "remembering that the author of the patriotic song had been one of his companions in arms," granted him a pension of fifteen hundred francs out of his privy purse, and Béranger was able to obtain for him two other pensions of a thousand francs each. These modest resources enabled Rouget de l'Isle to hire at Choisy-le-Roi the little house where he died on the 26th of February, 1836. But it was by his friend General Blein that his funeral expenses were paid. The General himself had come back into favor with the new Government, which restored to him his rank, and he was at the side of the King and was wounded when Fieschi made his attempt upon Louis Philippe's life.

—At the beginning of its session on the 27th of November, M. Gaston Boissier laid before the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres a communication addressed to him by M. Gauckler, director of antiquities in Tunis, concerning a recent discovery which is of considerable importance, both from the point of view of art and also from that of literary history. Certain soldiers of the Fourth Tirailleurs had dug up near their camp at Susa a mosaic, very well preserved, which may date from the first century of our era. Of the three figures which this mosaic shows, M. Gauckler has no hesitation in identifying the one which occupies the centre; it is Virgil composing the 'Aeneid.' The poet is represented clad in an ample white toga with a blue border; he holds on his knees an open roll of papyrus, on which appears the eighth verse of the first book of the 'Aeneid': "Musa, mihi causas memora," etc. On his right the muse of history interprets a manuscript to him. On the left the muse of tragedy is listening. This last personage wears a fringed theatre dress girt high up with a cincture; her left arm holds up a tragic mask. There is no portrait of Virgil which is known to be authentic. The oldest ones are miniatures, notably that of the celebrated Vatican manuscript. All must derive from a common source, for all show certain features of resemblance. The present mosaic, like all the rest, shows Virgil with short hair and beardless. M. Boissier, whose erudition gives great weight to his opinion, looks upon the present *trouvaille* as probably the reproduction of some celebrated work, perhaps of one of the portraits of which Martial speaks. The Academy received M. Boissier's communication with the most lively interest, and gave its sanction to publication. The photographs which accompanied it will be reproduced in phototype.

—In his inaugural address as rector of the Berlin University (October 15, 1896), Prof. Heinrich Brunner, the first of living authorities on Teutonic legal history, throws much light upon the organization of the mediæval universities. The cosmopolitan character of these bodies, the fact that they sprang up first on Italian and French soil, and their intimate relation to the Church, have caused the majority of writers to assume that the determinant influences in their organization were Roman-ecclesiastical. Brunner shows that the influence exerted by Teutonic customs and forms of association was really decisive. The two leading types of the mediæval university were furnished by Bologna and Paris. At Bologna the student body, largely composed of mature men, was the university. The students elected the rector, to whom the professors must swear obedience. In the middle of the thirteenth century, however, there were two *universitates scolarium*, or student-bodies, that of the ultramontanes and that of the citramontanes; and at an earlier period there appear to have been four. The strongest of the four was that of the Teutons, which was afterwards the dominant "nation" in the university of the ultramontanes. Brunner holds that it was the association of the Germans which furnished the model for that of each of the other nations; and in their association he finds all the characteristics of the German protection-gild (*Schutzgilde*), which was simply the modified and Christianized form of the sworn brotherhood (*Bundbruderschaft*) of the heathen Teutons. He shows interesting resemblances between the student organizations at Bologna and the *universitates mercatorum*, or associations of German merchants (*Hansen*) in non-German countries. At Paris the original form of organization was quite different. There were no "nations" and there was no rector. The university was the body of teachers, and the student inscribed his name on the roll of a special *magister*. Here again Brunner finds a Teutonic form of association, that of the craft-gild, and is able to show numerous and striking points of resemblance between the artisan gilds of North France (where the law and custom were entirely Teutonic) and the faculties of the Paris University. Early in the thirteenth century, however, "nations" were formed after the fashion of Bologna, and the Parisian type of university organization was modified. This modified Parisian type furnished the model for the German universities.

—'The Cartulary of the Monastery of St. Frideswide'—the foundation whose chapel became Oxford Cathedral, and whose revenues Wolsey secured in the nick of time for the new College of Christ Church—has recently been edited by the Rev. S. R. Wigram for the Oxford Historical Society. The second volume is now before us, containing the Chantry and Country Parish Charters (Macmillan). It will be of interest chiefly to local antiquaries and genealogists. St. Frideswide was not among the more opulent or powerful of English religious houses; and, moreover, this present volume is made up almost entirely of grants, quit-claims, leases, final concords, and other formal documents. Still, there are some fair "pickings" for the general historian, which should not escape notice. There is the record, for example, of the gift of a mill (c. 1165) "with the miller, Hugh by name, and his wife and chattels and children" (p. 232); and another of a yardland (c. 1180) "which Aldred held, together with Aldred himself and his wife and children and all pertaining to him" (p. 263). We learn that at Binsey—which Oxford men remember as the first hamlet outside Oxford on the road to Cumnor—it was the custom for a villein to be succeeded in his holding by his *youngest* son (p. 18). The three or four undated lists of villein services (pp. 195, 284, 356) present nothing unusual; but in a certain agreement as to tithes belonging to the year 1191 we come across the distinction, possibly of some significance, between "assarts" "from the demesne" and "from the common pasture of the rustics" (p. 333). The pestilence of 1631-32 so diminished the revenues of an endowed chantry that episcopal permission had to be obtained to serve it with one instead of two priests; the outspoken canons add to their summary of the document,

"on account of the dearness of priests" (p. 14). But the tidbit is the account (p. 325) of a trial by battle about the year 1147. A certain knight, named Edward, had refused to perform what the Prior and Canons deemed his due service for a hide of land. They brought suit against him, and the trial by battle took place "in the court of the Earl of Leicester, on a green pasture near the house of Godwin." The record thus proceeds: "After a time, when there had been many an 'altercatio' (set to ?) between the champions ('pugiles')—although Edward's champion had lost his sight on the field" (we will trust only temporarily), "a fact which escaped the observation of the Prior and his men—when both the champions sat down and neither dared attack the other, peace was made" between the litigants. Oddly enough, it is from Leicester that Mr. J. R. Green gets the story of a trial by battle between two kinsmen which he tells with such effect in his 'Short History.' It may be noticed that we have charitably given page references. The Cartulary is accompanied by one of those exemplary indices, made to order, which omit not a single personal or place name, and give no help at all for anything else.

DU BOIS'S SLAVE-TRADE.

The Suppression of the African Slave-Trade to the United States of America. By W. E. Burghardt Du Bois. [Harvard Historical Studies, Vol. I] Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Pp. xi, 335.

Mr. Du Bois has at last given us a critical and, we think, definitive account of the efforts put forth for more than two centuries to suppress the African slave-trade to the United States. His work is founded upon an exhaustive and discriminating examination of the primary sources, as found in colonial, State, and national statutes, Congressional documents, publications of foreign governments (particularly Great Britain) and of various societies, and personal narratives. The title of the volume accurately defines its scope: it is a history of the suppression of the slave-trade, not a history of slavery. Into the general subject of slavery, either at home or abroad, Mr. Du Bois does not go, save in so far as is necessary to make clear the movements in connection with the slave-trade itself. To the narrative portion of the volume, about two-thirds of the whole, have been added valuable appendices containing chronological lists of colonial and State laws, from 1641 to 1871, aiming to restrict the slave-trade, a list of more than a hundred typical cases of vessels engaged in the American trade, and an excellent bibliography. The wealth of material indicated is extraordinary, even in this day of learned monographs; but out of it Mr. Du Bois has produced a book by which every judgment on the subject of which it treats must be tested, at least for many years to come.

The slave-trade to America seems to have begun with the Dutch, who in 1619 landed twenty "Negars" in Virginia; but the English were not far behind, although it was not until 1672 that the first successful English company was chartered. By 1700 the colonists were declaring in favor of the trade, and the English policy had become one of encouragement. Between 1698 and 1707 probably 25,000 slaves were brought to America annually, an increasing proportion going to the continent. The rapid growth of the slave population, however, had early bred in the colonies a "condition of vague dread and unrest," never afterwards wholly absent; and by 1698 South Carolina had sought to lessen the danger by passing an act to encourage the immigration of white servants. The attempt of Virginia in 1710 to restrict the trade by imposing a duty was defeated by the veto of Gov. Spotswood; in 1772, however, the Burgesses petitioned the King in favor of checking the trade, and in 1778 it was finally prohibited by law. The trade in Maryland, never large, had nearly ceased of its own accord by 1769, although importation by sea was not prohibited until 1783. In Georgia the efforts of Oglethorpe and the London proprietors to prevent the slave-trade received little support from the colonists, and the trade probably continued without restriction until the Revolution.

In the middle colonies, also, it was reserved for the English to develop a trade which the Dutch had begun. In spite of revenue duties, the slave traffic in New York grew rapidly in importance, and was all the more profitable because the traders took care not to overstock the market. The first American protest against the slave-trade came from Pennsylvania in 1688, but it was not until 1780 that an act for the gradual abolition of slavery was passed, while "participation in the slave-trade outside the colony was not prohibited until 1788." Both importation and exportation were prohibited in Delaware by the Constitution of 1776 and by law in 1787. In 1786 New Jersey put importation under the ban. The fear of political insurrection, which furnished the chief motive for restrictive measures in the South, was little thought of in the middle colonies; instead, those colonies, as Mr. Du Bois shows very clearly, limited the slave-trade "mainly because it did not pay." Only in Pennsylvania did the opposition take on a moral aspect. In New England, on the other hand, moral repugnance to the trade grew less and less, overborne by the great profitableness of slave voyages. Rhode Island eventually became "the greatest slave-trader in America," and Massachusetts, by the act of 1705 allowing a rebate of the duty on negroes upon reëxportation, turned her ports into exchange markets for slaves. "Not until the years 1787-1788 was slave-trading in itself an indictable offence in any New England State."

At the time of the Revolution, therefore, the early efforts to restrict the slave-trade by the imposition of duties had given way to positive attempts to regulate it, or to prohibit it entirely. It was the general opinion that both slavery and the slave-trade would shortly disappear; "there were, in 1787, few things to indicate that a cargo of five hundred African slaves would openly be landed in Georgia in 1860." Prohibition of the trade by the "Association," under the Continental Congress, was undertaken as a war measure, as part of an attempt to enforce general commercial non-intercourse with Great Britain, but its permanent effect was slight, while the stoppage of importation, and the consequent rise in the price of slaves, swelled the trade after the Revolution to nearly the same proportions as before. Not only did economic prostration at the close of the war appear to demand a reopening of the trade, but the divergence of opinion in different sections of the country as to the length of time within which slavery would probably disappear led to the adoption of a policy of non-interference. Under the Confederation, accordingly, action against the slave-trade was State, not national, while in the Convention of 1787 the subject was disposed of by one of the most famous of the constitutional compromises. Yet the discussion in the Convention had served to show ominous differences of moral attitude towards slavery. "The South," to quote Mr. Du Bois, "apologized for slavery, the Middle States denounced it, and the East could only tolerate it from afar; and yet all three sections united in considering it a temporary institution, the cornerstone of which was the slave-trade." When government under the Constitution began, the slave-trade was legal in Georgia and the Carolinas, and not actively antagonized in any other State.

The first twenty years of the constitutional period saw several attempts to suppress the slave-trade. The excesses of the Haytian revolution, begun in 1791, filled the South once more with the old dread of negro uprisings. In 1792 South Carolina prohibited the importation of slaves for two years, and renewed the act from time to time until 1803. Georgia passed a prohibitory law in 1798, which was never repealed. Similar measures followed in other States. The early debates in Congress at length bore fruit in the first national act against the slave-trade, that of 1794. This act was strengthened in 1800; and a third act, prompted, like the preceding, by continued apprehension of danger from Hayti, was passed in 1803. In the meantime the State laws had proved ineffectual in checking the growth of the trade. "It was notorious that New England traders carried on a large traffic." South Carolina, whose Representative in Congress had publicly declared that the State was unable to enforce its laws, gave proof of his accuracy, in 1803, by repealing its law against importation. In 1804 Congress partially opened the Louisiana Territory to the slave-trade, and removed all restrictions, except as to the foreign trade, in 1805; but in practice, as Mr. Du Bois shows, the whole trade was foreign, "for the slavers merely entered the negroes at Charleston, and immediately reshipped them to New Orleans." In 1806, after long debate, "the last attempt to tax imported slaves ended, like the others, in failure." The fear of the planter and the philanthropy of the Quaker had alike gone down before the mercenary demands of the trader.

The act of 1807, prohibiting the African slave-trade under heavy penalties, and restricting the coastwise trade, could not be regarded as a great victory by the anti-slavery men, nor, on the other hand, did it satisfy the South. Mr. Du Bois has collected indisputable evidence that the act speedily became, in practice, a dead letter. In the face of unanswerable proof that its provisions were systematically violated, the federal Government remained apathetic, neglected to issue necessary instructions to collectors and prosecuting attorneys, and failed to prosecute offenders actually captured. Certain obvious weaknesses in the act itself were sought to be remedied by supplementary acts in 1818, 1819, and 1820. The first, by encouraging informers, sought "to remedy defects by pitting cupidity against cupidity." The last made direct participation in the trade piracy, punishable by death, but not until Lincoln's Administration was the penalty inflicted. Smuggling declined, but the slave-trade thrived. Spasmodic attempts to enforce the law resulted, between 1818 and 1821, in the capture of eleven American slavers; in consequence, slavers took clearance papers from foreign ports, hoisted foreign flags, and carried on their operations securely in defiance of the

American cruisers. At home, attempted enforcement of the law grew less and less, and "red-handed slavers, caught in the act and convicted," did not need to despair of Presidential pardon. Mr. Du Bois shows that such pardons were granted by every President from Jefferson to Jackson, inclusive. In short, the efforts of the United States to suppress the slave-trade had failed, and failed primarily because of the criminal negligence of Government officials. There remained the final resource of "energetic and sincere international coöperation."

The story of the conduct of the United States in the long negotiations over the international treatment of the slave-trade forms one of the most discreditable chapters in the history of American diplomacy. That England's contention for an international right of search should have been resisted by other European Powers was but natural, considering the naval supremacy of Great Britain; nor had Americans forgotten their own recent grievances. The inability of the United States to cope with the evil single-handed had, however, been abundantly demonstrated, and in 1822 a committee of the House of Representatives reported "that the only method of suppressing the trade was by granting a right of search." But the United States, while urging the nations of Europe to declare the slave-trade piracy, refused to allow the right of search to be extended to American waters or to have any application "to citizens chartering the vessels of a third nation." England refused assent to such an emasculated treaty, and negotiations were broken off. As one European nation after another granted the right of search, the share of the United States in the slave-trade increased, while the importation of slaves into North and South America reached, by 1837, the enormous figure of 200,000 annually. Yet, in spite of this, to quote Mr. Du Bois, "the only answer which this country for years returned to the long-continued exposures of American slave-traders and of the fraudulent use of the American flag, was a recital of cases where Great Britain had gone beyond her legal powers in her attempt to suppress the slave-trade. In the face of overwhelming evidence to the contrary, Secretary of State Forsyth declared, in 1840, that the duty of the United States in the matter of the slave-trade 'has been faithfully performed.'" In 1841 Lewis Cass, United States Minister to France, entered a "theatrical protest" against the proposed establishment of an international right of search. Even the provision of the Treaty of Washington, in 1842, for joint cruising by English and American squadrons, was "never properly carried out by the United States for any length of time." By 1860 the American slave-trade had come to be carried on "principally by United States capital, in United States ships, officered by United States citizens, and under the United States flag"; yet Cass, now Secretary of State, refused even to allow this country to be represented at the London conference proposed by Lord John Russell, and later declined a proposal for joint cruising off the coast of Cuba. Not until 1862 was a treaty finally made with Great Britain granting the long-resisted right of search. The coastwise trade was prohibited in 1864, and by the end of the war the slave trade was at last suppressed.

The economic conditions which tended to strengthen the hold of both slavery and the slave-trade in the South are set forth by Mr. Du Bois with great clearness in the chapter entitled "The Rise of the Cotton Kingdom." The increase of the cotton crop from half a million bales in 1822 to five million in 1860, together with enlarged consumption of cotton goods, established firmly the "large-plantation slave system," and increased the demand for slaves; and when this demand could no longer be met by the border States, the foreign slave trade was looked to for further supplies. Census returns showed a rise in the average price of slaves from $325 in 1840 to $500 in 1860. Very interesting, and, historically, of especial importance, is Mr. Du Bois's discussion of the forces underlying the Government policy of inaction, and of the lengths to which violation and evasion actually went. The presence of a strong Southern element in every Cabinet from 1820 to 1850 strengthened the hold of the South upon the Administration, and, in so doing, effectually prevented active efforts to put a stop to the slave-trade. Where the national Government was not actually negligent, official judgment was prone to construe the law in favor of the slave-traders, and the courts could not be depended upon to punish clear cases of violation. The attempts to check the traffic by stationing cruisers on the African coast were ridiculously impotent.

"When it is considered," writes the United States consul at Rio Janeiro, in 1847, "that the Brazil station extends from north of the equator to Cape Horn on this continent, and includes a great part of Africa south of the equator, on both sides of the Cape of Good Hope, it must be admitted that one frigate and one brig is a very insufficient force to protect American commerce, and repress the participation in the slave-trade by our own vessels."

As the struggle for the extension of slavery grew more bitter, and the growing demand of the South for the removal of all restrictions on the trade in slaves began to be formulated with more and more definiteness, there came about, as Mr. Du Bois's researches show, "such a remarkable increase of illicit traffic and actual importations in the decade 1850-1860 that the movement may almost be termed a reopening of the slave-trade." The evidence which he has collected on this point is startling. New York was the centre for the equipment of slavers, eighty-five being fitted out in that port during eighteen months of 1859-'60. In 1856 it was estimated that "forty slavers cleared annually from Eastern harbors, clearing yearly $17,000,000." Stephen A. Douglas declared "his confident belief that over 15,000 slaves had been brought into this country" during 1859. "Negroes, newly landed, were openly advertised for sale in the public press, and bids for additional importations made." The efforts of the national Government, in the meantime, grew constantly weaker, while those of the cruisers on the African coast went to the verge of ceasing altogether. "A letter from on board one of them shows that, out of a fifteen-months' alleged service, only twenty-two days were spent on the usual cruising-ground for slavers, and thirteen of these at anchor; eleven months were spent at Madeira and Cape Verde Islands, 300 miles from the coast and 3,000 miles from the slave market." Finally, the attitude of the Confederate Government towards the article in the Constitution of the Confederate States prohibiting the importation of African negroes is shown by its circular-letter of instructions to its foreign ministers, extracts from a copy of which, addressed to Hon. L. Q. C. Lamar, Commissioner at St Petersburg, are given by Mr. Du Bois (pp. 189-190). The letter disclaims absolutely any power in the Confederacy to interfere with the slave-trade; such power being, it declares, reserved to the States.

One can but be impressed in reading this volume with the pervading weakness of the moral opposition to the slave-trade. Mr. Du Bois gives full credit to the influence of the various anti-slavery and abolition movements in arousing the public conscience, but he does not hesitate to point out that these efforts were weakest at the very times when it was most necessary that they should be strong. Even in colonial days "experience proved that an appeal to moral rectitude was unheard in Carolina when rice had become a great crop, and in Massachusetts when the rum-slave traffic was paying a profit of 100 per cent." Mr. Bois utters no reproaches, and he rarely moralizes.

"It may be doubted," he says in his final chapter, "if ever before such political mistakes as the slavery compromises of the Constitutional Convention had such serious results. . . . It was the plain duty of the Constitutional Convention, in founding a new nation, to compromise with a threatening social evil only in case its settlement would thereby be postponed to a more favorable time. This was not the case in the slavery and slave-trade compromises; there never was a time in the history of America when the system had a slighter economic, political, and moral justification than in 1787; and yet with this real, existent, growing evil before their eyes, a bargain largely of dollars and cents was allowed to open the highway that led straight to the Civil War. . . . No persons would have seen the Civil War with more surprise and horror than the Revolutionists of 1776; yet from the small and apparently dying institution of their day arose the walled and castled Slave-Power. From this we may conclude that it behooves nations as well as men to do things at the very moment when they ought to be done."

This, of course, is both admirable and true. The slavery and slave-trade compromises of the Constitution were, unhappily, part of the price paid in order to have a Constitution and a Union at all. The Providence which, from seeming evil, thence educes good, ordained that the Union itself should be the instrument of abolishing slavery in one-half of it. On the other hand, it may be allowed that the utmost straining of the mental vision could hardly have enabled the fathers to look very far into the future; while as to other qualities "one cannot," as Mr. Du Bois himself says, "demand of whole nations exceptional moral foresight and heroism."

Mr. Du Bois is a negro, a graduate of Harvard, and a professor in Wilberforce University. His story of the suppression of the slave-trade is told with simplicity, directness, and convincing force, and in an interesting style rarely found in monographs. We have failed to note in the book a single important statement of fact for which specific authority is not adduced; but there is an entire absence of anything like pedantry, and irrelevant matter has been rigidly excluded. That this study will long remain the authoritative work on the subject of which it treats may be confidently predicted. Amid all the discussion over the probable future of the negro in this country, it is matter of profound significance and great encouragement that a member of the race which, scarcely more than a generation ago, was openly bought and sold and hunted in our streets, should have traced, out of abundant knowledge and with unbiassed mind, the course of our national connection with that unholy traffic, from its beginning to its close, in a volume which is an honor alike to its author, to the university whose approval

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Ditchfield, P. H. Old English Customs Extant at the Present Time. London: George Redway; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.75.
Emerson, Rev. G. H. Life of Alonzo Ames Miner. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. $2.
Gallier, Adolphe. The Majestic Family Cook-Book. Putnams. $2.50.
General Digest of the Decisions of the Principal Courts in the United States, England and Canada. New Series. Vol. I. Rochester: Lawyers' Coöperative Publishing Co. $6.
Grousbeck, Telford. The Incas: The Children of the Sun. Putnams. $2.
Hutcheson, Frank. The Barkeep Stories. Chicago: E. A. Weeks & Co. 25c.
Le Soudier, H. Bibliographie Française. Tome VI. Tables Alphabétique et Systématique. Paris: H. Le Soudier; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Lorimer, Rev. G. C. Messages of To-day to the Men of To-morrow. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1 50.
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ERRATA.

Page 31, col. iii, lines 7 and 10 from bottom. For "dilletant," "dilletanteism," "dilletantism," read "dilettant," etc.

Page 65, col. iii, lines 9 and 19 from bottom. For "Newburg" read "Newbury." Also, p. 66, col. i, lines 31, 41, 54.

Page 118, col. ii, lines 24, 25, 26. Dele the account of Baron Pollock.

Page 180, col. iii, line 8. For "Sherman" read "Sherwin."

Page 190, col ii. The illustration regarding "New Zealand" village settlements should be accredited to South Australia.

Page 209, col. iii, line 8 from bottom. For "Cambridge" read "Boston."

Page 236, col. iii, lines 27 and 28 from bottom. For "English Astronomer Royal" read "President of the Royal Astronomical Society."

Pages 317, 318. In the notice of 'La Société Américaine' change the sex of the author from masculine to feminine.

Page 377, col. i, line 16 from bottom. For "last April" read "April of last year."

Page 388, col ii, line 8 from bottom. For "medical" read "mediæval."

Page 426, col. i, line 9. For "timber" read "timber."

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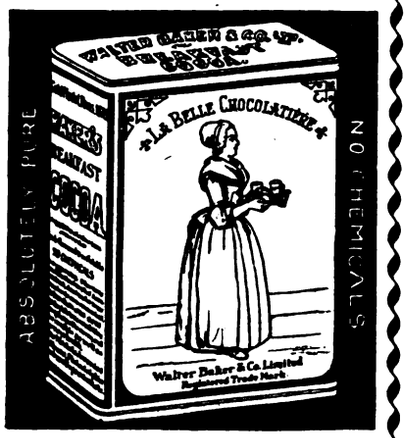

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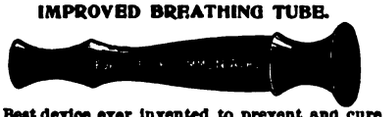

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In addition to this, the Chap-Book will continue to print stories, poems, and essays as before. The department of "Notes" will be continued and enlarged, and will appear at the front of each issue. The illustrations are to be limited to portraits, pictures of literary interest, and purely decorative designs.

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